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Grub Street and Academia:
The relationship between journalism and education,
1880-1940, with special reference to the London
University Diploma for Journalism, 1919-1939.

Frederic Newlands Hunter, M.A.

Thesis submitted for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy at
the City University. Research undertaken in the Centre for
Arts and Related Studies (Journalism Studies).

July, 1982

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- XXI National Union of Journalists. Education
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- XXII Tom Clarke's letter to The Times,¹ 18 August,¹
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ABBREVIATIONS

IJJ	Institute of Journalists <u>Journal</u>
IJP	Institute of Journalists <u>Proceedings</u>
IOJ	Institute of Journalists
JCM	Journalism Committee Minutes of the University of London
KCA	King's College Journalism Archive
MRC	Modern Records Centre, Warwick University.
N.A.J.	National Association of Journalists
N.C.T.J.	National Council for the Training of Journalists
N.U.J.	National Union of Journalists
PRO	Public Records Office
SSM	Senate Meeting Minutes, University of London
ULC/PC	University of London Collection/Private Collection

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My local libraries in the Royal Borough of Kingston,¹ as well as the library of Kingston Polytechnic provided useful reference material,¹ as did the librarians of Birmingham,¹ Sheffield and Warwick Universities. The specialist journalism collection of Southwark Library at Walworth Road was a storehouse of rare early books on, and by, journalists. The British Library was a useful back-up to sources already mentioned and the Newspaper Library at Colindale provided valuable service. The re-classification of the Northcliffe Papers in the British Library's Manuscript collection added to the complexities of this research. Staff at the Public Records Office at Kew provided excellent service and advice,¹ as did the Guildhall Library of the City of London and its subsidiary in Fleet Street, the St. Bride's Institute Library.

The death of Dr Alan Lee, Senior Lecturer in History at the University of Hull, in July, 1981, deprived me of the most considerate external adviser a part-time research student could ask for. Mr David Jenkins,¹ Head of the Centre for Arts and Related Studies at City University,¹ has given supervision of the most helpful kind at all stages in this research. Mr George Viner,¹ retired Education Officer of the National Union of Journalists,¹ was a sympathetic reader of earlier versions of this research. My colleague and friend,¹ Mr John Herbert, alone knows how much his support, encouragement, and criticism, has helped speed progress,¹ as did the meeting with Dr Oliver Boyd-Barrett at the British Section of the International Press Institute in 1980; he has proved an invaluable consort through the maze that surrounds the debate about what journalism education was,¹ is or might be.

Colleagues in the Inner London Education Authority,¹ like Mr Jim Witham and Dr Chris Parsons, provided encouragement in the later stages of this research,¹ while Mrs Margaret Rogers contributed immeasurably to my understanding of education when I first joined I.L.E.A. in 1975. The acting head of the Business Studies Department at the London College of Printing,¹ where I taught during most of this research, provided help and support of a kind that eased the problems of part-time research,¹ and it is to Mr Alan Morris that my final vote of thanks is addressed.

DECLARATION

The University Librarian is granted powers of discretion to allow this thesis to be copied in whole or in part without reference to the author. This permission covers only single copies made for study purposes, subject to normal conditions of acknowledgement.

ABSTRACT

This thesis surveys the origins and development of the moves to introduce journalism education courses into British universities between 1880 and 1970. It examines the arguments presented for, and against, such moves and describes the various courses introduced to meet the demands of education for journalism. These include the first, commercial, London School of Journalism of 1887, the syllabus agreed at the University of Birmingham in 1908, and the work of the Institute of Journalists in developing a syllabus, with the University of London, which eventually began in 1919 for returning ex-Servicemen. The thesis also follows the attempts of the National Union of Journalists, from 1920 onwards, to secure university co-operation in the education of its members.

Particular attention is given to the last five years of the University of London Diploma for Journalism when it had its first full-time Director of Practical Journalism, Mr Tom Clarke, from 1935 to 1939.

This research quotes extensively from the minutes of the Journalism Committee of the University of London and, from 1935 to 1939, from the similar committee in King's College, where the journalism course developed its own centre. Mr Tom Clarke's lecture notes are used to illustrate attitudes towards news-gathering and reporting of someone who had been a news editor on the Daily Mail and editor of the News Chronicle, prior to his appointment as Director of Practical Journalism - the first person to hold such a post.

Lecture notes of former students, staff reports on students' work, as well as students' journalistic assignments, former students and staff. Correspondence with the former Tutor to Journalism Students at King's College, Dr G.B. Harrison, now retired in New Zealand, has added a useful dimension to the archival study of Journalism Department papers, as well as giving me the advantage of Dr Harrison's comments on my research. The academic work of students has been harder to assess as staff and students had little contact outside of lecture room or examination room. The Examination Papers of the Diploma for Journalism are also studied for the light they throw on the development of the course throughout its 20-year existence.

Attitudes towards the Diploma for Journalism were culled from contemporary correspondence, the archives of the

Newspaper Society and of the Royal Commission on the Press,¹ 1947-1949,² now in the Public Record Office. The Oral Evidence of the Commission reveals close questioning of newspapermen about the course.

Finally the thesis briefly introduces possible areas of synthesis between academia and journalism.

Chapter One
Introduction

This research began when the author was invited to introduce a course in radio journalism at the London Collage of Printing in 1977. That was how the search for evidence of other attempts at introducing journalism education within higher education started. The author was aware of the University of London Diploma for Journalism, 1919 to 1939, but could find little published material about it. What there was appeared both contradictory and inaccurate. (1) Since the author needed to discover what had happened on that course the decision was taken to examine the origins, and progress, of the course. Ignorance of its origins and aims, as well as of its products and their performance, hinders the prospect of any real dialogue between academia and journalists to this day. Published literature on the topic of the education of the journalist is rare, although the subject is touched on in career guides and manuals from the late 19th century onwards. (2) It is not a subject which attracts a great deal of academic attention, (3) although the products of journalism are the subject of renewed academic interest as evidence of what Micheal Wolff has decribed as the "humanities of the ordinary" aspect of Victorian journalism. (4) References to the subject in the anecdotal autobiographical accounts of journalists are rarely those of reasoned, or accurate, scholarship. As Michael Schudson states, in his well-researched account of American journalism,

"Not all autobiography is as unhearty and uncritical as the reminiscences of journalists; they seem to continue in relatively unreflective, uncomplicated... sense of life they expressed as reporters."
(5)

The same can be said of the English equivalent in the genre. The same difficulty has to be faced when journalists attempt to pass off, as history of journalism, what is often only unexamined assumption and not established fact. English journalism is still at the state American journalism was in at the turn of the century: "there was little journalism literature on which to base an academic discipline..." (6) and here it is wise to remind ourselves of the vast increase in the numbers passing through American university Schools of Journalism. (7) Reference also needs to be made to the numbers, and quality, of critical texts published by journalists-turned-journalism educators in the United States. (8)

The American example is introduced because it not only provides an available yardstick for comparison but also for the fact that, at an early stage in the development of ideas for journalism education in England, American journalism professors visited these shores twice to advise their colleagues. (9) Later, in 1935, the Director of Practical Journalism at London University, Mr Tom Clarke, when revitalising the Diploma for Journalism, used American Journalism Schools' "Bulletins", as well as corresponding with some of them, to help formulate his ideas on curriculum development.

The main emphasis in earlier stages of this research was on the Diploma for Journalism at London University, especially between the years 1935 to 1939, and this still remains a pivotal focus for the continuing debate concerning education for journalism, as discussed in Chapters Seven to

Nine. The context for this debate is set by introducing the idea of journalism as an evolving concept from 1880 on to the 1930's, as outlined in Chapter Three, then by discussing the educational background with reference to the different approach to higher education in England compared to America. Chapter Five then outlines the emergence of ideas concerning education for journalism and Chapter Six the innovatory provision of State funds for enabling returning ex-servicemen to undertake higher education, after 1919. Chapter Ten charts the effect of the Diploma for Journalism on, for instance, the National Union of Journalists, and subsequent discussions about higher education for journalism and reveals new evidence concerning the demise of the London course. Chapter Eleven allows a few conclusions to be drawn and outlines one way further study in this area may be advanced. Chapter Two, on the context and method of research outlines the sources the author has consulted in developing this thesis.

The title for the thesis is taken from a comment by Clive James:

"As a denizen of Grub Street I become more and more aware that a thick fog would soon descend if scholarship and learned commentary were not kept up in the universities. Grub Street and universities make a bad marriage but a worse divorce." (10)

The author hopes that scholarship and learned commentary might combine at some future date with journalism to improve its ratings in the marriage stakes vis-a-vis universities.

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1. a. Cattanach, Norman. 1977. A History of Journalism Training in Britain up to the Formation of the Printing and Publishing Industry Training Board. M.Ed. thesis, University of Wales. Some of Cattanach's remarks about the Diploma for Journalism reflect his journalistic approach and, as such, are unreliable.
- b. Peacocke, E. 1936. Writing for Women. Miss Peacocke served on the Journalism Committee of London University in its later years.
- c. Steed, Wickham. 1938. The Press. Very scathing about Clarke's "commercial" journalism. Steed says things in this book about Northcliffe which are not revealed in his correspondence with him while Steed edited The Times.
- d. Newell, Eric. 1978. Letter to the author. Newell is critical of the London course, but, as he was based at University College and the Journalism teaching was centred at King's College, perhaps he was cut off from the mainstream of journalism as experienced in King's (see (e))
- e. Pinnington, Geoffrey. 1978. Interview with the author. Strongly in favour of the course as it was run at King's. He was there between 1937 and 1939.
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- e. Elliott, Philip. 1978. Professional ideology and organisation change: the journalist since 1800. In Boyce, G (ed) Newspaper History.

- f. Smith, A. 1978. The long road to objectivity and back again: the kinds of truth we get in journalism. In Boyce (e, above)
 - g. McBarnet, Andrew. 1979. Disciplining the Journalist: an Investigation of Training Methods. Media, Culture and Society, 1 (2) 181-93.
 - h. Tunstall, J. 1971. Journalists at Work. The author dismisses the Diploma for Journalism in one line.
4. Wolff, Michael. 1980. Urbanity and Journalism. The Victorian Connection (Leicester)
 5. Schudson, Micheal. 1978. Discovering the News. A Social History of American Newspapers.
 6. Birkhead, ibid. xvi. An example of the "unexamined assumption" was noted when Alan Watkins, in The Observer, once used the expression "what my news editor taught me" referring to the concept of news being "what people are talking about." This can be found, attributed to Northcliffe, in Clarke's 1931 My Northcliffe Diary, but, in America, Charles Dana is usually credited with authorship.
 7. Journalism Educator, Vol. 34, No.4. January, 1980: 71,594 enrolments Vol. 36, No.4. January, 1982: 77,540 enrolments.
 8. a. Diamond, Edwin. 1978. Good News. Bad News. Diamond was science editor of Newsweek from 1958 to 1962 and senior editor from 1962 to 1970.

b. Hohenberg, John. 1968. The News Media: A Journalist Looks at His Profession. Hohenberg was a New York political writer for 25 years and has served as professor at the Columbia University Graduate School of Journalism.

c. Johnston, Donald H. 1979. Journalism and the Media. He was a reporter, writer, and editor for United Press International and the New York Times before joining the Graduate School of Journalism at Columbia University, New York.
 9. Professor Walter Williams visited in 1908 and Professor Cunliffe in 1919. Clarke's files at King's College, London, include an obituary of Williams from The Times.
 10. James, Clive. 1980. Book review in The London Review of Books 2 (6) April 3.

Chapter Two

The Context and Method of Research

This research is the result of trying to find out, in the mid-1970's, something about the University of London Diploma for Journalism, triggered off by odd references in biographical details of contemporary journalists to their attendance on the course. If Chris Cook's excellent series on British political facts had been my guide I doubt if I would even have started. His reference to Tom Clarke lists his solicitors as stating that no papers of Clarke's were extant, so Cook did not approach the heirs. Had he done so he might have discovered that Clarke's widow had deposited his lecture notes in the library of the University of London. Luckily, I had not read this reference and continued my search.

Clarke's name was known to me because of his books, where his title, as Director of Practical Journalism at King's College, London was usually listed. I looked up his entry in the Dictionary of National Biography, written by his friend Sir Linton Andrews, and consulted the obituary columns of The Times and the Institute of Journalists' Journal. I then proceeded to start asking questions, about the existence of any records and data on the Diploma course. An older librarian at the library of the University of London was interested in my search and directed me to the University's Senate meeting minutes for the years 1919 to 1939. These were invaluable in whetting my appetite to discover more. Incidentally, I have since discovered that this librarian's kindness to me went beyond the rules of the library, when he allowed me into the stacks to consult all the minute books, providing a small table for my personal use. This same librarian then recalled that some papers had been left to the

University by Clarke's widow, and this was my first breakthrough into finding out what had been taught as Practical Journalism, at King's College between 1935 and 1939, the period of Clarke's Directorship. It was on the back of some papers in this collection that I read Clarke's first drafts on what he thought he should be teaching in his new role.

The same librarian then suggested I contact someone in the library of King's College, in the Strand. Here, again, a retired member of the staff was gradually working his way through the College archives - I think he had reached 1836 when I first spoke to him. He told me that he had worked in the College before the 2nd World War, and had known Mr Clarke and Miss Skipsey, his assistant. He had also been an evening class student under Dr Harrison, reading for a degree in the 1930's. There was a possibility that the Journalist Department papers might still exist somewhere, as everything from that pre-war period had been stacked away on the outbreak of war in 1939. These were then revealed, as evidenced in this thesis.

In the course of my work, as the first lecturer in radio journalism at the London College of Printing, I fell into conversation with someone who was then a consultant at the Printing and Publishing Industry Training Board (now defunct.) Philip Marsh could tell me about people who, until then, had only been names on paper. I wrote to Dr Harrison using the address provided in Who's Who and he replied, but also sent my letter to Miss Skipsey (by then, Mrs Galway.) My search for her had taken me on endless dead ends, until that point.

Throughout 1978 and 1979 I corresponded with many former students and lecturers, as well as people the files indicated might have attended the course - but in actual fact had not! Some former students provided copies of Hugh Gaitskell's lecture notes on "Social and Economic Structure of Today," and generally gave a taste of what it was like to be a student on the course. Names of former students, still working in journalism, were revealed in the archives of King's College, and some were interviewed.

I was shown what had been the Journalism Room in King's College; it was really an old shop fronting onto the Strand, not far from London's first School of Journalism at 222, Strand. Course timetables were examined as were records of assessments, so meticulously kept by Miss Skipsey. Letters to, and from, editors around the country who sought places for their offspring, or friends, internal memoranda, correspondence with visiting lecturers (and press releases of these prepared by Miss Skipsey), all added to gaining the flavour of what took place. American professors requesting sabbatical study facilities in the Department of Journalism, Clarke courteously had to refuse as there was little enough room for himself and Miss Skipsey, who had to share the journalism room with student users.

While the King's College archives revealed the day-to-day aspect of the journalism department (for such it was, having four staff), other dimensions were introduced when I started to examine the files of the Journalism Committee of the University of London. The memoranda between Clarke and Dr Harrison were also nearly complete and I was able to trace

the beginnings of what might have become the London University School of Journalism had not war intervened.

I next sought to establish the origins of the course itself and this took me to the Journals, and earlier publications, of the Institute of Journalists from the 1880's onwards, supplemented by journeys to the Newspaper Library at Colindale, the St Bride's Institute Library and the Guildhall Library in the City of London. One of these publications carried all the early lectures given by visiting journalist lecturers under the heading "Hints to Journalism Students by Those Who Know" and references to Mr F.J. Mansfield's contribution to lecturing in practical journalism led to his book, "The Complete Journalist."

The archives of the Board of Education were consulted at the Public Records Office to help determine how State financial support for returning ex-Servicemen, was instituted and administered, from 1919 onwards. The documentation which Colleges and Universities had to maintain, on students' progress, must have been most interesting to read. Unfortunately all such documents appear to have been weeded out by civil servants before the papers appeared in the Public Records Office. Future literary historians might have gained something from examining the files of someone like J.B. Priestley, while he was an undergraduate on the scheme at Cambridge, just as much as I would have liked to read reports on those following the Diploma for Journalism course at London University.

There are few references to the Diploma, after its early years, in the Institute of Journalists' publications, compared to the reams of debates on the topic of education for journalism up until 1910, indicating a change of heart about the running of the course, as well as the reduced role of the Institute itself reflecting the reduced membership following the formation of the National Union of Journalists in 1907. (Table III)

To help establish the climate of opinion about universities several reports of Commissions on Universities were studied. Opinions about the Diploma for Journalism were also culled from the archive papers of the first Royal Commission on the Press, 1947-49, whose papers were released during this research. The importance that Royal Commission placed on the educational work of its proposed General Council of the Press has long been forgotten, as has its 150 pages of questions about education for journalism in the volumes of oral evidence.

Memoirs of educationalists, modern works on educational theory, readers in educational history, and reports of the Board of Education for the period under review provided a background knowledge against which I could seek a flavour of educational thinking of the time. Matthew Arnold's reports on teacher training college curriculum, with their emphasis on orthography and memorizing several hundred lines of prose or verse, indicated the limitations placed upon their approach to the question of teaching in elementary schools - and the extent to which their proteges would be able to read for themselves from the newspapers.

The search for earlier clues to educational thought regarding journalism took me to the Jowett Collection at Balliol College and the Sadler Collection at the Bodleian Library, Oxford. The journalism collection at Walworth Road Library, Southwark, was an excellent source of journalism books of the nineteenth century.

I also gained from a wide reading of Sir Ernst Gombrich's writings on cultural history and general knowledge, as well as the writings of historians like Kitson Clark, Arthur Marwick, Laurence Stone and his colleague at Princeton, Robert Darnton, for his contribution on the theme of journalism, before he turned historian. I also benefited from reading Michaels Schudson's Harvard thesis before it became his book "Discovering News", - a book on journalism which delights those jaded by reading far too many turgid tomes on the subject.

The opportunity afforded by my examiners, Lord Briggs and Mr Harold Evans, of re-submitting revised earlier draft chapters on the evolution of the modern journalist (not included in the bound thesis as it first appeared) and of setting the 'education/training' debate within an historical and comparative context vis-a-vis the American and British experiences of education for journalism, enabled me to posit firmer conclusions about Britain's first experiment in journalism education in the university setting.

Once this chapter (chapter four in this version) was written it proved easier to attempt an examination of role of the journalist, as it emerged from the late nineteenth

century on towards the 1930's, when the London University Diploma for Journalism took on the characteristics usually seen in American schools of journalism: liberal education allied to practical reporting. The differences between the use of the title 'journalist' and that of 'reporter' indicate the problems facing educationists in attempting to come to grips with the requirements of a quickly-changing world of newspapers. This lack of clear definitions affected what was taught as 'journalism' in London University until Mr Tom Clarke appeared, in 1935, to direct the course towards providing learning what was involved in 'reporting' as it was practised in the mid-1930's.

In an attempt to discover how the concept of the 'journalist' and 'reporter' emerged before the 1930's I wrote the following chapter on 'The Evolution of the Modern Journalist' in an attempt to clarify what was expected of these two roles within the British newspaper world of the time.

Chapter Three

The Evolution of the Modern Journalist 1880-1930

3. a. Two Distinct Roles: Journalist and Reporter

Any attempt to disentangle the multiple strands that make up the Victorian experience in journalism in its daily, weekly, monthly and quarterly appearances is hindered by the lack of "any authoritative formulation of journalism in relation to its time" (1) The task is rendered more difficult when one attempts to identify "major shifts or modification in its professional conception of news." (2) To pinpoint the "conception of news" it is necessary to rely on earlier career manuals, memoirs and autobiographies of journalists while appreciating that

"not all autobiography is as unhearty and uncritical as the reminiscences of journalists; theirs seem to continue in relatively unreflective... uncomplicated sense of life they expressed as reporters." (3)

Those who wrote on the subject of journalism during the Victorian era were usually what Altick and Kent call "higher journalists" (4) who contributed to, and wrote for, the weightier journals of the time, either as correspondents or contributors. They were quite separate from the ordinary reporters. The latter filled the "Gossip" pages, while the former contributed to the "Intelligence" columns, as some journals labelled them. The "higher journalists" provided newspapers with "samples of the conversation of educated men upon passing events" (5) while the reporters wrote

"accounts of public meetings, exhibitions, ceremonies and incidents of various kinds..."

prosaic employment for which no great ability is required and none displayed (by this) lower form of talent." (6)

Reporters rarely mixed with the

"leading journalists... who might be barristers waiting for a brief, or resigned to the lack of them; clergymen whose conscience forbade them to practice or men of independent means who wished to increase their incomes." (7)

This implies some element of schooling beyond the ordinary elementary education available beyond the age of twelve, whether at public school, grammar school, or, in many instances, at university. Also implicit was the close connection between journalism and literature, with career manuals parading the names of the masters before the neophytes, with Charles Dickens well to the fore. Two words combine to bring the 'Literary journalist' forward in the perspective of Victorian journalism. One of them Wilfrid Meynell (1854-1948), published a career guide in 1880 (using the pseudonym of John Oldcastle) in which he noted that leading journalists on The Times had salaries "into four figures" (8) Meynell himself averaged about £1,000 a year by his, anonymous, freelance contributions by

"paragraph-writing... half a column in Pall Mall Gazette, two columns in the Illustrated London News, three in the Athenaeum and two-and-a-quarter in the Academy, as well as a page in Tablet and thirteen paragraphs in the Daily Chronicle... headed "From the Office Window." (9)

Reporters considered themselves lucky if they received £2 or £3 a week, between £100 and £150 p.a. as did J. Alfred Spender (1862-1942) when working for his uncle on the Hull Eastern Morning News in 1886 (10) or the budding dramatist, James Barrie (1860-1937) who received £3 a week in 1887". (11)

By the turn of the century the reporters were firmly classified as lower middle class, with earnings between £150 and £200 p.a., in a review of family budgets undertaken in 1901 when the reporters were grouped with bank clerks and skilled mechanics. (12) The article went on to reveal that a young reporter on a metropolitan daily newspaper received the same as a senior reporter on a provincial daily newspaper. Small, weekly, newspapers attracted very little prestige, while the highest centred on the London newspapers published in Fleet Street.

The early years of the 1880's witnessed a widespread concern among reporters about the need for some kind of professional body "for the purpose of forwarding the legitimate interests of the profession" (13) and, after an informal meeting held at the 1883 agricultural show at York, a committee of nine was formed:

"to take prompt and energetic measures for the establishment of a League or Association of reporters, sub-editors, and others engaged on the Press of this country." (14)

The Manchester Press Club members referred to themselves as

"pressmen" or "reporters" and not as "journalists" but it was the National Association of Journalists which was formed in 1884.

Some of those attending the founding conference of the National Association of Journalists wished to enrol in membership "gentlemen engaged in journalistic work" while others wished to restrict it to "gentlemen engaged in the literary work of newspapers" (15) At that time the "literary work" of the newspaper was seen to include reviewing, leader-writing, and special correspondence, because

"following the rapid increase of provincial newspapers in the 1860's and 1870's there was a tendency for well-established men to denigrate newer recruits by using a distinction between 'journalists' - worthy of high prestige; and reporters - worthy of little" (16)

The work reporters were expected to undertake, as the nineteenth century neared its close, was described in one career manual as being "simply an apt notetaker and transcriber" (17) or a paragraph-hunter scouring his neighbourhood for "four paragraphs chronicling life, or death, or 'high jinks' in the parish" His responsibility was to provide the public with graphic accounts of important incidents (18) and his work was rooted in the reality of describing daily events: what the eye takes in and the mind retains. Working on a provincial newspaper the reporter could expect, in one day, to describe:

"the opening of a public building... the next (day) giving an account of a boat race. Now

he attends an agricultural show, then a volunteer review... in addition... he has to pen: 'Violent Snow-storm', 'Railway Accident', 'Concert at the Assembly Rooms', 'Exhibition of Pictures'." (19)

In 1861 William Hunt (of the Eastern Morning News) tells us he had to provide his reporters with "Hints to Reporters" telling them what to look for, and note down, when passing through the streets in the days when reporters often had to travel on foot to their destinations. (20)

3.b. The Role of the Sub-editor

As the numbers of provincial newspapers increased five-fold between 1837 and 1887 (21) it is not surprising that there was a substantial increase in the numbers working on newspapers (22). Indeed Lord Northcliffe reckoned twenty men were needed in place of the one required under the older style of journalism. Just how dramatic that increase was can be deduced in this extract from a letter from Antony J. Mundella, a sub-editor in the London office of the Manchester Guardian (a nephew of the Liberal Cabinet Minister of the same name), written to George Armstrong (1870-1945) in 1902:

"there is fierce competition among the papers... in order to miss nothing they have to employ an army of sub-editors to fly through tons of matter at lightning speed, fastening instinctively on any 'point' worth a paragraph... and crystallize it into a few lines... it is spoken of with amazement by journalists as the most startling development of work in a newspaper office brought about by the appearance of the Daily Mail and then the

Armstrong described this as "a quite accurate description of what goes on... a revolution in the old style of sub-editing." Armstrong's career had involved a year of studying at University College, Liverpool, which Edward (late Lord) Russell had recommended he follow before applying for journalistic positions. His first job was as an unpaid trainee, then junior reporter, progressing to sub-editor during the 1890's working on papers like the Liverpool Mercury, the Nottingham Daily Express, the Middlesbrough North Eastern Gazette, the Bradford Observer and the Bolton Express - where a colleague was (Sir) Mortimer Wheeler. When he received the letter from Mundella, warning him about sub-editing in London, Armstrong was about to take up a sub-editorial position on the Morning Leader in London. From that he obtained the editorship of the Northern Echo in Darlington (where W.T. Stead (1849-1912) cut his journalistic teeth) from 1904 to 1908, at £400 a year. Then he moved to be managing editor of the northern edition of the Daily News, and later a director, between 1908 and 1922. This illustrates the way the provinces-to-London route was followed, and, also, points to the way the provinces kept abreast of London developments because, when he moved to the Echo:

"it had been agreed there must be a revolution modelling the new paper on the Morning Leader itself, with the leading news on the front page and sharing many features of the Leader (especially) its magazine pages."
(24)

The "old style of sub-editing" referred to above had captured the popular imagination and become "the popular ideal of a newspaper editor" (25) and, to the newspaper reading public, the roles of editor and sub-editor were inter-changeable (26) as, indeed, they often appeared in the situations vacant, and wanted, columns of the newspaperman's recruiting agency, The Athenaeum (a role the Daily News eventually inherited). The popular phrase was the "Scissors and Paste" aspect of the sub-editor's job

"in the course of a few minutes, by aid of his pen, scissors, and paste-pot, he has produced a neat condensed account, in the space of half-a-column or so." (27)

W.T. Stead described the work the following year as the

"newspaper precis... an attempt to construct an intelligible narrative... from an undigested mass of material (like Government Reports)... which not one in a hundred ever reads." (28)

As nobody could be bothered to read dull Government publications then it was the sub-editor's function

"to make an interesting column of news by reducing a voluminous narrative (which he had) improved, modified and animated." (29)

3.c. The "New Journalism" Interviewing

These descriptions of journalistic work have not

included anything about one aspect of modern journalism, that of interviewing. This brings us to the dividing line between the old-school of journalism and the "new journalism" which became the "conventional term for developments in the press after 1880." (30) One journalistic critic, speaking at the annual conference of the Royal-chartered Institute of Journalists (successor to the early National Association of Journalists) in 1896 commented on the degeneracy of the new journalism with its "plague of interfvewers which allow the showman in our midst." (31) Another even made it a condition of his employment that he should not have to undertake interviews. (32)

According to Dr Alan Lee (d. 1981)" the classic, if rather obscure origin of the term was in 1887" when Matthew Arnold (1822-88) described the New Journalism

"which is full of ability, novelty, variety, sensation, sympathy, generous instincts; its one great fault is that it is feather-brained. It throws out assertions at a venture because it wishes them true; does not correct either them or itself, if they are false; and to get at the state of things as they truly are seems to feel no concern whatever." (33)

Arnold went on to link the growth of new voters, in industrial centres where newspapers flourished and the classes had least contact with each other, to "the democracy as people are fond of calling them... disposed to be, like this journalism, feather-brained" (34)

The object of Arnold's attack was the editor of the

Pall Mall Gazette, W.T. Stead, whose use of the American import, the interview, contributed one aspect of the style of the New Journalism.

Even this, as well as other techniques associated with it, can be found in earlier years, but it is convenient to use this time scale as indicative of the major changes which did take place at first in London, and then in provincial, newspapers:

"the most conspicuous (change) was typographical innovation aimed at making the paper more readable. Cross-heads, shorter paragraphs, larger and more informative headlines, and the increasing use of illustration... the increasing use of the front page for news... and increasing emphasis upon news as against opinion (with) the news... shorter, more 'snippety' and often trivial, and lacked guidance to help its readers understood... and concentrated on what the Americans... called the 'human interest story.'
(35)

While provincial newspapers were still employing "reporter-compositors" (36) they were no longer expected to reside on the premises and have their wives look after the "shop" (37)

At another level the "popular fallacy" that "shorthand writing and reporting are synonymous" (38) persisted in the popular imagination but it was deplored by some provincial newspaper editors who obviously suffered from the "more mechanical and less intellectual reporter who can do little else than write shorthand." Yet there had been increasing complaints from politicians, throughout the 1880's, that

inadequate attention was being paid by the press to their speeches (even though one of them, Lord Rosebery, speaking to the London Press Club in 1913, doubted the public ever read them.) Professor Stephen Koss describes "the cutting down of speeches...as the single most striking development in late-Victorian journalism," (40) and, Lee adds that, by the 1890's "verbatim reports of these occasions were rare." (41) It is important to remember here that the "old journalism" was more firmly tied to party political groups, whether Tory or Liberal, while the reporter, in Koss' words, (42) "has nothing to do with the political side of his newspaper." (in the author's opinion this comment indicates Koss' misinterpretation of how this political side still permeates modern British journalism.)

3.d. The Role of the Descriptive Reporter

The almost mechanical function of verbatim reporting gave way to what has been called "interpretative reporting" (42) while London editors used the phrase "descriptive writing" to cover the reporting and its written appearance - which did change. (44) The change was noticeable in the language used. When the

"old-fashioned journalist would write 'commence' when they mean 'began' and refer to grouse as the 'feathered denizens of the moor'... the journalist of today should avoid taking their work as his model." (45)

This new form of journalism replaced the

"old-fashioned, three-decker leading article and monopolized the best engagements in the Reporters' Diary. (It was) the pleasantest work... (he) sees new sights and enlarges his knowledge of the world (going) by nights to the House (of Commons), political meetings, great fires, to pit explosions, railway accidents, ship launches." (46)

The byproduct of this New Journalism imposed "a harder. more delicate task on the journalist. His triumph may be greater but there are more chances of failure, more opportunities for abusing his power." (47)

One small example of the change involved can be illustrated by the editor's instructions to a reporter, writing about a Royal Academy Summer Exhibition, "Don't give too much attention to the pictures. Send a couple of articles...chiefly about the smart people." (48) But even this is really a hangover from the old journalism when "nobody would be an ignoble newspaper-man who could be a highbrow litterateur." (49) For the "higher journalist" (leader-writer, special correspondent) of those days had looked down upon news unless it "began with politics and ended with literature, art and music." (50)

As the first news editor of the Daily Mail, Lincoln Springfield (1865-1950) experienced at first-hand the difficulty these journalists faced in trying to understand that the essential fact of any report had to be given in the opening line of the report and not unfold chronologically,

as in a story:

"I deemed it was desirable to say at the beginning of a report (of an inquest) that a verdict of murder was returned against a man... rather than giving a column of the inquest, and then disclose the sensational verdict at the close..." (51)

Springfield saw reporting as a more creative role than that of the leader-writer, who could only express opinions on other people's presentation of affairs, because the reporter could "undertake the collection of his own facts and impressions" (52)

The pre-eminence Lord Northcliffe (1865-1922) gave to news indicated a change of status for the news-gatherer and it was this, in Springfield's opinion, which made it possible for university graduates to consider the reporter's role as one worthy of a career. The effect was evident at other levels: between 1919 and 1939 many English writers, and novelists, could agree on one thing: the importance of accurate reporting and its beneficial effect upon whatever form the writing took. So Somerset Maugham (1874-1965) could advise the young graduate, Godfrey Winn, to:

"become an accurate reporter, and try your hand at writing profiles... you will find journalism a far less degrading mode of existence... then other forms of literary activity." (53)

The author of the "Bengal Lancer", Francis Yeats-Brown (1886-1944) wrote:

"I strongly advise any budding author to avoid reviewing - not other kinds of journalism, which are all good practice for the masterpiece everyone hopes to write one day..."

Neil Bell (alias Stephen Southwold) a less successful writer, (1887-1964), in monetary terms, estimated that he made an average of £1,300 a year between 1927 and 1954 (55) after allowing ten to twenty per cent for his agent's commission, "For my publishers I have made about £100,000 net." Bell wrote over 70 books and numerous reviews, ignoring Yeats-Brown's advice about avoiding reviewing.

For other writers, growing up between the First and Second World Wars, Cyril Connolly (1903-74) stated that

"the idiom of our time is journalistic and the secret of journalism is to write the way people talk. The best journalism is the conversation of a great talker." (56(a))

The poet, W.H. Auden (1907-74) "always believed that a good writer must first be a good reporter." (56(b)) The young Christopher Caudwell (1907-37), who died in the Spanish Civil War, wrote that "Journalism becomes the characteristic product of the age." (57)

A more recent critic has stated that "journalism has become the pre-eminent form, both as a means of reaching an audience and as a means of expression." (58)

Those who have used reporting as a stepping stone on the way to writing fiction and drama are legion, and include:

James Barrie, Arnold Bennett, Philip Gibbs, Robert Harling, C.E. Montague, Henry Williamson, and, more recently, Michael Frayn. Returning to Connolly, we find him donning his more mandarin manner when he writes:

"Nothing dates like a sense of actuality than which there is nothing in journalism more valuable... of the admirable journalism that has appeared in the literary weeklies, how little bears reprinting." (59)

Whoever the writer he had to remember that "he must conform to the language which is understood by the greatest number of people, to the vernacular." (60) This statement succinctly leads us into consideration of the great change that came over the commercial press as it sought ever-larger readerships. It was also expensive because:

"nurturing the public appetite for perishable news was an expensive and resource-demanding hunger (for) the 'true' stories told in newspapers (which) also provided information essential to making one's way in a complex world." (61)

To accomodate this hunger newspapers had to become magazines, offering wares normally found in a different kind of periodical. As early as 1902 the Morning Leader had its "magazine pages". (62) This additional element in newspaper content owed much to Northcliffe's interpretation - and extension - of news as "talking points... the topics people are discussing... and developing them, or stimulating a topic oneself." (63) This, it has to be remembered, came after the first element of hard news, that of surprise.

These topics "people are discussing" rarely matched the old journalism's conception of importance - the "journalism of opinion" as it liked to regard itself. What these topics included was outlined by one of London University's part-time journalism lecturers:

"All those things that affect home life are in the Press. For the housewife: home and fashion notes, topical recipes, film and book notes, the finest fiction, advertisements that make her shopping range unlimited... houses, furniture, insurance, the car, the wireless, clothes, tobacco... where the family should spend the holidays, discover what it costs and fix it all in a flash." (64)

This quote amply illustrates the vast range of topics that came within the remit of the modern newspaper. What it could never be was dull.

This description matches the content offered to his readers by one of the novelists listed on the previous page: Arnold Bennett (1867-1931). A former assistant editor of Woman, Bennett could charge the London Standard £300 for printing his regular contributions. His successor on the Standard, J.B. Priestley (1894-1984) writes:

"What such popular journalism did do was to give him a thorough understanding and appreciation of the topics, the situations, incidents, and characters that have the firmest hold upon the popular imagination... when he introduces into the novel a new kind of house... he gives us an exact description of the labour-saving devices in the house." (65)

As a paragraphist in his native Burslem and a contributor to

Tit-Bits in 1889, before becoming Woman's assistant editor in 1894, Mr Bennett is described by academic critics as "no more than a good journalist" which earned him £22,000 a year by 1929. (66)

3.e. The Reporter as Observer of Facts

Priestley's description of Bennett's approach equates with Connolly's belief that

"to write a novel an author must have experience of people as they are, and have resolved the contradiction in his own nature: he must be integrated, a machine for observation." (67)

In this, as in so many other things, it would appear as if the British writers and journalists were imitating their American counterparts, described by Michael Schudson as

"writing in a self-consciously realistic vein growing out of their experience as newspaper reporters... The word 'observe' was all-important to the reporters and realistic novelists of the 1890's (who) praised powers of observation and the realists sense that the newspaper story, the magazine article, and the novel could be, and should be, photographically true to life." (68)

Just as a "foundation of fact" (69) was imperative for factual reporting, so "the good observer" - as Henry James described Anthony Trollope (70) - was vital for fictional realism. Literature, as much as journalism, stressed

factuality, and this, as the career manuals and autobiographical anecdotes reveal, was one of the basic occupational ideals of journalism. But it was wider than that for Americans, according to one academic critic who believed "our faith in facts grew with every succeeding century... we have cherished faith in the beneficent influences of facts." (71) Schudson interprets the "unashamed empiricism" of the period as a belief that a "democratic vision, and empirical inquiry... fit most comfortably." (72) In England it was enough to state "facts were all" (73), but there were some English journalists who wanted to see more evidence of American-style "democratic vistas" in their own experience "when uninteresting speeches by politicians will be replaced by more space for questions affecting the welfare of the people." (74)

Schudson also equates the growing popularity of science with "the rise of realism" (75) and posits the "idea of science as a process of data collecting" which fits in with Walter Lippmann's (1889-1974) concern about "data... and the machinery of record" (76) so integral to the role of journalism. This is raised to underline the close nature of the transatlantic journalistic connections, illustrated by (Sir) Norman Angell (1872-1967), editor, under Northcliffe, of the Continental Daily Mail, 1905-14, quoting Lippmann's desire to see.

"professional training in journalism in which the ideal of objective testimony is cardinal and... true (where journalists were) men who

laboured to see what the world really is (and) good reporting requires the exercise of the highest of scientific virtues." (77)

3.f. Some Possible Benefits of Education for Journalists

Lippmann wanted to see journalism turned from a haphazard trade into a disciplined profession where

"the cynicism of the trade needs to be abandoned for the true pattern of the journalistic apprentice (as) patient and fearless men of science who have laboured to see what the world really is." (78)

It was Lippmann's belief that "Schools of Journalism... (would) go quite far in turning newspaper enterprise from a haphazard trade into a disciplined profession." (79) With "academics committed to the paradigm of journalism as a professional enterprise and to journalism education's role in promoting this model" (80) then the fledgling journalism schools of the early 1920's were well ahead of British proposals, where only the London University ran a journalism diploma, from 1919 to 1939. This will be examined more thoroughly in subsequent chapters but the principle needs to be set within the debate about journalism and the changes evolving within it, to enable us to appreciate the differing attitudes towards education for journalism revealed in the British debates.

The discussion about education is even more relevant in terms of the emerging character of the New Journalism in

England and the demands it brought for a style of writing which was "bright, alert, efficient... (the) style snappy, and perky and button-holing" (81) the description given by J.B. Priestley to Arnold Bennett. So, generally in English newspaper offices

"everywhere the word 'bright' was heard. To 'brighten' the news, to have 'brighter' features, to engage 'brighter' writers... were the instructions daily repeated." (82)

You could not awaken a reader's interest with a dull, commonplace recital of events; reporters were advised to "say what you mean directly in good clear English with short sharp, clear-cut sentences." (83) This was the way the editor R.D. Blumenfeld (1864-1948) put it. Blumenfeld was an American who edited the Daily Express from 1902 to 1932, after working first for Northcliffe.

It was Northcliffe who bemoaned the lack of reporters who could "write good clear English":

"We have Oxford men here and Elementary men. None of them can write grammatically or spell, and they are woefully ignorant of anything that happened since B.C. 42." (84)

Northcliffe himself was just as critical of "the deficiencies of a purely Fleet Street education" (85) and that was something which he was grateful never to have suffered.

The fact is, however, that newspapers, including Northcliffe's, assiduously courted talent from Oxford as

catalogued in Ayerst's "biography" of the Manchester Guardian and as observed by Sir Ernest Barker (1874-1960) with his remark about "Oxford men flowed onto the newspapers" (86) while Lord Beveridge (1879-1963) was one for whom "the Oxford 'Greats' course had its mundane uses... as a direct training for the more solemn forms of journalism," (87) which he undertook as a leader-writer on the Morning Post from 1906 to 1908, before entering the civil service. By 1931 one provincial newspaper editor could comment that "there never was a time when more university men were being attracted into journalism." (88) The bright young men still sought entry to Fleet Street direct from Oxford after the First World War, which had seen nearly 5,000 Oxford and Cambridge graduates killed. Evelyn Waugh (1903-66) was one who obtained a three month's trial on the Daily Express, which he used to good advantage in his fictional account of reporting the Abyssinian War.

Beverley Nichols (1899-1983) was another

"who wrote the article "Oxford on Slang"... (he) comes down in December and would greatly like to join the Daily Mail... he is brighter than young George Binney, editor of The Isis, and is obviously a very witty writer." (89)

Journalists interpreted the "New Journalism" as extending journalism's "purview to life as a whole... involved in the training of a new type of journalist" (90) to meet the new demands; even Northcliffe contributed a chapter on the subject to a career manual, (91) backed up with scholarships

at the City of London School. Forty years later one of those pupils, Alan Pitt Robbins (1888-1967) represented the Institute of Journalists in the negotiations leading up to the formation of a national advisory body for journalism education, after the Second World War.

In 1910 eminent editors of the old school, like A.G. Gardiner (1865-1946), editor of the Daily News from 1902 to 1919, and Sir Robert Donald (1860-1933), editor of the Daily Chronicle from 1902 to 1918, could be heard drumming up support for the idea of education for journalism, echoing sentiments which took on concrete form in the shape of a post-graduate syllabus for journalism at the University of Birmingham, published in 1908 (but never implemented). Gardiner was firmly of the opinion that English universities:

"should give more definite encouragement to men to take up journalism (because) the ground the journalist is called upon to cover today is exceedingly wide... the more the Universities widen, modernise and humanise their culture the more they will benefit journalism." (92)

This extract from Gardiner's address to the annual conference of the Institute of Journalists was supported by Sir Robert Donald, speaking in Oxford:

"We need classes or schools of journalism which give prominence to the training and development of the journalist as a writer. The literary gift will show itself equally in small paragraphs as in a long descriptive report or in a leading article... the ability to express in simple, clear and direct language the purpose of the writer." (93)

When British ex-servicemen returned to civilian life in 1919 they were able to undertake a diploma for journalism at London University, supported by State funds. One of the problems, however, was underlined by Walter Lippmann's statement, the same year, that education for journalism was a "pedagogical problem requiring an inductive study" (94) Subsequent chapters explore the development of this idea and attempt to overcome what one American sociologist has deplored as the dearth of "existing data on the educational process in the schools of journalism" (95)

Chapter Three

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Chapter Four

Some Aspects of Education and Training

4.a. Liberal Education

As the span of this research extends over nearly a century of rapid change and developments within British society it is difficult to determine precisely the causes of change within such a scholarly under-researched area as journalism education. It is even more difficult to be certain of the definitions, of education and training, proposed by the various protagonists in the debate. But in the late 19th, and well into the 20th century the concept of university education, of the Oxford variety, was understood to be liberal education which trained the mind for the profession to be followed in later life. This experience was often referred to as "university training" and dictionary definitions of training and education, at the beginning of the 20th century, were nearly interchangeable. The university was seen as the place where young men went to train themselves for the world outside, training the mind to meet the challenges of politics, administration, policy-formation and Empire-building. Such was the theory, but, even during the first two decades of the 20th century the London School of Economics had staked a claim to a new concept "training for a new learned profession... that of public administrator" as the School's Director, William Beveridge, phrased it in the first number of the journal Economica, founded by the School in 1921 to further its aims.

The dominant definition of liberal education, which Beveridge attacked in the title of his article "Economics as

a Liberal Education," was that undertaken by studying the great classics of two dead languages, ancient Greek and Latin, although mathematics and natural philosophy (as science was then labelled) were an element in the education - and that latter element was mainly Euclid. It was this definition that professions striving after professionalisation at the turn of the 20th century had to contend with. Such a definition excluded many from the poor working classes, as well as artisans and self-taught engineers and Dissenters who were unable to ascribe to the Church of England's Thirty-nine Articles - University College, London, became their "Godless University" after its foundation in 1826.

It was Cardinal Newman who provided the rationale for the idea of liberal education with his 1859 essay "On the Scope and Nature of University Education" which stated:

"When the intellect has been properly trained in all it will be a faculty of entering with comparative ease into any subject of thought, and of taking up with aptitude any science or profession (and it offered more than mere reception of knowledge)... seeing the world, entering into active life, going into society, travelling... coming into contact with the principles and modes of thought of various parties, interests, races... is called enlargement... the mind's energetic and simultaneous action upon and towards and among those new ideas rushing in on it."(1)

It was this kind of education that Benjamin Jowett (1817-93) favoured at Balliol College, Oxford, especially for these aspiring to enter the journalism of the period. These were those whom Sir Ernest Barker described as "flowing from

Oxford" into the newspapers of the day. (2) One journalist, writing at the close of the nineteenth century, but writing about the 1860's described journalism then as being at a turning point with "a better order of things signalised...by the attraction of many fresh, bright, strong and scholarly minds to journalism as a power." (3) Of the Journalism of the mid-nineteenth century Newman himself thought it would replace the authority of the university and he regarded this as

"unsatisfactory... for its teaching is so offhand, so ambitious, so unchangeable... it increases the mischief of its anonymous writers (whose) random theories and imposing sophistries... carry away half-formed and superficial intellects... in the lucid views, leading ideas, and nutshell truths for the breakfast table." (4)

This genuflection towards the "popularity of the moment" was seen by some as inconsistent with the demands of a liberal education, the "perception of truth and beauty", which enabled its practitioner to distinguish between the truth he knows from that he does not know. Provincial and metropolitan newspapers were themselves the witnesses for the prosecution in one book of essays which deplored the predominance of the Classics in English education. (5)

One of the "signals" referred to above was the emergence of the Saturday Review and a journalism that "had advanced to a far higher stage of authority and consideration" (6) in the 1860's. These "Higher" journalists were in abundant supply, as other scholars have amply demonstrated (7) and one who contributed to this literature

(as well as formulating the first university journalism syllabus in England at Birmingham University in 1908) had this to say about the flavour of education at Balliol under Jowett:

"they attached themselves loosely to Balliol and rambled about the university browsing here and there on such lecture-fodder as they could find palatable, or likely to meet their needs. Sometimes they looked in on lectures on political economy, or on English history, or on art, or even on Greek philosophy. They were encouraged to visit museums and art galleries or to write essays and go long walks with their patron or some other illumining pundit. This (Jowett) called giving them the flavour of Oxford life." (8)

Professor John Churton Collins was professor of English at Birmingham University and his first journalism syllabus contained echoes of these ideas, down to the "visiting Museums", and, even though this proposed course never actually started, because of Collins' death, his ideas were carried forward both by academics and journalists involved. (9)

While this might have been a peculiarly Balliol-inspired curriculum it would appear that Oxford tutors commended the style of the essayists of the journalism found in The Spectator and the Saturday Review. (10)

4. b. Technical Education

Recent studies have demonstrated how "important the ideological element is in our educational system which stresses the moral value of "pure" as opposed to "practical thinking," (11) and trace Britain's failure to develop an

educational system "essential to national efficiency" (12) as a contributory factor inimical to the country's industrial progress. The inability to realise the nature of the change in the competitive international system, as it developed after 1870, meant that continental and American efficiency outstripped British efforts. At a time when British industrial pre-eminence seemed assured British complacency formed the bedrock for future decline. (13)

This complacency can be seen operating in the painfully slow development of any comprehensive form of national education. Britain's hopes for an educated workforce contributing to national efficiency were seriously hampered by having a school-leaving age of ten, from 1870 to 1893, of twelve until 1922 and of fourteen after that. (14) What education there was was extremely basic and various nineteenth century institutions developed to help meet the need, from Sunday schools to Mechanics Institutes - themselves the forerunners of several technical colleges which eventually became university colleges. (15) Introduction to occupational roles was usually achieved by apprenticeship to a trade for a fixed number of years for which, in return, the apprentice received instruction in the secrets of his master's trade. The implicit assumption of this method was that a coherent body of skills existed which could be "learnt in the course of watching somebody already proficient in them, and by imitating his example." (16)

Even 19th century critics realised that such schemes rarely fostered innovation, especially in a competitive

market where fixed sets of skills rapidly became obsolete.

The Economist deplored the fact that, in 1868:

"our manufacturing classes are at an unfair and dangerous advantage compared with the trained and intelligent operators of continental countries... (where) the preparatory stage of education can raise the intelligence and knowledge, and, therefore, the ultimate skill of the artisan." (17)

The writer implied that the apprentice model, of passing on the tradition from the workman to his novice, had a "narrowing influence upon the mind." He declared that "technical education was almost entirely new to this country" in 1868, but the next year the paper was calling for a commission to enquire into the moribund City of London Livery Companies as an "unexplored means for furthering technical and higher education" of the artisan and middle classes "on the principles of their original formation: "the furtherance of the art and mystery... of the several trades represented by them." For this suggestion they had an ally in the Prime Minister, Mr. Gladstone, when he addressed the Workmen's International Exhibition in 1869. (18) It took another nine years before this actually materialised with the formation of the City and Guilds of London Institute, later incorporated in 1880, under (Sir) Philip Magnus (1842-1933) its founding secretary and first director until 1888. This Institute still operates today in the country's technical and further education colleges.

Further evidence of public concern was manifested in the appointment of a Royal Commission on Technical Instruction which sat under its chairman, (Sir) Bernhard Samuelson, from 1881 until 1884. The Commission members

visited France, Germany, Denmark, Holland, U.S.A. and Canada and were, like their chairman, Samuelson (1820-1905), mostly technologists and self-made men. They advocated a unified system of elementary and secondary education, along the lines of The Economist's pleas for a "preparatory stage" of education. (20) However, it was not until 1889-1891 that Technical Instruction Acts were introduced and, even then, many local government authorities used them to finance their provincial universities, especially in the natural sciences. (21) Instruction financed by the Technical Instruction Acts was supposed to be confined to "technical education" but this was so defined as legally to include every subject of study except "theology, Greek and Shakespeare," but even these could be taught if the expense was met from other sources of income such as fees or endowments. (22) The money for this legislation was taken from the "whiskey money" duties on beer and spirits that local authorities could impose under the 1890 Local Taxation Act. This legislation also allowed local authorities to spend up to one penny in the pound on local museums, colleges of art and schools of science.

It is interesting to reflect on the fact that in the same year in which the Institute of Journalists began discussing proposals for some form of entry examination, in 1884, The Times described the "current fashion in educational ideas as technical education." (23) The discussions the Institute of Journalists held with London University in the opening years of the 20th century included proposals for practical journalism to be included in the syllabus, listed as "Technical Instruction." When the course

actually opened, in 1919, this element was not included in the syllabus.

4. c. Professional Education: An English Overview

Inexorably entwined with the Victorian understanding of "liberal education" was the conviction that it served the purposes of professional education as well. The apprentice model, whereby professionals learned their calling in chambers, if barristers, or as articled clerks to solicitors, and in their regiment if soldiers, was replaced by more systematic forms of education and training as the skills employed were themselves developed. The process was stated succinctly by the House of Commons Select Committee on legal education, in 1849, when it identified the requisite constituent as "the ability to discipline the mind so that he can grapple with any problem." Liberal education was important because it was firmly based in the classics

"Greek and Latin literature, on mathematics, meaning Euclid... (which) trained literary taste and the use of languages (while) mathematics trained powers of reasoning. Classical studies trained a man's mind so he could tackle any subject in later life." (24)

Mastery of the classics implied that the professional man could also master "if he chose to be a clergyman, theology; if a physician, the writings of Hippocrates, if a barrister, the... English law." These ancient professions built upon the liberal education received, and channelled initiates into their professional niches, after apprenticeships in chambers,

hospital wards or regiment. It was these aspects that later occupations felt required to emulate in their march towards professional status while forgetting, or ignoring, the fact that the social foundations of the classical education system served class interests. In a way the ancient professions illustrate one aspect of the aristocracy maintaining its control over social prestige. "Youngest sons to the church" was not just a convention of the novel, it was established fact for a long period. These conventions, in their turn, provided an obvious model for the sons of 'parvenu' Victorian industrialists keen to gain a foothold on the ladder of social ascendancy by aping the old gentry. (25)

The nineteenth century saw the evolution of the concept of the professional man and the requirements of professionalism were crystallised into exhibiting:

"a professional organisation to focus opinion, work up a body of knowledge and insist upon a decent Charter as a mark of recognition (with as) a final step, an Act of Parliament conferring something like monopoly powers on the duties of the qualified practitioners who had followed a recognised course of training."
(26)

The training involved the "practice and practical skill" while the university provided an "extended view of more general knowledge in the sphere the practitioner is to work in." (27)

4. d. Some definitions of Professionalism

As one writer on the subject stated, there are as many views on what constitutes professionalism as there are writers on the subject. (28) However there are some elements

common to most, and these include:

1. The existence of a full-time occupation.
2. The establishment of a training school or licensing of some form by the professional body.
3. The formation of a professional association with offices, journal, publications etc., i.e. professional culture/authority.
4. The formation of an ethical code of practice, either internally (with colleagues) or externally (with clients and public).
5. A recognisable body of professional knowledge. (29)

Attitudinal attributes associated with professionalism can be diagnosed as including:

I: The use of the professional organisation as a major reference, or source of ideas from the profession in the work involved.

II: A belief in service to the public, which incorporates the view that work performed benefits the public as well as the practitioner.

III: A belief in self-regulation, including the view that the professional is best qualified to judge the work of another professional.

IV: A sense of calling which implies that practitioner would still do the work for fewer extrinsic rewards.

V: Autonomy, which implies the practitioner ought to be able to make his own decisions without external pressure from clients (30)

Of those elements listed under definitions of professionalism modern journalism would rate as a full-time

occupation and could boast the existence of an ethical code but without any mechanism to regulate it from within the profession; otherwise it lacks the essential elements although the Institute of Journalists is a recognisably professional body, notwithstanding the fact that its offices and journal are hardly visible as aspects of professional culture. Yet both the Institute and the National Union of Journalists have tried to amalgamate on several occasions (the last in the mid-1960's) and, in 1949, even got so far as presenting a Bill to Parliament to incorporate the Association of Journalist. (31)

Just before World War 2 the Institute tried to introduce a Register of Journalists in an attempt to regulate entry and raise standards, but without success. (32) While a reading of the columns of The Journalist, house organ of the National Union of Journalists, might indicate some support for the establishment of a training school (allied to the concept of a Press Institute raised in the late 1930's) these are isolated examples. However, the same columns, in the mid 1930's and late 1930's, reflect some concern, illustrated by the coverage given to the idea of schools of journalism on the American model and to the London University Diploma for Journalism and the exhibitions awarded to members, or, in the case of the N.U.J., the children of members. Similar evidence is also available to us in the columns of the Newspaper Society's Monthly Circular, where biographical details of London University students looking for jobs were regularly listed under the heading "University Students Available for Jobs" (33) The question of a recognised body of knowledge has always bedevilled discussions on this

subject among journalist and academics, but the negotiations leading up to the first London University journalism syllabus provided one answer by separating academic from technical and offering the academic as a "necessary introduction to those professions and callings... where practice and progress are closely connected" as Sidney Webb had phrased it in his evidence to the Royal Commission on London University (1909-1913). (34)

The journalist's approach to the attitudinal attributes associated with professionalism would be, generally, a grudging acknowledgment of the relevance of the majority, although his interpretation of some might differ from that employed by other professionals. For instance, the journalist will take his source of ideas from his work but without reference to a recognised body of theory. Likewise he would assert his belief in service to the public but, like modern doctors paid via the National Health Service, he would not be against withdrawing his services to support claims for higher salary. The journalist would also hold strongly to a belief in self-regulation, sometimes at the expense of the public he professes to serve; a current example would be the refusal of the National Union of Journalists to occupy their places on the Press Council because of their belief that only journalists can fully understand journalists' problems. As with other professions the journalist would find problems associated with the notion of autonomy from the external pressure of clients, as he has little direct contact with his readers. He would, however, ascribe to the notion of

autonomy which implied non-interference from non-journalists (vide the Press Council, above), as well as superiors, in determining what is news, which he would sometimes back with reference to ideas of objectivity and detachment, no matter how illusory this is in practice. In practice the journalist often plans his story production with pre-conceptions concerning what he thinks will please - or pass - his superiors who are usually senior journalists with their own ideas of autonomy. (35) Yet it is as well to remember what "what passes for autonomy in one occupation does not... in another." (36)

The lack of clarity concerning these professional attributes, as related to journalism, has complicated the discussion surrounding the question of education (or entry examinations) and made resolution of the resulting conflict more difficult. The difficulties journalists encountered in their efforts to secure a recognisable educational scheme, especially after 1945, turned their efforts to a different level of educational institution, one more geared to the skills approach. The author believes that the major problem was the lack of something like a Press Institute, a professional forum for debate as well as education, and the resulting adoption - by both Institute of Journalists and National Union of Journalists - of roles, and activities, that more properly belonged within the aegis of an Institute, not a trades union or similar body.

4. e. The Development of Training as distinct from Education

The discussion so far about university education in England has revealed how that process was labelled "university training" until well into the twentieth century; it perpetuated an elitist base for recruitment to its ranks with the philosophy "of training the pick of the youth to be the leaders of the next generation. (37) This is in stark contrast to the immense growth in university places in the United States where higher education was defined as a place "in which any person can find instruction in any study" - as Ezra Cornell phrased it. (38) These Anglo-American connections are discussed in a later section of this chapter, but the different definitions need to be kept in mind as they illustrate how different university education has been in the two countries. We need to remind ourselves that Sir Charles Dilke remarked upon the significance of the 'elective' nature of American higher education as far back as 1866. (39) Failure of the English universities to achieve a similar development in the teaching of the humanities, stressing breadth rather than the depth of single-subject degrees, was a contributory - if unacknowledged - factor in the journalistic educators turning to other areas of the English educational spectrum in their attempts to introduce education for journalism.

Some of these other forms of education, still common today, were revolutionary at the beginning of this century, but they seemed to easily find a place in colleges below the university level. So, in 1912, the Gas Light and Coke Company of London introduced a part-time day release course

for its gas fitters; such developments were supported by the Lewis Committee, sitting during the First World War, and later enshrined in the 1918 Education Act. (40)

Such training took upon itself those aspects of apprenticeship that had been dropped by the ancient professionals as they developed and systematised their entrance examinations and educational standards; those aspects can be summed up in the phrase "learning by watching and then imitating by doing", which was raised earlier. It was this practical aspect of training which was banished from English educational thought, providing another illustration of the difference between English and American perceptions of what could be labelled "education". The pragmatic philosophy of a C.S. Peirce or the educational theories of a Dewey were slow to percolate through the English system of university education. Yet there were hospitable corners to be found where German ideas of science teaching were used to enable the children of London Board Schools to discover things for themselves by the heuristic method - which appears strikingly modern and appropriate to the teaching of journalism. (41)

Academic research into another method of educational progression, through attendance at evening classes requiring up to three nights a week, has revealed how unsuccessful such schemes are (42) with large numbers dropping out. Success was not made any easier by the failure of professional institutions to adapt their requirements to the limited conditions under which students were forced to work. (43) The advantage to the Americans, for example, in doubling the

number of engineering and technical students in the last quarter of the 19th century, contrasts with the difficulties placed in the way of English students trying to improve their chances of better pay, or position, through attendance at evening classes after a full day's work. (44)

The English system of teaching-training provides an example both of the scale of the problem (for both teacher and journalism education) and the possibilities that existed earlier this century for some form of journalism education in higher education. By 1899 more than half those employed in English schools had never experienced the training college system of education because there were no courses before 1885. The majority had reached teacher status through the system whereby they took on a 'monitor' role in the classroom, eventually replaced by the 'pupil-teacher' method, illustrating the operation of apprentice-type of training. (Sir) Michael Sadler (1861-1943), who was professor of the Theory of Education at the Victoria University (later Manchester University) in 1908, addressed the annual conference of the Institute of Journalists on the subject of "The Education of the Journalist" and outlined how both journalism and teaching then stressed open access for recruits of promise coupled with a belief in the importance of recruits learning some essential elements through practical experience, such as that provided at Manchester's demonstration, or practising, schools. The acquisition of knowledge, in both spheres, was regarded as less important than the ability to be able to put such knowledge to

practical use, quickly, so apprenticeship was appropriate for both teacher and journalist - some scheme to enable beginners to learn to avoid making mistakes, while introducing them to some preliminary skills and knowledge to help them make a good start. Even so Sadler thought that "liberal education was the best basis for subsequent professional skill in any calling" although he did recommend a post-graduate course of study for journalism and outlined what a new "Honours" school would have to combine in areas of study usually kept apart in English universities (Appendix VIII).

Journalism had to wait 62 years for the post-graduate course to open at University College, Cardiff, in 1970, and 57 years for the first pre-entry course for school-leavers, under the aegis of the National Council for the Training for Journalists, founded in 1952; but only 11 years passed before the Diploma for Journalism started in 1919 at the University of London, combining two years study for school-leavers, or a one-year element for graduates (later discontinued). The N.C.T.J. courses were centred mainly in colleges where such skills as shorthand and typing were available. These technical, or further education, colleges had benefited from the 1944 Education Act and, later, from Government White Papers in 1956 and 1961 which improved the opportunities provided by such institutes. These colleges provided the other, educational, elements and included the basic journalism skills training on the one-year pre-entry courses. (46) The evolution of these courses, and their relationship to the continuing history of journalism education in Britain, is discussed in Chapter Ten. In the context of education

and training the further education sector is usually aligned closely to the requirements of industrial training, yet the lines of demarcation between general education, vocational education and vocational training are both ambiguous and variable so that there is "no standard model of education and training which delimits each component and defines its relationship with the other." (47) The N.C.T.J. was included, for the purpose of the Industrial Training Act of 1963, under the wing of the Printing and Publishing Industry Training Board between 1968 and 1982 and this increased the tendency to regard the basic requirements of journalism education as skills training, or rehearsal in skills and techniques, where the educational input was minimal. Thus the separation from higher education was institutionalised, although there have been subsequent attempts to develop journalism education within the university context.

4. f. The Growth of Provincial Universities in England

It is difficult to realise that even in 1902 England could boast only four universities for its 35 million population. (48) The following year Sidney Webb was stating "we are actually engaged... in the business of making universities" (49) and that must have seemed a flavour of the times. London University had been re-organised on a teaching basis between 1898 and 1900 and the conglomerate Victoria University (founded in 1880) split into individual Universities: Liverpool and Manchester in 1903, Leeds in 1904 and Sheffield in 1905: Bristol gained its Charter as a

University in 1906 (with the Institute of journalists among its founding fathers.) The transformation of Masons College into Birmingham University (Chartered in 1900) was accompanied by a spate of foreign travel by some of its professors. They visited America and returned saying "it was only then the committee arrived at some conception of what was required of them" (50) and the first Chancellor of the new University, politician Joseph Chamberlain, was reported as saying that this committee's report opened his eyes as to the role the university should adopt in a modern society.

Further impetus to transatlantic travel followed the Education Act of 1902, which imposed some semblance of order on the chaotic state of English Education and, in theory, made it possible for a ladder of education to stretch from the elementary school to university by way of the scholarship system. Representatives from the newly-formed education authorities in the major cities (some of them listed above), from universities and from industry toured the United States publishing reports in 1904. (51) The industrial report commented that

"the reason the American worker is better than his British contemporary was that he has received a senior and better education." 52

By 1908 Birmingham university had published the first journalism syllabus at an English University, although the death of its proposer cut short any experiment at that time. The following year London University underwent another Royal Commission under Lord Haldane which lasted until 1913 and,

because of the First World War, it was not until 1926 that the Report was acted upon. This underlined the transformation from the examining to the teaching, and research, model of university education with the University encouraged to jettison its supervisory role of the teaching at London Polytechnics where the teaching "was much the same kind of instruction as at school."

The idea was not to imitate Oxford or Cambridge with their "leisurely curriculum" but to organise courses

"in such a way as to turn out the graduate fully equipped, not only as a cultivated citizen, but also, so far as may be possible, as a trained professional... (with) London University taking on the character of a technical school for all brain-working professionals (including) journalism..." 53

Once again it would appear that here was fertile ground for a novel approach to educating the journalist and this will be examined in the chapter on the "Emergence and Development of Education for Journalism, 1880-1910." Just two years after the Birmingham University syllabus there was another and this one was the joint effort of the Institute of Journalists and London University (see Appendix X a & b).

4.g. Some Anglo-American Connections, up to 1880

Although it may appear simplistic to state that 19th century America was nearer to the cultural ambience of the home of its mother tongue, than is at present the case, there were indications of the close relationship. English women writers visited America and wrote books about their visits:

Mrs Trollope (1780-1863) in 1832 (her son's "North American" appeared in 1862); Miss Harriet Martineau (1802-76) in 1837; and Mrs Mary Howitt (1799-1881) published a three-volume history of the United States. British periodicals, and much of the literature carried within their pages, were widely distributed throughout America; Dickens' Household Words and All the Year Round, between 1850 and 1895, had special early printings for the American editions, while the feminist journal, the English Woman's Journal (one of the first companies registered with women shareholders), found its way into receptive American hearths. (54) Boston publishers vied with each other for the friendship of Dickens (55) and poets like Longfellow applauded his American readings. The American poet Emerson had his English tours to counter-balance the novelist's. Emerson's transcendental writings were seen as a threat to Anglicanism, while Whitman's conviction that democratic America would renew civilisation horrified Matthew Arnold. (56)

The antipathy of the Arnolds and Newmans was no doubt fanned by the Americans' needling insistence that "the high born of England are too much inclined to regard the lower orders as an inferior race of beings" (57) but, of course, there were Englishmen who supported the American view. One of these was Goldwin Smith (1823-1910), who was educated at Eton and Oxford, held various fellowships, while attacking the clerical ascendancy of the ancient university and agitating for acceptance of reform within the university.

This led to a joint-secretary position on the Royal Commission which investigated Oxford University between 1852 and its report in 1857. During this period he also joined Douglas Cook's staff on the Saturday Review when it started publication in 1855. He further committed himself to the 1858 Commission on national education, this time as a full commissioner, and found himself offered the Regius Professorship of Modern History at Oxford, from 1858 to 1866.

Corresponding with the President of the new Cornell University in America, Andrew White, Smith highlighted the underlying difference between the British and American versions of higher education.

"On this side of the water the question of academical education is mixed up with historical accidents and with political struggles. What I would say is this - adapt your practical education to the practical needs of the American people, and for general culture those subjects which are most important and interesting to the citizen and the man." (58)

When White visited England on a recruiting drive for lecturing staff for the new university, in 1868, Smith accepted the position as professor of English and Constitutional History; he had resigned his Oxford professorship two years earlier and inherited a "moderate competence" on the death of his father, following a railway accident.

The difference between the citizenry on the two "sides of the water" was the subject of comment by the Reverend James Fraser, later Bishop of Manchester, after six months in

Eastern American, for whom the Americans were "if not the most highly educated, certainly the most generally educated and intelligent people on earth." (59) English critics, like Matthew Arnold, disliked intensely the intention of Ezra Cornell to found a university "in which any person can find instruction in any study." (60) Whether or not Arnold was aware of President Andrew White's plans to offer a form of education for journalism is a moot point, but it enables us to examine early American attempts at journalism education and how they started.

4.h. Early American Experiments in Journalism Education

It is always useful to compare the similarities of British and American experiences but, in the case of university education, it is the stark contrast that is educative. By the turn of this century the university in America was on its way to becoming a major source of authority within society with its clientele already expanded into the middle classes while its patrons included the wealthiest of the new industrialists. (61) Universities had annexed science and many of its technological derivatives while pursuing an institutional rationale that incorporated social organisation, production and application of knowledge. For most occupational groups in America the key to professionalisation was a university connection. The number of students undergoing university education illustrate the difference of approach between America and Britain: in 1900 British universities had 20,000 students and American universities 237,000 (62). The American press also benefited

from its allies within higher education who saw the task of helping to shape a professional identity for the press as something akin to a moral mission. From the newspaper side one American editor, Whitelaw Reid, (1837-1912) believed such a process would reduce the likelihood of personal attacks on editors. (63)

The earliest reference to the subject of higher education for journalists was in 1857 at Farmer's High School, now Pennsylvania State University, and Mr Reid made his observations at New York University in 1870. However it was Cornell University's President, Andrew Dickson White, an acknowledged pioneer of professional education in America, who proposed that a certificate be offered to students who engaged in journalism training outside the formal curriculum while still meeting general course requirements. His rationale combined his general philosophy of education, that it was the function of the university to provide appropriate means for career preparation, with his perception that the press as a whole was deficient in meeting its responsibilities. Although the course was listed in the University catalogue for 1875/6 it never materialised, perhaps in part due to the legal loss of a large legacy to the university from the family of one of the course's advocates.

Most early American experiments in journalism education found their original base in departments of English, as at the University of Missouri in 1878 under David Russell McAnaley, son of an editor, who later left to work on the St Louis Globe Democrat. (64) However "practical procedures" in

journalism were not adopted until 1885, and classes in news writing continued, in the English department, between 1893 and 1900. The Missouri University School of Journalism gained its independent status in 1908. Similar stories could be unfolded for the evolution of journalism education at the Universities of Iowa, Indiana, Kansas and Nebraska. At Kansas the course was introduced at the suggestion of the sociologist, Frank W. Blackmer, whose research into society included an analysis of journalism as a social force with the potential for both responsible and pathological influence. (65) By 1899 the University of Chicago had a correspondence course in journalism. (66)

Yet journalism education entered the twentieth century with barely a toe-hold in American universities. No compelling rationale had evolved within journalism education, while professionalism offered only a vague focus of intent because journalism, as an occupation with professional prospects, deviated too widely from the norm within other professional schools, such as law and engineering and medicine. It was left to the publisher who introduced the nation to mass communication "to negotiate its perception as a professional entity." (67) His proposals, in 1903, for an endowed School of Journalism, gave American journalism education dramatic publicity and prominence and his argument for university involvement in the professionalisation of the press gave journalism educators a clear expression of their groped-for purpose in academic life. He sent an emissary to both Columbia and Harvard Universities and, although it was at Columbia University, New York, that the School of

Journalism actually opened in 1912, many of the ideas were those raised in correspondence with Charles W. Eliot, President of Harvard University. (68) In his later negotiations with Columbia University Pulitzer fought for an open admissions policy but was forced to compromise and fought for control of the educational programme by a board of practitioners but, again, lost in substance to the university officials.

The difference between Pulitzer's and Eliot's approach to the question of professionalism typifies the views of journalists and academics: Pulitzer's notion of a profession

"was drawn in terms of a social interpretation of the press (as a complex institution) but it was with a different sense of professionalism that Eliot offered his prospectus of studies geared to the profession of journalism as a livelihood in a world of economic realities (where) questions of journalistic expertise and career progression were critically important for university participation. He sought the 'vertical vision' that best represented success and power in the occupation for the individual practitioner... he insisted that the journalist master techniques (which) included expertise in management and business administration of newspapers (while) Pulitzer specifically advocated a trained incapacity for them to do so." (69)

Pulitzer combined a desire to see the "romance of the occupation... professionalised" with a view of "professionalisation as a means of raising the status of the press." (70) The prominent academic figures, like White of Cornell and Eliot of Harvard, saw things differently:

"the university promoted professional authority in society, and itself, by training experts

with prospects for functional power. They shared a common vision of a meritocratic society managed by university graduates." (71)

Pulitzer had turned to the university to cultivate a notion of journalism as a responsible profession, but not to negotiate new lines of authority and control within the press. He felt the press had become a public service institution, fighting off its own baser instincts:

"Nothing less than the highest ideals, the most scrupulous anxiety to do right, the most accurate knowledge of the problems it has to meet, and a sincere sense of its moral responsibility will save journalism from subservience to business interests seeking selfish ends, antagonistic to the public welfare." (72) (emphasis added)

Pulitzer's fear was that once the public regarded the press as exclusively a commercial business then its claim to any moral power was suspect. "Its influence cannot exist without public confidence (which) must have a human basis. It must reside, in the end, on the character of the journalist." (73) This character could be fostered in general education courses found in universities whose

"by-products would meet the needs of the journalist. Why not direct, extract, concentrate, specialise them for the journalist as a specialist." (74) (original emphasis)

An early editorial critic of American journalism teaching, E.L. Godkin (himself the recipient, in 1899, of Oxford University's first honorary degree awarded to a journalist) had accused the journalism educators of a kind of professional conspiracy and hiding behind "mere mechanical

knowledge of what "writing a stickful" means (75) which hid "the intellectual poverty of too many of the young men who enter the calling." He described the ridiculous importance attached by schools of journalism to what he described as "knowledge" of little office tricks. (76)

There was just as much of a struggle for identity among the academicians at the turn of the century as there was for the acceptance of their subject:

"In economics, the effort involved a break with theology and classic moral philosophy. Psychologists sought a distinction between their discipline and rational philosophy, and attempted to achieve a scientific social utility. Sociology moved to reject the metaphors of Darwin and Spenser and to invent a methodology. Journalism education turned from practical English writing to the professional education model of medicine and law, and to a lesser conscious extent engineering, but the effort had little actual effect on curriculum development." (77)

Journalism educators turned from the difficulties inherent in organising a university discipline of specialisation and turned to the professional argument for the press as their own justification for acceptance and recognition.

Professor Birkhead describes this as "adopting a leadership role in the professional project as the rationale for its own academic existence." (78)

4.i. The Early Twentieth Century Schools of Journalism in America

The Pulitzer-inspired debate sparked off a remarkable surge in the numbers of journalism schools so that, by 1912, thirty were in existence, and their message was carried to England by Professor Walter Williams of the University of Missouri School of Journalism, founded in 1908. (79) The journalism workshop, complete with time-cards and a punch clock at the University of Illinois, (80) or laboratory, attempted to duplicate newspaper offices, if not actually produce newspapers themselves. But there was a

"relentless warfare against the imps of rumour, laziness, guessing and ignorance and students not up to the task were dismissed at the end of the term." (81)

Parallel with this workshop concept was a campaign to use university resources to provide journalism students with a broad liberal arts education as a basis for the proper preparation of newsmen with background knowledge. Allied with this campaign was the development of the theme of professionalism, evidenced in the Journalism Bulletin, between 1924 and 1927, and in the early volumes of its replacement, Journalism Quarterly. But they did not question the values reflected in their technical instruction which were that

"News was essentially information to be handled in an accurate, precise and timely manner. The reporter was a neutral observer guided and supervised by an editorial manager. Journalism consisted of a process accomplished through a news organisation with organisational skills, routines, terminology and principles to be learned. Although journalism educators criticised the moral tone of some newspapers and saw themselves, indeed, as leaders in a moral uplifting of the standards of the press,

they did not press a critical interpretation...
and their professional defence of the press...
bordered on apology from a vested interest
establishment." (82)

The pragmatic concern of journalism educators became the production of qualified professionals protecting society and government against the "unfit, unscrupulous, journalist." (83) The essential proof of professional legitimacy for journalism education was in the employment of the journalism graduate; that was the way, according to Professor Birkhead, that professionalisation was seen to have taken place, which he describes as "the ideological captivity of professionalism."

This section has provided a background to the way British ideas on journalism education developed which will be examined in depth later. The ideas and beliefs expressed on the other side of the Atlantic became part of the mental fabric of the British actors in the journalism education debate, even though an essential ingredient was missing in the British scene - the enshrining of a concept of the freedom of the press in a written constitution.

4.j. Review and Summary

This brief survey of English and American attitudes towards the education and training of journalists provides the background against which later comparisons can be made between the English and American versions of journalism, as we know them today. For a time it appeared as if the two countries would pursue the same path of journalism education, especially after the introduction of the Diploma for

Journalism at London University in 1919. The inability of universities, and journalists, to follow that path in England has had results which are discernible every time we read an English newspaper, but the reasons for that underlying difference are rarely traced to the educational differences in the two countries systems of provision of education for journalism. In America "professionalism came with academic authentication" (84) whereas, in England

"there was a sort of suspicion from the academics that we (i.e. the London University Diploma for Journalism department) were too 'popular' and from the professional journalists that we were too highbrow and impractical."
(85)

as Dr G.B. Harrison, one-time tutor to journalism students at King's College, London, put it in a letter to the author.

We have seen how Goldwin Smith, an ardent campaigner within Oxford University for reform of the system, gravitated to an American University, and this migratory aspect of the products of Oxford into other, newer, English universities might account for the difficulties English journalists faced when trying to secure their co-operation with educational schemes for journalists in the 1920's. (86) It is doubtful if most of those migrating into the newer universities in England were as radical as Smith was in his career. As one who experienced the life of a university lecturer in the early decades of the 20th century Dr. Harrison's version of how the newer universities were staffed provides an insight into system:

"... most appointments were the result of private deals between professors and heads of colleges at private talks in the Athenaeum or - in Oxford - at All Soul's College." (87)

Although Dr Harrison admits he is "biased, vindictive..." he is also one of the few "survivors" of the team that managed the nucleus of England's first school of journalism. Back in the 1930's there was not much scope for academic progression and he had to emigrate to Canada to achieve a professorship; writing as a Cambridge man Dr Harrison's experience was that the plums went to Oxford men, in English universities, hence his departure from these shores.

The distinct difference between the American and English experience of universities is the proliferation, within the American model, of professional schools which combine education and training, based on the liberal arts, allowing a specific concentration on technical instruction (in the case of journalism, in all aspects of news-gathering, selection, and writing.) In many cases it would appear that one outcome of the American system of journalism education has been the emergence of a standardised formula of news-writing, allied to a critically-aneasthetising sense of objectivity, whereas the English model tends towards sensationalisation, trivialisation and personalisation, if not downright fabrication. (88) As Dr Harrison commented after his last visit to England, from 1973 to 1976, "the general (press) standard of responsibility seemed lamentably low and far lower than the U.S.A." (89)

Chapter Four

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"... journalists admit that in a strange reverse subjectivity brought on by the push for journalistic ethics, they feel obliged to let (President) Reagan manipulate the stories because the journalists themselves do not agree with him politically. It is one of the perils of America's rules of 'objective journalism' that reporters trounce their soul-mates and treat their political enemies with kid gloves."
("Reagan charms Press into letting him off

lightly")

- (c) The Sun newspaper's supposed interview with the widow of a Falklands Campaign hero, Sgt. McKay, for which the paper had to apologise (August 8, 1983, p.6).

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Chapter Five

The Emergence and Development of Education for Journalism

The editor and historian of English newspapers, H.R. Fox Bourne (1837-1909) neatly describes one method of entry into journalism in the late nineteenth century when he states:

"... no apprenticeship is needed for entering it, and no preliminaries are required for participation in its highest rewards... any one... with enough influence or intellect, or with a name likely to prove useful, may slip into an editorship or be made a principal leader writer in preference to men of long standing in the office, who perhaps have to teach him his duties and correct his blunders".
(1)

While the usual career pattern was progression through the ranks of small weekly papers to provincial daily newspapers and, possibly, on to London weekly and daily papers, few ever made the full course. (2) Others, like J. Alfred Spender, managed by freelance journalism, writing 'notes' - sometimes six a day - and articles for the Pall Mall Gazette and the Echo, as well as lengthy reviews for monthly magazines. (3) In this he was following the admonition of an early manual for aspiring journalists written by Wilfred Meynell, using the pseudonym J. Oldcastle, by "contributing timorously and obscurely to the newspaper and periodical press". (4) He believed "the main difficulty in journalism... is the start. The very uncertainty of the final acceptance... disciplines the unenterprising man for the effort."

These quotations, all referring to the 1880's, and 1890's illustrate the most important factor it is necessary to understand before attempting an examination of the

emergence of ideas about the education of the journalist: that there was no specific, centrally-regulated means of entry and no system of examination for entry.

The appearance of guides and manuals of journalism during these two decades at the close of the nineteenth century indicates that the subject was worth an effort by publishers who wished to meet public demand - or help to create it. (5)

Looking back at this era several writers remark on the surge of graduates, especially from Oxford, entering newspapers, but detailed figures are virtually impossible to assess, although the take-over, by graduates, of the serious journals of the day is available in the well-researched volumes of the Wellesley Index of Periodicals. (7) Whereas the 1841 census showed 459 newspaper editors, proprietors, and journalists (plus 167 authors) by 1881, (with authors and shorthand writers combined with the other three groupings), the total was 6,111. Ten years later the figure was 8,272 and 14,406 in 1921, (8) (though the shorthand writers were not included in the last two years.) That 1841 census was the first to show separate figures for journalists and editors, and, in 1846, there were 472 newspapers listed in the first edition of the Newspaper Press Directory.

Even allowing for the tentative nature of these early figures they would appear to illustrate the small numbers of people required to run small provincial newspapers. The editor often had to double up as compositor in the printing

room - if not as his own reporter as well - as advertisements in the Daily News and the Athenaeum indicated in their job descriptions. The figures quoted above also lend credibility to the view, attributed to Lord Northcliffe, that twenty men were needed, in the 1920's, for every single one who used to be involved in the production of the old kind of small-circulation newspaper outside London.

Even though we have seen references to the large inflow of Oxford graduates into newspapers, when the first school to offer training in journalism opened its doors in 1887 it was just these people who were its first students. A Daily Telegraph journalist, David Anderson (1837-1900) was the founder and Director of the School in the Strand. (9)

This is the first known commercial school of journalism actually to open its doors to students, and, (though unknown to us today) one of its former students remarked, in later life, that it was so well-known that it needed little introduction. Its place has been taken minds of later generations - by the School of the same name instituted by Max Pemberton in 1919, supported by Lord Northcliffe. (10)

5. a. First London School of Journalism

Students paid one hundred guineas (£105) for a year's tuition, a very large sum indeed in those days, and, in return, students might expect the occasional lecture from

Anderson (described as a brilliant lecturer by another student.) (11) Anderson's introduction to the course was unusual in the eyes of this student, when he said:

"You are at liberty to come and do absolutely nothing, Ink is here. You will bring your own manuscript to prepare... I shall be sitting here (in David Sanctum, as students called it, an inner office off their own room) ready to share the store of my journalistic knowledge with you... there is nothing about journalism I do not know. I have written hundreds upon hundreds of descriptive and leading articles... nothing has escaped my purview: murder trails, art exhibitions, Royal processions, concerts, Academy private views..."(12)

According to his third student, Francis Henry Gribble, David Anderson had been one of Dicken's young men on Household Words and had served as a leader writer and special correspondent for the Daily Telegraph for many years. (13) He was also a dramatic critic from 1874-79 on The Sportsman, and later on Bell's Life in London from 1879-82 as well as writing regularly for The Theatre and All The Year Round. (14)

Anderson's philosophy was that the student's future was in his own hands and, in Hichen's words, "he was no driver." His teaching method, as such, was simple:

"He gave me subjects to treat, articles, parodies, epigrams, criticisms of play I had seen... sent me out to public events, such as sports meeting, processions, the changing of the guard at St. James's Palace... I attended the Law Courts and heard a few trials." (16)

Anderson read, criticised and amended stories submitted and encouraged students to contribute to London newspapers. One evening paper, The Globe, always had an article, over a column in length, which turned over the page, called the "turn-over" and Hichens submitted regularly, though rarely saw his work printed. To enable this to happen Anderson and Hichens combined to start a paper called Mistress and maid - sold door-to door by women - which, while it provided an outlet for students' work, did not make money and folded. (17)

Gribble and Hichen name fourteen students who were on the course in its first year or so - it is not clear if the School had set terms, or whether students were able to join at any time - and several did pursue careers in journalism and one, H. Greville Montgomery, became a Member of Parliament. (18) Several of these students were graduates, mainly Oxford with at least one from Cambridge who never entered journalism. But it is doubtful if they matched up to Anderson's ideal entry requirements that they

"should have English History at (their) fingers' ends; know constitutional law, political economy and a large fund of general knowledge to draw upon". (19)

Gribble, for instance, had a first-class degree in Lit. Hum. from Oxford, where he attended Exeter College (and that was after four other colleges rejected him.) (20)

Although reference books show the course operating

between 1887 and 1897 Gribble states that students did not last out the year and "did not recommend it to their friends, with the result that he closed it and returned to the Daily Telegraph." (21) Anderson's view of journalism was very much that of a Telegraph man, although he held trade journalism in high regard, he had very low opinion of papers like Modern Society and Tit-Bits with their flippant content. Nobody could seriously want to be a sub-editor and learning shorthand could be a "fatal impediment to advancement," (22) and Anderson followed his own advice about dressing well, "his silk hat was always glossy" - reminding us that this, together with the black frock coat, was an essential element in journalistic wear in Fleet Street then, and right up until at least the 1920's. (23)

The Daily Telegraph returned the compliments in a concrete way when a marble medallion was placed in Richmond cemetery in 1902 with an inscription by his former editor on that paper, Sir Edwin Arnold:

"Possessing high intelligence, wide education, a clear and just judgement of men, events and literature, he gave these powers for many years to the daily press; and afterwards employing a large experience, brilliantly and successfully trained many good men to the honourable service of journalism, which he himself adorned and upheld". (24)

Even though he was engaged on the editorial side of the paper, Anderson was not himself a university man, being a "journalist of the self-educated type." (25) He promised

that anyone who mastered journalism would be able to earn between £300 and £1,000 a year - quite a sum for those days. Gribble's mastery of the "leaderette" under Anderson's direction earned him a place "out of a multitude of applicants" on the Observer, as well as the offer of assistant editor of a Yorkshire paper. Gribble's junior, H. Greville Montgomery, became assistant editor of a weekly called Arrow. (26) Hichens worked on the Pall Mall Magazine before turning to writing novels, one of which - although published anonymously to attract speculation as to its author - brought him fame. This was "Green Carnation" based on Oscar Wilds, whom he had met. It was after his fifth novel "Flame" that the Daily Telegraph offered him £2,000 a year if he would join them. Even though this was more than he was earning at the time, he refused and became wealthy enough to purchase his villa beside the Italian Lakes. (27)

5.b. Proposals for an entry examination for Journalists

At the same time as Anderson was initiating his experiment in journalism training the fledgling National Association of Journalists had indicated it should look at the question of instituting entry examinations for young candidates wanting to enter the Association, as well as awarding certificates of competence. The following year, 1888, a wording on the syllabus was agreed but never implemented, and it stated: (Appendix I)

"Candidates to undergo a viva voce examination in English literature and general knowledge;

to condense a column speech into two or three sticks; to write a short essay on some select subject; to make paragraphs of three incidents narrated by the examiners; to correct twenty-four incorrectly constructed sentences; to summarise a balance sheet," (28)

The next year the National Association of Journalists gained a Royal Charter and became the Institute of Journalists. This change reflected a novel development in the affairs of the Association: attracting into membership proprietors and editors whose experience helped obtain the Charter, the first object of which was:

"...the devising of means of testing the qualification of candidates for admission to professional membership of the Institute by examination in theory and in practice or by other actual and practical tests". (1889)

Correspondence in the Institute's Journal and Proceedings, indicated that working journalists themselves favoured something that the sixteen-year old, of average ability could reasonably be expected to pass on leaving school. Thus his knowledge and capability for writing English clearly and accurately should obviously be tested. They also wanted tests to ascertain whether his general intelligence was such that the entrant would succeed in, and do credit to, the profession he wished to enter. Consequently the first elementary examination scheme proposed testing candidates' ability to write essays, condense supplied newspaper reports or comment on a given subject (see Appendix II). It is possible to assume that the element attracting credit to the profession was included under the other two papers: Language

(Latin, French or German translations); or mathematics, which included Book 1 of Euclid, as well as questions on simple and compound arithmetic, vulgar fractions and percentages, interests, and balance sheets. The oral examination would obviously provide an opportunity to ascertain the candidates' willingness to do credit to their proposed profession by testing their knowledge of spelling, current events and notable persons. Failure in English, the first paper, "will be fatal to the candidates chances" and 200 marks, out of a possible total of 275, were needed to receive the certificate. Exemptions were provided to those who had passed the Oxford or Cambridge Local Examinations, but they still had to attend the Oral Examination.

The first paper also proposed "Elements of English History" and "Outlines of Geography, political and commercial" (30) and "in reference to History, groups of facts and broad issues should be understood" while "minor details" like "lists, dates and names" would not be insisted upon.

Although this scheme, prepared by the Birmingham District of the Institute of Journalists, appeared in the Institute's Proceedings it had originally seen the light of day ten years earlier, in 1889. It is difficult to ascertain the reason for this delayed publication. However four years elapsed between the formation of the Institute, in 1889, and the first detailed examinations scheme, submitted in 1893 (see Appendix III.)

"Division 1 - for the Pupil-Associateship" combines the three papers of the 1889 scheme (Appendix II) and includes a general knowledge component similar to the current events paper in the oral examinations of that scheme. It adds shorthand as an optional subject and outlines areas, in Division II, for Membership - a late emergence of the Institute. "Law of Newspaper Libel and Copyright" is a new element, while a viva voce is retained to test general information.

The introduction of "Special Certificates" enabled assessment of more vocational aspects of journalism, like verbatim and descriptive reporting, condensation (or precis) and a legal paper.

The columns of the Institute's Proceedings were soon reverberating to comments from those who had never used any Euclid in thirty years of journalism, and were not going to spend their working lives learning the A.B.C. of examinations, and so such schemes lapsed. The a Chartist, Thomas Frost (1824-1908), expressed the view that proprietors were only interested in hiring cheap, illiterate boys, taken as apprentices to cheapen labour - a view that still colours working journalists thinking, vis-a-vis the union limitation on the ratio of junior to senior journalists in provincial newspaper offices. Frost questioned whether journalists would ever be able to prevent unqualified men from competing with them, especially when they did not have any minimum agreed salary. It was this particular aspect - wages and working

hours - that sparked off the formation of the National Union of Journalists, in 1907, to fight for better wages. This the Institute, with its proprietors and editors as members, had carefully avoided, emphasising the professional aspects of controlling entry and maintaining standards (although this is also concern of trade unions.)

In fact it was not until 1908 that the Pupil associateship entry examination re-appeared, with another "Syllabus" (so named for the first time) including the usual ingredients: English Language (so named for the first time); Mathematics; Geography; History, Latin or French or German grammar; and General Elementary Science (see Appendix IV.) A list of 17 examinations whose candidates were exempt from this entry examination was published for the first time. These were mainly Leaving Certificates or Matriculation exams, although the First Examination of any British, or Colonial University also carried exemption. The most important fact for this research was revealed in later discussion when it was announced that the next annual conference of the Institute would include a session on "University Teaching for Journalists."

(32) This apparently dampened enthusiasm on the question of entry requirements, and they disappear from view. The University debate will be considered later.

5. c. de Blowitz of "The Times"

The "prince of journalists" as his biography is titled wrote about a grandiose scheme devised by himself with another six friends around Europe, that needed a federation of

Journalism School in which journalistic aspirants could learn the history and literature of Europe in the first two years (after they had take a degree) (34) with the study growing more detailed as it approached the most recent past. Political constitutions, climate, manufacturing, means of communication, armed forces, budgets and the most remarkable contemporaries in every country would be the basis of the study. Boxing, horse-riding, pistol shooting and drawing would round-off the fuller man. Sophistication would come with a further three years travelling around the world on scholarships.

De Blowitz' description of what the novice journalist should have, reflects, in many ways, his biographers assessment of his character:

"...the love of danger... a boundless curiosity and love for truth... a marked facility for rapid assimilation and comprehension... good health... sees and hears accurately and knows how to express quickly what he sees and hears."
(35)

This novitiate would then be able after conversation with a specialist - having first familiarised himself with the theoretical and practical elements- to understand the special explanations well enough to reproduce them in general intelligible language . This remarkable protege would obviously stand head and shoulders above "the common stream." The keen feeling coming across is of de Blowitz' ability to project himself into any situation - even that of novitiate journalist. Needless to say, little was heard of this scheme,

although the scholarship idea might have fallen on friendly ears.

5. d. Journalism Scholarships at City of London School.

The City of London School had unveiled a memorial to a former student, George Steevens (1869-1900), who had died of disease while a correspondent for the Daily Mail covering the Boer War in South Africa. Known as the "Balliol prodigy" (36) Steevens had been a Fellow of Pembroke College, Oxford, before committing himself to journalism, joining W.E. Henley (1849-1903) of the National Observer - a nursery of journalistic talent according to other journalists. (37). Between 1893 and 1896 he worked on the Pall Mall Gazette where Henry Cust (1861-1917) was editor and joined the Daily Mail, when it opened in 1896, as a special correspondent. He served in USA, India and France covering the Dreyfus trial, as well as South Africa. The first news editor at the Daily Mail, Lincoln Springfield, regarded him as a brilliant reporter who could have made a reputation on the strength of his descriptive writing. (38)

According to William Hill, then on the Westminster Gazette, the idea for journalism scholarships came when he and Lord Northcliffe were walking past the school, just after the unveiling of the memorial to Steevens. (39) They were discussing the need for improving the supply of first-class journalistic material and Northcliffe asked:

"What can be done?"... instantly (Hill replied) came the unpremeditated answer: Here is the City of London School in our midst (one of the leading public schools) - why not offer a scholarship that will assist in the discovery of first-class journalistic material". (40)

"A capital idea, "was the response. "Was not that George Steevens school?" was the next question. Yes; they recently unveiled a memorial portrait of him at the School". "Well then, for an experimental period of three years I am willing to provide a travelling Scholarship in Journalism, to be known as the George Steeven's Scholarship". (41)

Northcliffe donated £3,000 of which £400 was to be awarded to the best journalism scholar, for foreign travel, in each of three years, running consecutively, with the first being awarded in the summer of 1903.

The balance of the money went to subsidise lectures by journalists and Hill, self-styled Director of the course, organised his friends and colleagues to support him in this "entirely new field of activity... upon a comparatively unworked 'claim' in the arena of technical instruction". (42) Hill's introductory lecture, in the rhetoric of the time, includes some high-flown sentiments in providing

"...a more complete preparation for the exercise of the profession, and a wider grasp of its mission, a readier conception of its avenues of enterprise, and a keener regard for its standards of propriety intelligence and patriotism". (43)

Hill's first lectures introduced students aged between

16 and 18 to the work of various newspaper departments, then went on to cover "The Practices of the Printing Office, Reporting, Sub-Editing, News-Editing". Two former colleagues provided expertise in reviewing: Dr. (later Sir) William Robertson Nicoll (1851-1923) on "The Responsibilities and Qualifications of Reviewers" and Mr. Frederick Greenwood (1830-1909), former editor of Cornhill Magazine and founder-editor of the Pall Mall Gazette, talked on "The Higher Aspects and Practices of Journalism."

As well as visits to newspaper offices Hill indicated he would consider some of the lectures "practical tests of the capacity of the students... to produce at their next meeting a summary of the lecture" which was not to exceed in length a half-a-column of The Times. His introductory lecture included the statement that he hoped this scheme would have an important part to play in discovering "a number... of journalists in embryo... who may, by a few sessions training, qualify themselves to take rank in a newspaper office" with every hope for future distinction.

While an exaggerated claim to make it might reflect Hill's approach because, as another editor later wrote, his "ability to persuade other people to take him at his own flattering estimation was amazing," (45) and he obviously persuaded Northcliffe, who made him news editor of the Weekly Dispatch in 1904, and Franklin Thomasson, who made him editor of the Tribune in 1906 - although he was fired after six months. (46) However, Hill re-appears at later dates to remind the world of his experiment.

One of the lecturers on Hill's course, J.W. Robertson Scott (1866-1962), possibly writing about Hill in 1912 when it was still fresh in his memory, records that "he did not think much of the students." (47) Yet we know that three of the students progressed in journalism: Laurence Briggs became assistant editor of the Sunday Chronicle in 1929 and, in the opinion of Tom Clarke, former news editor of the Daily Mail "he would have been the future editor of that paper, but he died in mid-career... in a motor-cycling accident." The second was William Hill, the lecturer's own son. The third, Lawrence Spero, graduated from Cambridge in 1910 and went straight onto the sub-editor's desk at the Daily Mail. As someone writing five years after the end of this experiment put it, "special training for a journalist should not begin too prematurely". (49) He favoured the "good sound general education" available at public schools like City of London School, but he was optimistic when he thought that "with the experiment successfully tried there, a School of Journalism for all London might then be considered", possibly reflecting feelings about only one school being involved in the experiment.

Northcliffe would have been reminded of this experiment in 1907 when a Mr J. Lulham Pound wrote to inform him that £700 remained, of this £3,000 gift towards a "Journalism Class and Steevens' Scholarships at the City of London School" with the advice that "the second scholar will be starting in a few weeks on his journey around the world."

The writer sought Northcliffe's approval to spend the remaining money on money prizes "of not less than £10 each". (50) Northcliffe's reply is not recorded. However, in 1903, Northcliffe had said that he favoured the idea of education for journalists, admitting his donation to the City of London School, (51) although he subsequently gave no financial support to the London University Diploma for Journalism Course.

5.e. John Churton Collins and the Birmingham University Scheme for Education for Journalism.

As we have seen in Chapter Four John Churton Collins (1848-1908), Professor of English Literature at Birmingham University, was a Balliol man, with what can only be described as a passionate attachment to Greek thought and culture and to the ideals of a humane liberal education (52) and he never lost touch with his old college, even keeping rooms in the town long after he graduated. Collins made valiant - some might say foolhardy - attempts to persuade Oxford and Cambridge Universities to undertake education at English Literature, in its own right, and, when these failed, took up the Chair of English Literature at Birmingham in 1904. A man of fantastic energy and drive, as his diary for 1906 reveals (Appendix V), Collins soon had the Birmingham Journalists organised into seeking concrete expression of their earlier attempts at syllabuses for education for journalists.

Birmingham University passed his proposals, for a School or Diploma for journalism, without opposition and appointed a sub-committee to help it on its way. (53) Collins' diary records that journalists, editors, and academics got together for what he hoped might be

"the beginning of a "big thing" - the first organised University instruction in Journalism in England. Deus sit propitius. (54)

This was less than a month after he first introduced the scheme on 5 June, 1907, to the editor of the Birmingham Daily Post and three other journalists. The local newspapers record the progress of the scheme over the next year. (55)

Collins outlined his proposals in the February issue of the Nineteenth Century in the following year. (56) He formulated a postgraduate course (with a possible option of its leading to a degree at some later stage), having a general and a technical element. (See Appendix VI) (57) The specific training in the techniques of journalism involved descriptive article writing, which would provide opportunities of acquiring miscellaneous information "from visits to museums, art galleries... (as well as) to departments of the University". (58) Leader article writing, leaderettes, and notes would be taught as would "the management of paragraphs... and deciphering telegrams" with shorthand "not... perhaps... compulsory". (59)

The University-approved version of the syllabus (see

Appendix VII) is not so detailed, leaving out any mention of the technical elements. The Birmingham Evening Despatch for May 20, 1908, records that the subject had been the topic of a meeting the previous evening, at Birmingham University and that several journalists present had joined a committee to "confer with Professor Churton Collins as to future arrangements." One of those joining the committee, Mr A.H. Mann (1876-1972), later became editor of the Yorkshire Post.

Collins mentioned in his Nineteenth Century article that the editor of that journal, Sir James Knowles (1831-1908), had earlier suggested a scheme of education for journalism to Benjamin Jowett (1817-1893) of Balliol College, Oxford, but no reference exists in Jowett's papers in the College library. (60)

I have referred earlier to Collins being a Balliol man, just as Steevens was to become known as a "Balliol prodigy" when he entered journalism. Collins spends more than five pages of his article on "The Universities and Journalism" discussing the general state of the two older English universities and makes a strong plea that they should not be the homes of a "course of instruction essentially modern" yet he outlines Jowett's policy for encouraging those who wanted to take up journalism being one in which they attached:

"themselves loosely to Balliol and ramble about the university browsing here and there on such lecture-fodder as they could find palatable, or likely to meet their needs. Sometimes they looked in on lectures on political economy, or on English history, or on art, or even on Greek philosophy. They were

encouraged to visit museums and art galleries or to write essays and go walks with their patron or some other illumining pundit. This he called giving them the flavour of Oxford life". (61)

While Collins allowed that we might consider smiling at the "very rudimentary conception of a course of "modern" education at a university" (62) he infers that about a third of newspaper journalists might have enjoyed a similar kind of education while "at least two-thirds of what claims to be journalism... is not only a national disgrace... to us, but simply unintelligible". (63)

Collins method of engaging support for his proposed course is worth our attention and we are fortunate to have in his "Life and Memoirs" edited by his son, copies of letters from leading journalists, and editors, on the subject of education for journalism. Writing on June & 1907, J. Alfred Spender (1862-1942) commented on how surprised he was by the way journalists got stuck in the lower departments of a newspaper and had no power or ambition to rise out of them. What a school of journalism might do is to give men who "begin that way the backing of general knowledge and interest which would enable them to rise... without it they get stuck..." (64) He was more specific about what should be included in the syllabus:

"What the young men who came into the Press from the schools and universities chiefly lack is a knowledge of recent history. From the Reform Bill up to the time when they themselves begin to take an interest in affairs, they know practically nothing. The schools and universities don't teach it for fear of

politics, and that, I suppose is a great difficulty. But a school which is to be useful to a political journalist must brave this... Next to this is a fair general knowledge of foreign countries and their constitutions... also, an outline of colonial history. After this leading facts about population, territory, trade etc... thoroughly learnt in statistical form and their meaning realised. Then all the time some reading in political philosophy Burke, Mill, Tocqueville, Bagehot, etc. Political economy... stress should be on economic history rather than theory... the most useful man for literary critics... I suggest Hazlitt". (65)

After all this he added a note of warning "that editors, I'm afraid, do not believe in schools of journalism" and apologised for his rambling letter with the pleas that "journalism is a rambling subject."

Clement Shorter (1857-1946) exemplified this warning when he stated categorically "journalism cannot be taught... the best university is a newspaper office". (67)

However, H.W. Massingham (1860-1924), editor of the Fortnightly Review and literary editor of the Daily Telegraph and W.L. Courtney (1850-1928) offered their whole-hearted support; the former had worked his way up through the ranks, while the latter had been Fellow of an Oxford College.

For William Hill, on the other hand, Collins laid too much emphasis on leader-writing, reviewing, and not enough on training "the rank and file - the news-editor, the descriptive writers, and reporters, the sub-editors, etc." Possibly Collins heard from Hill about the Steevens' Scholarships; if not, Sir William Robertson Nicoll definitely

enlightened him on the subject. Nicoll (1851-1923) said his lectures on reviewing had attracted eight boys, and "in the first class at least six were immediately provided with situations". (68) He favoured anything which would "save the editor the trouble of training a new recruit" and he suggested "practical journalists should be largely employed in the teaching and that men and women should be admitted to the course, which should offer some form of authoritative certificate or Diploma... countersigned by practical and successful journalists. (69) These comments were obviously noted by Collins for we see them included in his syllabus (Appendix VI)

This scheme, the first to attempt an analysis of the subject to cater for both the academic and technical, never materialised because of the death of Professor Collins in the same month that the Institute of Journalists were to discuss the education of the journalist in Manchester, in September, 1908. (70)

5.f. University Education for Journalism

As a life-long London correspondent for the Birmingham Post Sir Alfred Robbins was most likely aware of the discussions being held with Birmingham University and, prior to the Conference, he had circulated a memorandum "for the consideration of the relations of the Universities and schools to the educational training of journalists" to

various members of the teaching staffs of Universities who had expressed an interest in the subject. He pointed out that this attempt to establish educational standards for journalism did not involve any attempt to make journalism a "close profession." (71) A practical test of aptitude and the opportunity to make some acquaintance with professional techniques of journalism - which Robbins likened to medical students "walking the wards" - would have to be incorporated into any professional diploma that might be instituted.

In his Presidential address to the Institute of Journalists on 31 August, 1908, - traditionally given at the end of the year of office - Robbins chose the status of the journalist as his theme. He defined a journalist as

"... one who earned his living by editing or writing for a public journal, which, by excluding the amateur, the casual and the dilettante, embraces the whole body of true workers in our craft". (72)

Using a phrase much-used in the early days of the twentieth century, he referred to journalists' "brain-product" being as much entitled to financial rewards as the judge, or bishop, to his stipend, or the doctor, or lawyer, to his fees. In effect Robbins was stating that the public had a right to know that journalists were well-trained enough to elicit the true state of facts and able to report them faithfully. In stating this he was implicitly criticising those who snatched for success and passing popularity in a "good story... dearly purchased at the expense of truth." (73) Whereas, if the public could look to the journalist as

"... a man who, respecting himself inspires respect in others as the watch-dog of its liberties, and the guardian not only of its interests but its honour, the Press will serve the best and most lasting of ends. However... the Press will make for degradation and not development, for evil not for good... if it regards its journalists merely as hack-writers for hire and its journals as only a medium for sensation mongering, for money-making or as a springboard to social advancement." (74)

Whatever the future held, would depend upon the journalist not upon journalism. With that prescient phrase, the Presidential address ended and the following day, 1st September, 1908, was devoted to the special session "The Education of the Journalist."

5.g. Professor Michael Sadler's Comments on Education for Journalism

In a paper specially prepared for the conference (and circulated beforehand) Dr Michael Sadler (1861-1943) Professor of the Theory of Education at the Victoria University, Manchester (later to become Manchester University, with Sadler as its Vice-Chancellor), drew an analogy with education for teachers. Oxford University had started special courses in 1885 - for London's elementary school teachers - followed, five years later, by King's College, London, instituting a Day Training College, with Cambridge University having Oscar Browning (1837-1923) as Principal of its first Day Training College. (Here we need

to remind ourselves that the forerunner of the National Union of Teachers had started in 1870). By 1893 Oxford had introduced a Diploma in Education for secondary teachers.

As we have seen in Chapter Four Sadler saw this as providing some measure of experience about what he felt was the particular problem of instituting specialised education. Then, in 1908 both teaching and journalism stressed open access for recruits of promise, regardless of previous training; they also shared a belief in the importance of recruits learning some essential elements through practical experience - like Manchester's practising, or demonstration, schools. Sadler regarded the acquisition of knowledge, in both spheres, as of less importance than the ability to be able to put knowledge to practical use, quickly and so apprenticeship of some form was appropriate for both teacher and journalist. Similarly, both callings were afflicted with problems in the middle years of life - such as Alfred Spender pointed out to Professor Collins writing in 1907 (above) - and neither had much chance of an adequate retiring allowance after long years of service.

Sadler felt that the journalists could support both callings if they educated the educationalists' masters - the ratepayers - into regarding education of national importance for either occupation.

Both callings required some scheme to enable beginners to avoid making mistakes, while introducing them to their calling with some preliminary skills and knowledge to help

them make a good start. But "liberal education was the best basis for subsequent professional skill in any calling," and the main part of professional training should be postgraduate study. However he did believe Universities should develop a new Honours School to amalgamate areas of study usually kept apart, and Appendix VIII tabulates those subjects - most of which he also felt should be in any postgraduate course of study. (75)

Even someone who disagreed with Professor Sadler's specialised course of instruction stated that the Institute of Journalists should approach the Universities boldly and ask that proposed courses be wide, and the requirements for degrees elastic, so that students should be able to choose for themselves among subjects useful to them, in the long run, in their perceived profession. (76) This speaker, Professor D.J. Medley, represented the Glasgow University Appointments Board - of which he was chairman - and he had welcomed the Institute's approach to the universities instead of going it alone. He also declared that Glasgow students wanted to know more about journalism than about business opportunities indicating that students, even in those days, possessed definite occupational intentions about future careers, even if journalism offered no specifically designed method of entry for them. Professor C.E. Vaughan of Leeds University deplored anything which would herd students into a professional pen when they should be widening their experience. (77)

The University of London had sent along Mr T. Lloyd Humberstone (d.1957) and he disagreed with Professor Medley's view that specialisation in traditional degrees was the answer. Speaking from the benefit of experience with Board of Education civil servants he queried the value of traditional degrees whose products, when they got to the Board, knew nothing about educational history. (78)

5.h. London University Proposals

Humberstone, like Professor Churton Collins a year earlier, thought it was the duty of the universities to consider the needs of special classes. Just as London University offered classes in engineering, so it might be able to provide a two-year course something like the B.Sc degree in economics at the London School of Economics, which allowed undergraduates to study modern, instead of medieval, history.

This was the impetus that the Institute had hitherto lacked - the willingness of a University to actually sit down and discuss what was needed. By the spring of 1910 Mr Frederick Miller, (1863-1924) assistant editor of the Daily Telegraph, was able to announce details of discussions that had been held with London University. A two-year curriculum for students between 17 and 21 would provide an academic and technical training combined with practical experience to be gained by running a University newspaper. There would be between 20 and 30 subjects for students to choose from and it

would be possible to progress from the Diploma to a BA or BSc degree in their faculty. Enrolment would be 20 students and staff would include a "full-time Director to look after the efficient training of the students." (79) This would include classes in the law of libel, precis-writing and condensation of reports, although the suggestion was put that these should be organised by journalists. (See Appendices Xa and Xb)

Mr A.J. Mundella, another member of the Institute of Journalists, had assisted Mr Miller and Mr Humberstone in their discussions, and was able to report that they might expect financial support from the London County Council as well as the Board of Education, and "other financial benefactors... private as well as institutional - like the City of London." (80)

Although the "Technical Course" was subtitled "Suggestions for further Consideration" most journalists would have been satisfied by the elements represented therein: "Journalistic Shorthand, Press Law, Principles of Descriptive Reporting, Practical Reporting, Parliamentary Procedure", to name a few (See Appendix XI). Whether the proposed morning sessions in journalism with a first hour lecture followed by practical work would have fitted in with all the other, academic, lectures does not appear to have been discussed.

The implications for journalism were discussed at later meetings of the Institute in 1910, and Sir Robert Donald

(1860-1933) editor of the Daily Chronicle, made two points:
firstly,

"... we need classes or schools of journalism which give prominence to the training and development of the journalist as a writer... the ability to express in simple, clear and direct language the purpose of the writer".

secondly, apart from requiring a sense of public duty

"the journalist must be able to sift facts quickly and present them clearly". (81)

Another editor, A.G. Gardiner (1865-1946), appointed editor of the Daily News at 36, shared Donald's dislike of the technical training (saying there were too few graduates of English in journalism) being done in the University. Yet there was "not one subject I would blot out of that course." Gardiner deplored the modern journalists "lack of respect for what is beyond his depths" and called on universities themselves to "widen modernise and humanise their culture" to help combat the "smart cynicism that has taken the place of the sober, pedestrian virtues of the old school" (82) of journalism. As if to rub home this point, the report states that "six Institute members took the chair for lucerne in their old Colleges" - the meeting that month was held in Oxford.

5.i. Some Other Schemes for Education for Journalists

Various courses, for working journalists, were

initiated under the banner of the Institute of Journalists co-operating with local universities, but details are sparse. For instance, Trinity College, Dublin, jointly organised a series of lectures with the Institute's Dublin and Irish Association District. These were more by way of being public lectures, by prominent figures, to arouse the interest of undergraduates who, in their turn, had asked what protection the Institute was prepared to offer them should they practice their new profession (Appendix IX) (83).

The I.O.J. also called upon people with expert knowledge to share their thoughts on the subject of education for journalism. One so approached was a former editor of the Schoolmaster, Dr. Thomas Macnamara, who had been elected President of the National Union of Teachers in 1896, before becoming a Member of Parliament in 1900. Details of a syllabus he prepared in 1905 are unavailable. Even though he became the country's first Minister of Labour, in 1902, none of his papers are extant.

The Leeds District of the I.O.J. ran a series of lectures for working journalists, with the co-operation of Leeds University, (84) but details, again, are patchy, although we do know that the President of the Institute for 1908, Sir Alfred Robbins, presented his son, Alan Pitt Robbins, with one of the prizes awarded to eight, out of the 35, journalists participating who submitted essays at the close of the course, which ran throughout 1908.

5.j. (i) Review and Summary

As the purpose of this chapter has been to try and set the scene before we examine the original concern of this research, the University of London Diploma for Journalism, 1919-1939, it only remains to fill in a few details pinpointing attempts at starting specific educational courses for journalists.

Interesting ideas about education were in circulation during this period prior to the start of the London University course. The German import - heuristic methods of teaching - was introduced into chemical teaching in London in 1897 by Dr Harry E. Armstrong, and he quoted Edmund Burke in relation to this "new" method:

"I am convinced that the method of teaching which most nearly approaches to the methods of investigating is incomparably the best since, not content with serving up a few barren and lifeless truths, it leads to the stock on which they grow: it tends to set the learner himself on the track of invention and to direct him in those paths in which the author has made his own discoveries." (85)

A few years later, in 1904, Professor Michael Sadler was noting in his Extract Book some thoughts of John Ruskin's, written in 1865:

"all education begins to work. What we think, or what we know, or what we believe, is, in the end, of little consequence. The only thing of consequence is what we do, therefore... the first point of education is to make

(people) do their best... you do not learn that
you may live... you live that you may learn."
(86)

In 1909 professor Williams was telling the Institute of
Journalists conferenced on education that:

"The journalist will learn to write, as the
painter learns to draw. He will learn to choose
his words with loving care, as the painter
picks his colours. Accuracy, clearness,
tersness and vigour will sum up his style."
(87)

At the same time the Hon. Harry Lawson said the best
advice for a journalist was to:

"specialise in some... group of subjects
because they had no room in a great newspaper
office in London for the old-fashioned, all-
round reporter who had no particular knowledge
of anything." (88)

Which may explain why, around this time, the former student
of the Telegraph's David Anderson, Robert Hichen, was offered
(but turned down) an offer of £2,000 salary to write for the
paper. (89)

5.j (ii) Innovation: Commercial and University

With the benefit of hindsight this tortuous approach to
the development of a system of education for journalism might
appear curious to the modern eye, but it is necessary to
remind ourselves that

"...nothing in life is ever isolated... an

event and any creation of a period is connected by a thousand threads with the culture in which it is embedded." (90)

Yet it was left to two individuals to take the first steps, one commercially, the other within a university, to develop systems to meet the need of the time.

David Anderson's London School of Journalism was the first journalism education experiment in England to adopt the "learning by doing" just referred to. Anderson's method of immediate feedback to students on their journalistic progress was an example of guided learning which had its origins both in the idea of the university tutorial and in the journalist's requirements for "accuracy, clearness, terseness and vigour" just elaborated. (91) Described as "one of the brightest writers on the Daily Telegraph... he was a competent teacher... but his most notable pupil made a success in literature," (92) Anderson's students - many the products of Oxford and Cambridge Universities - still thought his teaching method worthy of note and, Watson's comment notwithstanding, many went on to senior positions in the journalism of the time. So unusual was this scheme of Anderson's that he

"was much 'ragged' when he went to his club... because he never produced any of his pupils for inspection." (93)

On the other hand Professor John Churton Collins appears quite unlike Anderson, whom Watson described as "peculiarly gentle, soft-spoken and lively-witted. (94)

Writing about literary men, John Gross describes Collins as "liable to seem a mere irritable chalk-dust pedagogue."

(95) Collins combined a passion for the railways with another passion, being a University Extension Lecturer (see Appendix V for a typical week of such lectures in 1906.) Yet Gross calls some of his attacks on literary figures as "out of proportion... pedantic, crusty, unbalanced," referring here to Collins' bouts of severe depression which might have contributed to the mystery surrounding his death in 1908, when he was found drowned in a stream.

In modern terms Collins, like de Blowitz, would be described as a 'workaholic,' with a ready view on everything and anything, vide de Blowitz grandiose deliberations on the subject of education for journalism - in the image of de Blowitz.

The appearance of a National Association of Journalists was, in retrospect, quite an outstanding achievement for the provincial working journalists who wanted to band together for mutual benefit. The feeling, reading the columns of its semi-official journal, Journalism, is one of concern at the influx of untrained amateurs, fly-by-night proprietors, and of poor wages and conditions. Even the role of the local reporter was still combined with working "at case" in the printing shop, or managing the printer's shop, if not living above it. Some, like Thomas Frost, believed proprietors wanted the lowest possible wages and so preferred existing open access to the job. The working journalist feared the

casual amateurs, refugees from other professions, who could announce to the world their new roles as journalists, or proprietors, without any control exercised to maintain standards, or wage levels. The early calls for entry exams between 1887 and 1888 (Appendix 1) reflect working journalist ideas about the abilities needed to perform the work of a local reporter. Yet these undergo radical changes, gradually giving way to something quite different in content, and intent. The content reflected the change within the Institute of Journalists as it evolved out of the National Association of Journalists in 1889.

5. j (iii) Aspects of Professionalisation

The direction of the National Association of journalists changed after its founding, in 1884, by working journalists living outside London. First, there was the admission to membership of editors and proprietors, then the introduction of what are now considered archetypal aspects of an occupation seeking to enhance its status as a profession. These were as simple as finding premises, and a secretary, to founding a library, then a journal and seeking to defend the professional interests of members against infringement, in Parliament or elsewhere. (97) The Institute of Journalists had as a regulation in its Royal Charter of 1889 the introduction of entry examinations. Yet the people who, apparently, made the running in changing the Association into the Institute were not the early members but the later entrants, editors and proprietors, people who combined those jobs with being Members of Parliament (unpaid, of course) and

so able to steer the Association into gaining a Royal Charter - no mean achievement in itself. Obviously the titles such people chose to indicate the different grades of membership revealed their aspirations: so entrants were Pupil-associates with Members and Fellows in the upper reaches, all adding to the impression of offering an incentive for the less professional among its members to become more professional. (98)

The original membership must have welcomed attempts to enable journalists to exercise "a larger measure of autonomy in choosing colleagues and successors," (99) by being able to stop the entry of those, unqualified in journalism, who had "influence or intellect" enough to gain entry while working journalists saw their own careers blighted by the entry of such people - whom they then had to train.

As soon as entry examinations, requiring knowledge of Euclid, were introduced then the working journalist members wrote into their journal saying they had never had to use Euclid in thirty years in journalism. By the time the Institute had discussed ideas of university entry, in 1908, the National Union of Journalists had been in existence for a year, devoted to improving the pay and conditions of working journalists. (100)

If we compare this progress to professionalisation with that of teachers we find that the forerunner of the National Union of Teachers, founded in 1870, had seen courses for

teachers started, in Oxford, in 1885, with a Diploma by 1893. Another professional association, the Library Association, founded 1877, gained its Royal Charter in 1898, with the examinations starting in 1896. As a general rule all those associations which had arranged university-style entry requirements before 1914 had to wait until the end of the First World War for these to be inaugurated - even though some may have been agreed as early as 1910. (101) The School of Librarianship, for instance, had to wait until 1919 to open at University College, London, in the same year that the Diploma for Journalism was inaugurated. The difference was that the Librarianship school had a full-time director and several staff lecturers, while there was none of that for the Journalism Diploma.

In discussing these topics regarding professionalisation we have to remember that writers on the subject advise caution in using lists to try and describe what counts towards the definition of a profession. (102) Another modern writer also provides useful insight into one of the problems for combining the practical and academic:

"the professional schools may be accused of being too 'academic': and the academics accuse the practitioners of failure to be sufficiently intellectual." (103)

5. j. (iv) Early Examination Syllabuses

The early attempts at formulating examination

syllabuses (Appendix I) were very basic and comprised an oral test in English literature and general knowledge, with another written paper involving condensation of articles, or speeches, writing a "short essay on some selected subject" (104) and "paragraphs" of three incidents narrated by the examiner. There were also 24 incorrect sentences to be corrected and a balance sheet to be scrutinised. Such a syllabus is remarkably simple, and direct, and reflects its origins in the National Association of Journalists in 1887/8, when it was still in the hands of those working journalists responsible for founding the association. Even by that date, the influx of editors and proprietors had begun, as if there was a concerted take-over bid for ascendancy by this new group. With the expertise of these new members the Association quickly became the Institute of Journalists, complete with Royal Charter listing the introduction of an entry examination among its aims.

With the change of name to the Institute came a change in entry examination proposals. What the average 16 year-old could reasonably be expected to answer became something more complicated. The ability to write clear, accurate English, with a test of general knowledge, became something else: more a general education designed to transmit a basic store of knowledge upon which the trainee journalist might graft other specialisms. It can be interpreted as either a far-sighted move to provide the journalist of the future or as determined effort to institute dramatic changes in the calibre of the profession by improving entry requirements to a degree which might exclude many of the calibre already employed as

journalists.

So there is a distinct correlation between the changing power basis within the re-named Institute and the kind of entrant specified in the curriculum for the entry examinations. The kind of general knowledge the journalist is deemed to possess is defined: knowledge of Euclid (Appendix II) enters the arena; Latin, French and mathematics, history, geography, "facts in English literature" (at a time when Oxbridge did not attempt to define, let alone teach, it.) The change of content is an indication of intention to shape the future of journalism. That is one conclusion. Another interpretation is that this can be seen as a final attempt by the managers of the press to fight off the revolution that journalists, apparently, were anticipating (as A. Arthur Reade has indicated): an attempt to fight off the curse of the "new journalism" which would change the political map of press power. That it was increasingly seen in this light by working reporters could well be a contributory factor in the eventual dissatisfaction that led to the formation, in 1907, of the National Union of Journalists by dissident Institute members, and others.

The feelings of such members can only be surmised when looking at the next, 1893, syllabus (Appendix III) which introduced further examinations for Members, indicating the determination to push the Institute that way, if possible. Subjects which the 16 year-old would have had little chance of learning in the State education system of the time - like

constitutional and political history - appeared. The ordinary reporters seemed to be forgotten, or relegated, to "Division II a" codified "Special Certificates" which "general reporters" might sit. Yet this designation does not appear as a grade of membership in the Institute.

This scamper after qualifications also involved seeking exemptions for ordinary examinations obtained in schools, and elsewhere, so that, by 1908, nine English and a further nine Welsh, Irish and Scottish paper qualifications were recognised as exemptions from the Institute's own exams. It is as if the search for respectability (or status) rendered the Institute prostrate in front of any qualification. Yet ordinary members wrote letters commenting that they had never once used any Euclid in thirty years of journalism. It is difficult to know how to assess the value of all this activity, which suddenly ceased when the possibility of establishing university courses in journalism appeared on the horizon. By then the National Union of Journalists was nearly a year old, and its number multiplied as the Institute's fell dramatically away (Table II).

Professor Collins syllabus, published in the Nineteenth Century for February, 1908, (Appendix VI), was itself the result of wide correspondence with editors of the day, as well as with local journalists in Birmingham. They had been in the forefront of preparing examination schemes (like Appendix II) and one of their members, Mr Arthur Mann (1876-1972), served on the Birmingham examinations committee of the Institute of Journalists. Mr Mann later became editor of the

Birmingham Despatch and served as editor of the Yorkshire Post from 1919 - 1939, before moving into a trusteeship of The Observer and a seat on the Board of Governors of the BBC.

These personal proposals of Collins differ from the University's syllabus (Appendix VII), being plans for a postgraduate scheme where graduates would take four or five out of a possible eight subjects covering "the last 50 years" in history, literature, politics, or colonial affairs. Training in journalistic techniques such as descriptive writing, leader-writing, 'make-up' of newspapers, deciphering telegrams, as well as law and copyright were offered. Shorthand was included, but as an optional extra.

The contrast with the University-approved scheme (Appendix VII) is obvious when we realise this is an evening course for working provincial reporters and journalists; hence the footnote: "Fees £3.13.6d (£3.771/2)" for a minimum of 12 students. Before the University would approve Collins' scheme they wanted to see money - £10,000 was the figure quoted in 1908 (105) as being enough to endow a professorial chair in journalism. The evening course approved by the University would have cost £100 to operate - and Birmingham journalists themselves subscribed more than that amount to enable the scheme to get off the ground. This never did happen because, after Collin's death, his replacement as Professor, de Selincourt, expressed the opinion that the academics thought an evening course would be too much for those who had been working all day. So the professors

suggested that the journalists should attend during the day, with all the other students; that is, when the journalists themselves were working. Whether this was an early attempt to introduce day-release training by the University or merely an unwillingness to participate in the proposal - in what other professors may have regarded as yet another of Professor Collins "crackpot ideas," - dressed up as naivete about journalistic conditions of work, it is difficult to assess.

5.j. (v) London University Negotiations

With the achievement of negotiations on a possible syllabus at London University it must have appeared that the Institute of Journalists timetable for upgrading the status of journalism had received some recognition. When that happened, in 1910, it was just 22 years after Sir Algernon Borthwick, a former President of the Institute, had announced that the Institute's object was to "maintain the profession of journalism... by instituting examinations for young candidates." (106)

Looking back over the century at what appear as distinctly positive approaches to the question of trying to analyse the relevant education required for the journalist, it is sometimes difficult to determine the conditions under which those early experiments operated. Our view is coloured by our present experiences so that, for instance, the comment of the Haldane Report on the University of London as it

appeared during the period of the review, 1909 to 1913, looks slightly odd:

"the great majority students who take the bachelors degree of London University do not receive a university education at all." (107)

Set in context, it assumes a semblance of actuality when we understand that the main purpose of the commission was to examine the attempts to change the university from an examining, into a teaching, body. The University of London at that time hardly taught any of its own students, most of whom studied for the London external degree. The university was in the invidious position of having to give some form of recognition to those who taught students in these other institutions, yet unable to effectively exist as a teaching institute in its own right. Constituent colleges of the University obviously undertook their own teaching and their students took the London degree.

That comment, from in the Haldane report, carried an implicit criticism of the University's purely examining function, with no control over teaching in other institutions, which was described as:

"note-taking for examinations (instead of) learning the methods of independent work carried on in an enquiring spirit... (with) time for independent reading... and reflective thought..." (108)

While recommending the introduction of a properly-

constituted teaching university, complete with professors, departments and staff representation on the governing body, the Haldane report also recommended the extension of the university education

"to all those professions and callings of which it may be said that practice and progress are closely connected and constantly reacting on each other." (109)

With this as a backdrop to the discussions about the possibility of university education for journalism which were held with the Institute of Journalists, 1908 and 1912, the introduction of the Diploma for Journalism here, rather than elsewhere, is explained. The whole exercise must have seemed tailor-made to produce graduates with a sympathetic understanding of the ideas which guided the work of other men, as well as increasing the awareness of how other branches of knowledge bore on individual specialisms; this was seen as the proper work that could be fostered within the university ethos. The projection of these ideas, onto the recommendation that prospective journalists need only taste of the several branches of knowledge offered by the university and were, as a result, regarded as educated for journalism, ignored totally the demands of all the schemes expounded in the preceding years. (Appendices I-VIII)

The appearance of Britain's first university course for journalism coincided with the introduction of Government/financial support for students attending approved courses of which journalism was one. With this innovation

the immediate problems of financing such a course were overcome, not only by these scholarships from the state, but also by Government financial aid to colleges and universities to provide, in some cases, temporary extra accomodation.

To oversee planning for the post-war period the Government formed a Ministry of Reconstruction and they initiated numerous pamphlets, and created numerous committees, to oversee the transition from war to peace. The next chapter outlines the nature of this innovation.

Chapter Five

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TABLE I: Summary of Dates Relating to Journalism Education

YEAR

1887-97	Daivd Anderson's London School of Journalism at 200 The Strand.
1887-8	National Association of Journalists first steps towards entry examinations.
1889	Birmingham District, Institute of Journalists, Propose Elementary Examination Scheme.
1893	I.O.J. Revised Examinations Scheme. De Blowitz' Scheme.
1902-5	G W Steevens Memorial Journalism Scholarships at City of London School with £3,000 donated by Lord Northcliffe.
1905	Dr. Thomas Macnamara, M.P. prepared a Scheme of Examination (no details extant.)
1908	Professor John Churton Collins Birmingham University postgraduate one-year course in journalism proposed and approved, but never implemented.
1907-8	Leeds District, Institute of Journalists, lectures for practising journalists.

- 1908 I.O.J. conference on the theme "Education for Journalists, with visiting American professors of journalism.
- 1908-9 Trinity College, Dublin, Public lectures by journalists, sponsored by Mr Cecil Harmsworth.
- 1910 Academic syllabus and proposed 'technical timetable' for journalism agreed between I.O.J. and London University.
- 1919 Diploma for Journalism inaugurated at London University with American journalism professors in attendance.
- 1932 National Union of Journalists requests London University to extend the journalism diploma so that it can be awarded to External students.
- 1935 Mr Tom Clarke appointed first full-time Director of Practical Journalism at King's College, London University.
- 1939 Course closes with the outbreak of World War 2.

- 1944 Journalists' Advisory Committee to the Appointments Department of the Ministry of Labour and National Service recommends re-starting London University course - and other courses at universities outside London - but this is not included in the Second Report of the Interdepartmental Committee on Further Education and Training, chaired by Lord Hankey.
- 1952 National Council for the Training and Education of Junior Journalists established.
- 1965 First pre-entry journalism course recognised by the National Council for the Training of Journalists at Harlow College.
- 1966-8 Tom Hopkinson a Senior Research Fellow at Sussex University, sponsored by newspaper groups. Proposal for a one-year post-graduate course in Journalism studies were not implemented at Sussex.
- 1970 Tom Hopkinson opens post-graduate course in journalism studies at University College, Cardiff.

TABLE II

Membership Figures:

National Association later Institute of Journalists and
the National Union of Journalists, 1886 - 1975.

Year	Institute	N.U.J.
1886	250	-
1892	3,114	-
1900	2,930	-
1907	2,575	738
1910	2,400	1,907
1915	1,989	3,127
1920	2,119	4,888
1925	2,036	4,827
1930	2,164	5,574
1935	2,465	5,919
1940	2,758	7,092
1945	2,878	8,400
1950	2,653	11,648
1955	2,619	13,364
1960	2,660	15,244
1965	2,400	19,621
1970	2,300	24,801
1975	2,396	28,274

Adapted from Christian, H. 1980. Journalists' Occupational
Ideologies and Press Commercialisation.

Chapter Six

The Introduction of Government Grants for Education for Students on Further and Higher Education Courses

The end of the First World War provided government with its first experience of large-scale demobilization and the resulting return to civilian life of former servicemen. As men had been conscripted into service during the later stages of the war there was felt to be responsibility for seeing that they got back into their jobs as easily as possible. Of course many of them had been apprentices or at universities and the Cabinet Demobilization Committee, under General Smuts, accepted a memorandum from the Officer's University and Technical Training Committee, chaired by Lieutenant General Sir Alfred Keogh, of Imperial College, recommending the establishment of government subsidised education and training schemes for returning officers and men.

Establishing the scheme involved the Board of Education, the Ministry of Labour, the Ministry of Pensions and H.M. Treasury to name only the major ministries. Records illustrate the vastness of the operation and the occasional confrontation caused by inter-departmental boundary rivalries. Committees were set up around the country, under the aegis of the Ministry of Labour local offices, to interview applicants from all the Armed Services. Institutions across the country - including Ireland - were contacted and informed of the existence of funds for students and, if necessary, for temporary accommodation required to house the influx. These included the older universities as well as teacher training colleges, polytechnics and technical schools and colleges.

'Training of Ex-officers and men of like educational standing in preparation for Civil Life' was how Mr W.R. Davies of the Board of Education described the scheme in the title of one of his memoranda. (1) The officers and men eligible for support totalled 275,000 with more than half in the Army, 37,000 in the Navy and another 32,000 in the R.A.F., not forgetting 42,000 in the Dominions Forces. An estimated 153,000 may have to be dealt with, was one of Mr Davies' early guesses, but the Cabinet approved £6 million for the scheme to run until the end of the academic year, 1925/26.

By 6th September, 1919, 9,467 awards had been approved, and up to 13,800 were 'approved and under consideration'. (2) By 9th November, 1919, this number had grown to 21,000 and was increasing at the rate of 400 a week. By the end of the year the figure was 22,805 applications received. (3)

Word of the scheme spread via the press (press release dated 14th December, 1918) and Ministry of Reconstruction pamphlets 12 and 27 entitled 'The Re-Settlement of Officers. Army and R.A.F.' and 'Officers' Guide to Civil Careers', both published in 1919. Departmental rivalry surfaced when one press report, in the Daily Chronicle, gave all the kudos to the Ministry of Labour and ignored the Board of Education. The President at that time, H.A.L. Fisher, wrote to his opposite number at the Ministry of Labour, the Rt. Hon. George H. Roberts, on December 19th deploring the leaking of

the estimated costs of the scheme and the claim that the Ministry would have "a very large measure of control over the selection of the beneficiaries, selection of the educational institutions and administration of the scheme". All of these, Fisher reminded Roberts were the province of the Board of Education and Roberts replied in contrite manner. He revealed that one of his staff quoted in the Chronicle, Mr Home McCall, had held 'a private conversation with a well-known novelist, whom he did not know to be in any way connected with Press'. (4)

There were other strands to the scheme including short three months courses of training in anything from hairdressing to commercial subjects and, although no figure was mentioned in the early stages, another £3 million was estimated for this training, as well as the £6 million for higher education, plus another £300,000 for agriculture training. (5)

Receiving institutions were graded A to E, beginning with Oxford and Cambridge Colleges, Group B was provincial universities, Group C had member colleges of London University down to Group E for Art Colleges and Technical Colleges. These included Polytechnics, like Northampton, now the City University, for engineers, Regent Street for photographers, and the six on the sanitary inspectors course at Battersea.

One of the safeguards built into the system of devising courses was that "they should be devised by experts" and that

"more or less expert advice must be provided for each candidate in the selection of courses of training best adapted to the circumstances". (6) Once selected the Board of Education expected institutions to make quarterly returns of students' "progress, attendance and conduct" as well as providing a "discriminating personal record of the educational career of each student". (7) Form 0.65 also had to be completed annually and was not to be regarded as a substitute for the quarterly returns. Students realised that "continuance of awards... was conditional on satisfactory progress" (8) and should they fall ill during the course then other procedures had to be followed.

By 7th January, 1921, the "weeding out of students" had resulted in "diminution of expenditure by £100,000 even though there were "between 500 and 600 (possible) cases... for recovery of overpayment". (9) Indeed, by 31st December, 1919, total commitments had risen to £6,032,141 and estimates for the financial year 1919 to 1920 meant that a supplementary vote was needed of £1,425,500. (10) In October, 1920, the estimate for 27,311 students had risen to £81/2 million. (11) Attempts were made to simplify and streamline the payment of maintenance grants because of complaints that it was taking up to 30 days before students received their grants, although ten to fourteen days was considered normal. (12) Maintenance was not to exceed £175 per man, according to the early estimates, with a child allowance of £24 per annum up to a maximum of £96. (13) The Ministry of Labour, however, wanted verification that the children were still living! (14) Wives were allowed

£19.10s.0d "if living with the trainee" or £34.5.9d if living away, (15) although wives of disabled soldiers could receive £50 per annum. The wife's income was disregarded in assessing the grant (16) and no enquiries were made "as to the financial circumstances of the parents of married students"... and those unmarried men who were "over 25 years of age at the commencement of the course." (17) Those under that age had to complete form 0.37, showing the gross annual income of parents and the number of other children they had to support. (18)

So it was that returning soldiers were able to undertake their studies without any financial worries, and it was against this background that the discussions about a course in journalism could begin in London.

References

1. Public Record Office file ED 47 is the basis for most references in this chapter.
2. ED 47/4
3. ED 47/6
4. ED 47/2
5. ED 47/10; memorandum: on Government Scheme of Assistance for the Higher Education and Training of Ex-Service Officers and Men" by S.H. Wood.
6. ED 47/2 Interim Report of the Army Demobilization Sub-Committee, Report of the Resettlement of Officers Committee. W.O. Paper 127/93, p.8 'Training.'
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8. See Form 0.470/21, "Notes" (on cancellation procedures) in ED 47/8
9. *ibid.*
10. ED 47/4 Memorandum of 12/9/19
11. ED 47.7 Answer to Parliamentary Questions in the House of Commons.
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Chapter Seven

The University of London Diploma for Journalism:
The Educational Background and Aims of the Course.

The nine-year gap, between drawing up the journalism syllabus by the Institute of Journalists and the University of London and its implementation in 1919, was due mainly to the interruption of the first World War. Most professional associations agreeing syllabuses before 1910 did not see them in operation until 1919, at the earliest. (1)

Between 1909 and 1913 London University had been investigated by a Royal Commission chaired by Lord Haldane. (2) This had been set up because of the desire to have a teaching, as opposed to an examining, university in London. Previous Commissions - Selborne in 1888 and Gresham in 1892 - had tried to overcome the imbalance between the teaching colleges and the examining university.

The Final Report is a very comprehensive survey of how university education was viewed at the turn of the twentieth century and, one has to remember, this was only just emerging as a force outside the older universities of Cambridge, Durham, Oxford and the Scottish seats of learning. Indeed, in 1910, the universities outside that charmed circle, supported by Government funds, boasted a total of 370 Bachelors of Arts, with Wales adding another 94.

At a conference in 1919 representatives of London University, (3) the Institute of Journalists, the Board of Education and the Ministry of Labour appointments branch agreed a two-year course of study in any four of the seven branches of knowledge (see Appendix X a), leaving out

instruction or practice in the technical side of journalism e.g. shorthand, type-writing or press-correcting. Lectures would be provided by the various constituent colleges, in their ordinary curricula for degree students, but there would be supplementary courses, including composition, general criticism and the history of journalism, as long as these did not interfere with the academic studies. As Mr F.J. Mansfield pointed out, on May 6th, 1919, when writing to complain about the course description as a "Diploma in Journalism", the diploma "could well be taken by persons not intending to adopt journalism as a profession". So the title became "Diploma for Journalism". (4)

The willingness of the University of London to house an experimental course in journalism matched the mood of the Haldane Report; when it stated:

"... a university in a great centre of population must be prepared to provide advanced instruction of a specialised kind of all classes of the community who are willing to receive it."

While wavering over the question of whether the professional outlook of some modern universities was consistent "with the wide intellectual training university education had always been understood to imply", (6) the report went on to state that any branch of knowledge that was developed and systematised could and should be taught, and studied, in such a way as to form part of a University education. However, when the University came to start the course in 1919 the only

element in the syllabus was the academic; the technical instruction part was omitted. (see Syllabus, Appendix Xa, Xb, XI). The University Journalism Committee had no money to pay its secretary, T. Lloyd Humberstone, in its early stages but the estimates for 1919-1920 show him receiving an honorarium of £8 1s. (£8.05), allocated from "war measures" funds. Thirty civilian students paid the full fee of £21 in advance of the opening session in October 1919, while fifty-four of the seventy-two ex-servicemen had their first term fees paid by the Board of Education. For their part University staff had to compile quarterly returns of students' progress, attendance, and conduct together with a discriminating personal record of each students' educational career. There was another form to be completed annually to enable students to realise that continuance of the awards was conditional on satisfactory progress. With ex-Servicemen and civilian students there was an estimated £2,142 income for the University of London, for 1919 to 1920.

In 1919 journalism was included in the list of careers for ex-Servicemen who could seek central government funding for fees and subsistence. According to the Board of Education this scheme of financing the education of ex-servicemen with state funds was "wholly novel and there was no machinery in existence for working it. An organisation had to be created". (7)

The thoughts behind this innovation are expressed in a booklet "Reconstruction Problems, 27; Officers' Guide to Civil Careers" of 1919:

"In almost every industry we are today, as it were, 'starting afresh'. Never were there better opportunities for research, for ideas, for technical developments, for enterprise. The war has opened the eyes of the country to the fact that in many industries we allowed foreign competitors to outstrip us by our too persistent adherence to conservative methods... there are grounds for hope that we are starting on a new era... training indeed, is the passport to success... the day has passed when we can be content to fall back complacently of the phrase about "England muddling through". The war has made us realise that "muddling" is an expensive progress, especially when it comes into competition with scientific preparation". (8)

The booklet went on to outline various careers, journalism included, and the Institute of Journalists assembled a group to debate the issue of "Journalism and the Universities" at a special conference in December, 1918.

The former Oxford don, editor of the Fortnightly Review and staff writer on the Daily Telegraph, W.L. Courtney (1850-1928), and a member of the Institute of Journalists Committee on University Courses for Journalists, took the chair of the University's Journalism Committee in the absence of the chairman, Lord Burnham (formerly the Hon. Harry Lawson, who had succeeded to the title). The Director of the School of Journalism at Columbia University, New York, Professor J.W. Cunliffe, with two other Americans, contributed to the debate by outlining the syllabus at Columbia and advised the London journalists to "first catch your millionaire," because that was the way his department had begun - sponsored by Joseph Pulitzer, the newspaper

proprietor.

William Hill was on hand to remind the meeting of his experiences, teaching schoolboys at the City of London School, several years earlier. Distinguished journalists like Sir Edward Cook, Sir Sidney Low, Sir Edmund Robbins, as well as Miss M.F. Billington of the Daily Telegraph, were in attendance. Numerous others, like Arnold Bennett, Lord Bryce, J.L. Garvin, J. Alfred Spender and Professor Spencer Wilkinson wrote in support of the idea of university education for journalism.

The conference agreed that the Diploma course would be two years study in any four of the seven branches of knowledge then on offer at the university: history, political science, economics, natural science-biological, natural science-physico-chemical, modern languages and English literature (see Appendix Xa). The object was to offer students a wide range of subjects in each branch of knowledge and even encourage those taking modern languages and sciences to familiarise themselves with two languages and two sciences instead of one. As appropriate courses of study were already provided by various colleges in their curricula for intermediate, final pass, and honours students of the University, then the Diploma for Journalism students needed no special provision. However, it was proposed, at the Conference of Representatives of the University (of London) with Representatives of the Institute of Journalists, of the Appointments Branch of the Ministry of Labour and of the Board of Education in December 1918; that supplementary

courses might be offered in the following: (9)

- (a) under the natural sciences: general history of scientific principles;
- (b) with English literature: general criticism, composition and the history of journalism;
- (c) with modern languages: the addition of courses in conversation and composition. (10)

With up to nineteen hours a week devoted to lectures - including time spent in the laboratories in the natural sciences - there was little time for students to "devote themselves in the intervals of the course to such experimental practice of journalism" as they might elect "without prejudice to the pursuit of their academic studies."

We have now seen it was the groundwork prepared by the Institute of Journalists which underpinned this first university-based course in journalism. It was not until Mr. Mansfield's letter of May 6, 1919, that the National Union of Journalists was admitted into membership of the Journalism Committee of the University of London. This, in itself, is an interesting development considering the evolution of the N.U.J. in 1907 when discussions in The Clarion had been critical of the Institute of Journalists for its lack of progress on pay and conditions and its over-emphasis on education, status and professionalism. Mr Mansfield went on to state that the N.U.J. already had between "70 or 80 of our ex-service members unemployed... and the question of entry into an already over-crowded profession... is at this moment engaging the attention of our executive." (11)

But it was not only the N.U.J. which objected to the proposed syllabus: one prospective candidate for membership of the course wrote to the Institute of Journalists Journal to announce his disappointment with the course which "instead of being a course in journalism is one in Arts and Science. Useful in perfecting one's general Knowledge, but hopelessly out of place to a student of journalism". (12) The correspondent contrasted the London University of scheme with the titles from the University of Missouri School of Journalism, in the U.S.A., prospectus: 1. Newspaper make-up. 2. Comparative journalism. 3. Newspaper direction. 4. Editorial policy and writing. 5. News gathering and editing. 6. Principles of advertising. 7. The county newspaper. 8. Agricultural journalism. 9. Advanced news writing. 10. Feature writing and illustration. 11. Rural Newspaper management. A member of the London University Journalism Committee admitted that he could not disagree with these criticisms adding that such a course as then existed at London University could never be a substitute "for practical training in the real work of journalism". (13)

In their search for status for their profession the members of the Institute of Journalists sought the respectability accruing from academic accreditation without foreseeing the possible consequences of their initiative. By submitting to the University's insistence on the purely academic approach to their problem, with no department to organise the teaching, the journalists perpetrated a basic, craven, mistake from which the Diploma never really recovered. Trying to recover this lost ground took the

Journalism Committee fifteen years and the practical innovation of Clarke's period as Director of Practical Journalism, between 1935 and 1939, has usually been overshadowed, in the minds of journalists, by this earlier reputation.

The lack of a departmental structure for the Journalism Diploma reduced its authority within the University of London and this can be attributed as the most serious basic mistake in attempting university education for journalism. That the money was there to fund such a department - at least in its early years - is beyond doubt. But the idea that this Diploma was just a temporary measure for returning ex-servicemen could also have been a contributing factor. With no Department, and with no guiding light to steer it, the Diploma was doomed, in University terms. Apart from listing those who were awarded the Diploma constituent College Year Books (or annual reports) make no mention of the course.

7.a. The Opening of the Course

The University of London Diploma for Journalism was inaugurated in the University building, then in South Kensington, with a lecture on "The Art of Parody" given by the editor of Punch, Sir Owen Seaman. As over 100 students were reported as attending we can assume that all 102 students were in attendance, even though the Board of Education had only welcomed the training of between twenty

and thirty men and considered such numbers excessive. Board officials expressed the view that the educational standard of many of the applicants was poor and that they would not be up to taking an ordinary degree. (14)

The University saw this scheme as an "extension of university teaching" and, as such, able to recruit onto it non-matriculated persons: those who had not passed Matriculation, regarded as the university entrance qualifying examination. Many entered university education this way who, otherwise would not have received a university education and this could have been one reason for the five-fold increase in anticipated enrolments. Students themselves described how quite a number were using the course to fill in time while waiting for proposals of marriage, or were "eternal" students who had got a degree and could not bear to leave the academic world. (15) On this last point it has to be noted that a special dispensation allowed graduates (until 1937) to sit for the Diploma after one year, which three did in July, 1920 and one of two who passed was Miss Muriel Jaeger.

In those early days of the course there appeared to be no one person responsible for the journalistic endeavours that might fill "intervals in the course" but someone on the Journalism Committee reported that the Speaker of the House of Commons had generously agreed to admit journalism students to debates. (16)

Various reports mention the publication New Journalist,

subsidised by the Secretary of the Institute of Journalism, Herbert Cornish, but these do not mention it beyond 1920. (17) The first Report of the Journalism Committee also mentions the fact that Miss C. Spurgeon was allocated £30 for ten lectures on "The Art of Writing" and Mr. Thomas Secombe £120 for 24 lectures at East London College on the "History of Journalism". There were four other colleges accepting students for the Journalism Diploma: Bedford, King's, London School of Economics and University, and each appointed a tutor for journalism students and, by meeting three times each term to "ensure that all students devote an approximately uniform amount of time each week to their course of training". (18)

In the first two years, 1919-21, the journalism side of the course consisted of quarterly lectures from shining stars of contemporary journalism: Sir Philip Gibbs, Sir Robert Donald, J.L. Garvin and Hartley Withers (editor of The Economist). After 1920 second-year Journalism students received more practical instruction with the introduction of a course of lectures entitled "The General Principles of Writing for the Press" give by Mr. E.G. Hawke, M.A., of The Spectator and Daily Telegraph for which he received £120 during the academic year 1921/22. He also received a similar sum for lectures on the history of journalism, even though an earlier minute had noted that these lectures were to be deleted on economy grounds. (19) To make up for the lack of practical instruction Mr. Fred Miller, M.A., then Assistant Editor of the Daily Telegraph (although some memoirs say he was titular editor as well), gave freely of his time teaching

methods of reporting public functions.

This practical reporting must have been in stark contrast to Sir Philip Gibbs' comments about the work of a Special Correspondent needing

"the ordinary knowledge and make-up of a gentleman, graced with an easy way with people of his own class yet able to speak to peasants, thieves, politicians, murderers, statesmen and Kings, crowned with an ability 'to write' at any old time' and 'in any old place.'" (20)

Another element was introduced under Dr. J.A. Strahan, author of a book on Press Law, who received £40 for lectures on "Law for Journalists," while the Journalism Committee appointed a sub-committee to consider the opportunities for practical journalism experience and how students could obtain this experience "both before or during the attendance at the Course". (21)

Sir Sidney Lee, who been appointed the course director, and chairman of the Journalism Committee, resigned and his place as chairman was taken by Mr. Valentine Knapp (1860 - 1935) a former editor of the Surrey Comet and President of the Newspaper Society. With his arrival the committee passed a resolution that Practical Journalism lectures become part of the course with attendance at lectures being compulsory. The post of course director lapsed.

The files of the Board of Education for this period contain an interesting note regarding the excessive numbers

on the course:

"If, in fact, Sir Sidney Lee is recommending unsuitable students for this course, it is surely for the University Committee of which (he) is chairman, to take some action in the matter." (22)

Estimates of the number of students attending between 1919 and 1921 vary between 102 and 109 and, in the latter year, only twenty-nine actually gained their diplomas, of whom four were women students, with 2 women and 15 men referred. The Committee were surprised by the numbers of Ex-Servicemen failing and the Institute of Journalists persuaded the Government to provide training grants so that a few of them could gain some practical experience on newspapers. (23)

7.b. The First Graduates

One of those graduating in the summer of 1921 was Norman Robson, who became a reporter on the Norfolk Chronicle in Norwich, moving on within a year to work for the Starmer Group of newspapers.

Progressing from chief reporter to chief sub-editor Robson entered the Parliamentary Lobby in 1929 as the Group's Political Correspondent and lectured to the course, in 1938, when the Group was reformed under Westminster Press Provincial Newspapers Ltd. Trevor Allen and C.E. Phillips both got jobs on the Westminster Gazette, while R.R.C. Jameson went onto the Associated Press. Among the others

Ernest Betts eventually become film critic of the Evening Standard before going to the News Chronicle as a columnist. Succeeding generations of graduates from the course also managed to gain entry to both provincial and national newspapers in increasing numbers except for the depression years of the early Thirties.

7.c. Widening Newspaper Co-operation

The Journalism Committee itself was strengthened by gaining representatives from the group representing provincial newspaper managements, the Newspaper Society, which Mr. Knapp had helped re-organise into the only national newspaper organisation in the country while he was president.

During that same year, 1922/23, East London College, a former technical college, now Queen Mary College, announced its intention of withdrawing from the Diploma, possibly reflecting the drop in ex-Servicemen once the Government stopped providing scholarships, and the estimates show a sharp drop from the £2,542 of 1919/20 to £1,470 in 1919/23. Student numbers were also greatly reduced: only 57 compared to the previous year's 89 and the opening year's 102. With the complete stoppage of Government grants in 1923/24 something had to be done to attract fee-paying students, or to raise money to subsidise them on the course. By 1st July 1924 the Committee could report donations of £1,100 towards Exhibitions with £200 each from the Norfolk News Company - one of the first to take graduates of the course - the Surrey Newspapers Association, Sir Roderick Jones of Reuters, and

Colonel Sir Joseph Reed of the Newcastle Chronicle. The Press Association and Exchange Telegraph each donated £50 while Mr Fred Miller of the Daily Telegraph contributed £100 for an Exhibition tenable for two years. Between 1922 and 1932 Mr Knapp was credited with raising over £6,000 for the course. (24)

In 1925 £200 each was subscribed by Sir Edward Hulton, the Liverpool Post & Echo, United Newspapers, the National Union of Journalists and the Yorkshire Newspaper Society while the Lancashire Daily Post, the Bolton Evening News and the Northern Daily Telegraph gave £50 each. That year the Committee also announced the intention of adding a practical test to the Diploma examinations and the journalists who gave occasional lectures were allowed to claim travelling expenses. (25)

For the academic session 1924/25 there were 74 students in both years: 47 first year and 26 in the second and 43 were women. Nearly a third were from overseas: one each from China, South Africa, Sweden and Switzerland, four from India, six from the U.S.A. and seven from Russia. During the year John Buchan lectured on "Style and Literature" and the first examiners were appointed for the Practical Journalism papers. Compared with the original proposed course numbers - of 20 students - this number was excessive, as the practical journalism lecturer often pointed out. The numbers of foreign students, as well as women in large numbers, took the course away from its intended purpose of educating

journalists for the British Press and possibly reflects the academic view of the course as a useful general education course which might prove useful to people hoping to become journalists.

The following year 29 students entered for the final Diploma examinations of whom 15 - six women and nine men - were awarded the Diploma. In 1927, 37 entered and 28 Diplomas were awarded, with women outnumbering the men, 18 to 10. that year 25 first-year students entered for one subject and 14 passed, repeating 1926's experiment when 40 first-years entered for one subject, with 27 passing.

7.d. More Graduates in Newspapers

In the summer of 1928 the Committee could report that of the ten men winning the Diploma in 1927:

"J.L. Garbutt is on the Hull Daily Mail,
E.R.C. Lintott is on the Daily Mirror,
G.E. Powell is on the Bristol Daily Press,
A.R. Prince is on a technical paper (Power Laundry until 1976)
M.A. Stephens is on the Eastbourne Chronicle.
B.B. Wickstead is on the Brentford and Chriswick Times,
W. Elwood is on the North Cheshire Herald,
J. Lang is in Poland,
P.M. Fowler is on a London Trade paper,
There is no record of Mr. Khoo". (26)

When Mr Knapp prepared a paper in 1933 on "Short Histories of Journalism Students" five out of the eighteen women graduates for 1927 were also listed as being in journalism.

7.e. Criticisms of the Course

Criticisms about the lack of practical journalism had started even before the course itself was under way, and these continued unabated. To try and see their way through this problem the Journalism Committee appointed a sub-committee to examine the whole question and, as a result, a course of practical lectures was introduced for first-year students. These were in addition to Mr E.G. Hawke's second-year practical session and Mr F.J. Mansfield was appointed in 1925. Additionally, a practical journalism paper was set for the examination in 1926, initially as an option, but mandatory after 1927. At the same time optional vacation attachments were introduced, so that students could work as members of newspaper staffs, carrying out duties under experienced journalists.

In the late 30's these sessions of practical journalism included one hour's practice work, with newspaper proprietors supplying parcels of newspapers for use in the classroom. This also enabled more time to be given to criticism of students' practical journalism efforts.

In the academic year 1926/27 a special week of practical work was introduced during which students did news reports of various contemporary events of their own selection, wrote "leaderettes" and criticism of drama, music, literary and artistic events and wrote pen-portraits as well as news gathering and sub-editing. One of the practical tests introduced involved producing, within an allotted time,

news of one paragraph length on a current topic plus "leaderettes" on topics suggested by the acting sub-editors. They also had to "make up" newspapers pages and students were appointed as reporters, interviewers, sub-editors, proof-readers and editors. Once this was over then students had the opportunity of seeing their own work in print for the first time when the first issue of the L.U.J.S. Gazette was published, in June 1927, by Mr Valentine Knapp, printed by students at the London School of Printing, on paper provided by Mr Knapp. This featured the Principal of King's College, Dr Ernest Barker's views on secondary education, as given in the report of the Consultative Committee of the Ministry of Education of which he was chairman. The purchase of 13 acres from the Duke of Bedford was also noted: this provides the existing site of the University in Bloomsbury. Other items covered a lecture given to the London University Journalists Union by Mr Herbert Jeans, chief editor of Reuters' in which he stressed that the first essential for journalism was a thorough knowledge of the English language allied to good general knowledge with a good working knowledge of French, German, and a little Italian also proving valuable. That was the news coverage on the front page of the four page paper. Inside pages included leaders, book reviews, gossip column, theatre notes, "The Musical World", "Sports Gossip", "Filmland" notes and "Hints".

7.f. Lord Jacobson's Memories

In 1929 another ten men gained Diplomas and the Journalism Committee report in the University of London

Senate Minutes for 1929/30 shows they were successful in gaining a foothold in journalism, with five going to provincial papers (daily, weekly, and evening), one each to Reuters and a national paper and one onto a film weekly. One went to Oxford University, leaving one unaccounted for. The man going onto a national, the Daily Sketch, was Sidney Jacobson, now Lord Jacobson, while Maurice Lovell went to Reuters.

Looking back on the course Lord Jacobson recalls:

"Journalism was taught by F.J. Mansfield of The Times, who had written some useful books on newspaper work. He covered subbing, reporting, proof-reading, newspaper organisation and practice, etc. set practical work and encouraged us to produce a publication of our own once a term. There was an advisory committee from the industry, headed by Mr Valentine Knapp who took his duties seriously and was unfailingly courteous and kind. He helped us to get temporary jobs on country weeklies in the long vacation (and) the day after our diploma examinations, I landed a job on the Daily Sketch, mainly due to Mr. Knapp." (27)

The students newspaper mentioned by Lord Jacobson was the L.U.J.S.Gazette, published three times a year, produced under the control of Mr Knapp.

However Lord Jacobson's memory is at fault when detailing the books written by F.J.Mansfield - the first of these was not published until 1931, the second in 1935 - as being available during the course in his year. He could not have read these books on the course and most likely is confusing them with Mansfield's lecture notes, delivered from his appointment in 1925, as part-time lecturer and

examiner in practical journalism at the University of London.

Placements during summer vacations, spent on provincial newspaper, were taken over by Mr. E. W. Davies, Secretary of the Newspaper Society, for which he was paid an honararium of £25, equal to the payment to Mansfield for supervising three editions of the Gazette.

7.g. Mr. Valentine Knapp as Honorary Director

As honorary Director of the journalism course, after Sir Sidney Lee's resignation from the post of full-time Director, Mr Knapp had taken the responsiblity of fund-raising from newspaper interests and worked hard at gaining their co-operation on vacation attachments as well as seeking permanent places for those gaining their diplomas. With the collegiate stucture of the University it was difficult for the Journalism Committee to press its recommendations to completion as they had first to pass the hurdle of the Collegiate Council, representing members Colleges of the University, before they could be submitted to the Univerity Senate. So, as early as 1929, the Committee was recommending that "Journalism students should be registered at King's College" (28) which reflected the facts of student registration that year when 43 were at King's, 25 at University College, 10 at the London School of Economics and 5 at Bedford College. The College Tutors for Journalism Students received an extra £25 each for their efforts.

However, the Collegiate Council at the University

wished to preserve the Intercollegiate basis of the course and was prepared to limit registration of students to two centres: King's and University Colleges, and it called on these two to confer and report back. Meanwhile the Senate announced that the L.S.E. was withdrawing from the scheme in 1930/31 (29) and Bedford College finally withdrew at the end of 1935/36. (30)

7.h. Students Demands for More Practical Journalism

Students were just as vocal in their demands for more practical instruction, considering their numbers were back up to 112 in 1930/31, and increasing in subsequent years to 113, then 115 and 119 in 1935/36. Students even went so far as to offer to pay for the extra costs involved in producing a twelve-page, instead of the usual eight-page, L.U.J.S. Gazette, otherwise:

"a large proportion would be unable to have any contribution provided (because) the total number of students will be so large." (31)

Two professors, A.W. Reed of King's and C.J.Sissons of University College, submitted a report about the course to the Collegiate Council recommending their two colleges as centres for the journalism course but with extra practical journalism teaching. Mr E.G. Hawke had 72 in his first-year Tuesday class and Mr Mansfield 39 in his second-year Tuesday class. Later that year the Provost of University College wrote to the Council, after he had held talks with the

Principal's of both Bedford and Kings, suggesting the three colleges continue making their own arrangements about tutors and control of admission of students and arrange for the non-practical elements of the syllabus, as was the custom, but that King's should take over from the University the entire control and responsibility of the practical courses, including the Gazette.

The Journalism Committee's response to this was to resolve that the ultimate direction of the practical courses should remain in their own hands. Notwithstanding their objections the Collegiate Council considered the Provost of University College's proposal as the one to follow and recommended it should operate from the 1931/32 session.(32) It was pointed out to the Journalism Committee that this scheme would not interfere with their work and would, in fact simplify existing arrangement and cut out an unnecessary duplication of bureaucracy. Essentially it would simplify intercollegiate financial arrangement.

The annual report of the Journalism Committee for 1930/31 simply states that re-organisation in the journalism courses had taken place and that eminent journalists had contributed lectures on special subjects, each followed by an hours practical work. One of those lecturing was the foreign correspondent H.Wickham Steed, former editor of The Times. Other included J.A.H.Catton on "The work of the sports reporter", Leonard Crocombe, editor of London Opinion, and Titbits, on "Work for magazines and periodicals", W.E.Hurst

on "Reporting in the Courts" and T.Cox Meech on "Note and Leader Writing".(33)

A newcomer to the Journalist Committee in 1931 was Mr Tom Clarke, and one of the first things he had to read was Mr E.W. Davies' report on vacation work which declared that students lack of shorthand was a serious handicap not only for their vacation attachments but also for their prospects of permanent employment. (34) Clarke had attended the 1908 meeting of the Institute of Journalists in Manchester when the education of journalists had figured prominently in the conference proceedings, and had given a series of lectures on news editing, in earlier years, to the London students.

7.i. National Union of Journalists Request on External Diploma

One of the first topics to attract Clarke's attention was an application from the secretary of the National Union of Journalists, Mr H.M.Richardson, asking if it was possible for working journalists to obtain the University Diploma for Journalism without attending the course, but studying in their spare time, because they could not afford to leave work for two years. The Journalism Committee re-considered this application in February, 1932, and resolved to apply for an External Diploma for Journalism even though there might be difficulties arising from the requirement that candidates for such an External Diploma had to be Matriculated in the University. Preliminary discussions were held with the

Principal of King's College, which Mr Richardson attended, along with Dr.G.B. Harrison, tutor for King's journalism students.

The N.U.J. wanted the External Diploma to rank with the existing Diploma and to be available to provincial journalists either through attendance at local universities or by means of a correspondence course. In lieu of Matriculation it was proposed that possibly a certificate from an editor stating that the applicant had been engaged on newspaper work for at least six months might be accepted as a qualification for entry. Although Statute 22 of the University did not allow non-matriculated students to sit for External Diplomas such students could enter for a Diploma under the purview of the University Extension and Tutorial Classes Council, but this would not carry equal status with the full-time internal Diploma. (35) To try and resolve the problem a special sub-committee was formed and it met in November, 1932, in the Newspaper Society's Council Room in Fleet Street and it had before it a memorandum from Mr Frederick Peaker, an early supporter of the course. While he strongly desired to see an External Diploma for Journalism established by the University he felt considerable time was wasted on the internal Diploma repairing defects that would not have been there had Matriculation been a condition of entry to the full-time Diploma.

"Nothing is ever gained by cheapening degrees or diplomas... and I do not like to feel that London is offering a soft option" at a time when "Oxford and Cambridge honours graduates were entering the profession in increasing numbers".(36)

The chairman of the Journalism Committee, Mr Knapp, formed another sub-committee with Mr Davies of the Newspaper Society and Mr Richardson of the N.U.J. together with Mr Peaker, who was also on the Committee, but they were unable to take the matter any further and recommended no further action in the matter. (37)

With that out of the way the Journalism Committee then turned to re-examining the journalism curriculum, relating this very specifically to the need to appoint a full-time Director of the Course for Journalism, in the light of the impending resignation of Mr Knapp from the chairmanship of the committee.

With the arrival as Chairman of the Journalism Committee of Colonel G.F. Lawson, of the Daily Telegraph, in October, 1932, there appears to have been a determination to tackle the design of the course afresh.

7. j. Mr Knapps Valedictory Report

Mr Knapp's "Short Histories of Journalism Students" included a twelve-page typescript culled from letters sent to the past Chairman by ex-journalism students.

Although names, and newspapers on which they were working, were deleted from the paper it is possible, by cross-reference to the "Histories," to see that Stanley Ellis (1927-28) was on the Manchester Evening News as sports sub-

editor and writer, after first working on the Lancashire Evening Post between 1928 and 1930. Out of twenty correspondents seven specifically mention Mr Mansfield's lectures on practical journalism held in the second year of the course and four Mr Hawke's first-year practical lectures; these former students were working on papers as different as the Huddersfield Examiner and the London Daily Telegraph and Daily Express.

These comments on the course, from former students, were presented to the Committee when it considered plans for improving the practical side of the course, and pointed to the need for there being someone in authority who would control the practical journalism side. All the former students laid special stress on the practical sessions under Messrs Hawke and Mansfield, calling for further developments along these lines. They also appreciated the way the course, in its general knowledge training, gave them a broader outlook on most matters. One who had gone straight onto the Daily Mirror in August 1927, as a reporter (E.R.C.Lintott) stated that the history course had been the most valuable, although he said he should have paid more attention to the methods of procedure of the governments of foreign countries. Even though employed as a captain writer he still thought that

"a thorough knowledge of the workings of the Reichstag, the French senate and Chamber and the American system of Government would save the journalist from many pitfalls during times when there is a spate of elections of all kinds". (39)

Together with several other former students Mr Lintott

mentioned the value of instruction in the proper use of reference books for journalists and he also suggested that the course should also be expanded to include the work of the art editor and picture make-up.

Another, who said he was trusted with covering county and local councils, police courts and dramatic shows on his local paper, thought the course had been useful because it made him aware of his vast ignorance and had prompted his interest in all manner of things:

"The reading in literature has given me a valuable background for the hundred and one points and allusions that crop up in the course of my work. The study of government has been of considerable practical use". (40)

Although we do not have his dates of attendance on the course it must have been later than the man who wrote that in his day, 1920-21, the quantity of academic material was so great that "absorption prevented apprehension. Learning prevented thinking". Even while they "stood in the rain copying the names from wreaths in cemeteries" former students felt it had been worthwhile and saw the advantages of the "advanced training", making them "better equipped" than other members of staff when it came to "doing special descriptive work, dramatic criticism, and other engagements which require more than mere common sense and a knowledge of shorthand." This was said by a sports editor who added that he could hardly turn the academic side of his university training to account in that sphere. What they all appreciated was "the mental equipment and good general education necessary to the

journalist today", (41). Although some did state that the University must enforce the regulation that all those entering the course must possess knowledge of shorthand.

Others felt that students should work on newspapers before attending the course; one who did, and secured one of the first Exhibitions for Journalism sponsored by the industry in 1924, found the course of the greatest possible educational and cultural value while he thought the emphasis was too much on the more "high brow" literary and academic side of the course at the expense of the more utilitarian subjects. (42)

These thoughts also ran through the minds of others, most of whom had gone straight from school onto the course. Most wanted the two hours a week practical sessions doubled to four, or else students should give up an hour's spare time twice a week to work in the Journalism Room. For others the emphasis on book-reviewing and dramatic criticism was disproportionate, considering how few ever became reviewers or critics, and they wanted more practice in sub-editing using agency copy as well as subbing each other's copy. Not enough practice was given in headline writing in the various styles ranging from popular penny daily style to provincial weekly or picture paper, or even, The Times (Mr Mansfield's own paper). Another suggested that students should produce a weekly newspaper.

Former students also suggested that part of the

practical work might involve students covering events of popular interest, in and out of the University, such as weddings, important speeches and writing up their stories which could be "copy tasted" by their fellow-students and subbed in the Journalism Room, with second year students taking turns to act as chief sub-editors. Others wanted these activities made compulsory with marks being given for the kind of work which would also be a factor in their examinations. A letter in the May edition of the LUJS Gazette that year, 1932, also put the view that

"We are given rather an exalted opinion of our future importance in the journalistic world, surely our training should begin at the bottom of the ladder? Our career, if we are lucky, will begin on a weekly paper, and yet we are trained as if we were going to drop straight into Fleet Street. The work of catering for the... country paper is a specialised art, involving plenty of hard labour" (43)

Yet another mentioned how the average staff journalist often harboured a desire to secure an education 'on the lines of the University course"... One correspondent, as a throwaway line, said that three other leading members of his newspaper, "considered the brightest illustrated weekly in the north" were themselves" all products of King's College."

7.k. Review of Students view on the Course

This report is a significant document in tracing the development of the course in its early years, as it indicates the status of former students within national and provincial newspapers around the country. Students obviously were the

first to feel the absence of a central guiding hand in the administration of the course and wanted this rectified. There were criticisms also of the emphasis on what students saw as irrelevant elements of the course: book-reviewing and other forms of criticism. The call was for more practical journalism, covering events as they happened in the capital city of the Empire, and returning to college for an immediate feedback on their reporting and writing abilities.

At the same time some of the academic elements were essential in the provision of general Knowledge, while others were too "high brow". Possibly this aspect contributed to the students' own views that the course was not fitting them for the jobs they might get: the "exalted opinion of our future importance". (44) This mismatch of career expectations with job availability is another aspect of the problem facing recruits into journalism down to the present day: a lack of relevant career information for intending journalists, outside of practical guides and manuals published by commercial publishers.

As if to reinforce the students criticisms about the lack of shorthand Mr E.W. Davies of the Newspaper Society was quoted in the Committee's annual report for 1933/34 as stating that the great majority of students had not taken steps to make themselves efficient shorthand writers.

7.1. Revised Syllabus

By December, 1933, the sub-committee had considered a revised syllabus and proposed that "one third of the time available should be allotted to Practical Journalism" (JCM Minute 102, 13 December). Dr Harrison saw benefits in the more general education approach with students mixing with those in other departments and colleges, which they would not get if their "lectures were solely intended for the Journalism Diploma" - an attitude he quite soon reversed, as we shall see later. Because the course was unendowed and financed entirely out of students' fees it might prove difficult for one college to support the course, whereas this was possible when it was spread around the other colleges. The general picture is of students receiving special attention in their colleges for the three English papers they had to sit, otherwise they attended University class as appropriate to their needs, i.e. depending on the options they took in the existing, 1933, syllabus. Two of these had to be selected from among English Literature, history, one of six modern languages, economics, philosophy and psychology, or political science. The new syllabus proposed one option from English literature, a modern language, philosophy and psychology and English composition was included as a compulsory subject with principles of criticism, social and economic theories of today, history of the modern world and modern literature, each having one hour a week to composition's half-an-hour a week. This was in Section II which previously had only included one compulsory subject. Practical Journalism was also compulsory in Section I, but it was allocated three hours a week. Under Section II history

of art was later added, with a footnote that students could offer other subjects under this heading if approved by the Committee. Graduates were still allowed to apply and they could omit Section II.

The Committee also considered its sub-committee's proposal "that a Director of the Practical Journalism course was desirable.... full-time at a salary of... £1,000 a year to be provided from an endowment fund... with the status of a Professor of the University". (45)

Subsequently Lord Rothermere, owner of the Daily Mail, was asked to receive to receive a deputation from the Committee, but records indicate he was too busy and delayed it until early in 1934. Records, however, do not reveal whether the meeting took place. Obviously, if any more had been received, this would have been notified in Committee minutes and so the conclusion is that none was forthcoming.

7.m. A Full-Time Director of Practical Journalism

By February, 1935, the Journalism Tutors were also re-examining the syllabus with a brief to "draw up a more detailed syllabus... in view of the undefined nature of some of the subjects" (46). At the same time the heads of colleges attended by journalism students were also asked to "consider the question of the proposed appointment of a Director of the Practical Journalism Course". (47)

It was not until June, 1935, that an informal

conference decided to replace the two, part-time, lecturers in practical journalism with one full-time appointment and Mr Tom Clarke, lately editor of the News Chronicle was invited to accept the post, with the title of Director of Practical Journalism. (48) The King's College Delegacy adopted this recommendation and Mr Tom Clarke duly accepted the invitation. So the Diploma for Journalism in 1935 gained its first full-time Director who had worked his way up through the newspaper industry and who had widened his experience with a stay at Ruskin College, Oxford, and with editorial appointments in Australia, after his early days as Northcliffe's news editor on the Daily Mail (See Appendix XVII)

Throughout that summer Tom Clarke was thinking hard about his future role and in helping him decide how best to tackle the task of being London University's first full-time Director of Practical Journalism, Clarke had no hesitation in writing to American professors of journalism for their advice and assistance. Even though Dr. Harrison had announced there was no intention of aiming for a degree in Journalism when addressing the Institute of journalists, (49) Clarke himself was avidly reading the bulletins of three American Journalism Schools at universities in the mid-western states.

From Rutgers University Clarke received a letter from Kenneth Q. Jennings, assistant professor of journalism, in reply to one he had addressed to Dr Allen Sinclair Will, who

had died, unknown to Clarke, the previous year, 1934. Another professor, Dr Walter Williams, who had himself attended earlier Institute conferences in the 1900's on education for journalism, wrote to Clarke before he died in July, 1935. Clarke clipped his obituary from The Times of July 31, 1935, in which his approach to founding the University of Missouri School of Journalism, was outlined. Clarke pencilled a few marks against these words:

"He took the view that journalism could only be taught effectively by the University in co-operation with the actual newspaper office and he combined both sides of the necessary training... issuing a daily newspaper, Columbia Missourian prepared by the students and printed and published on the premises...(50)

Early in his tenure Clarke picked up these words and turned them into his own credo in the title of a talk he delivered to the Institute of Journalists in 1936. An article published in 1935 also has this title: "Can Journalist be Taught?" and used, as an illustration of its thesis, details of what students on American journalist courses were expected to do:

"...cover news stories like ordinary reporters, handle copy like ordinary sub-editors, and in some cases produce their own newspapers under real rush conditions. They practice the selection of news and the insertion of headlines, and, what is equally important, they are taught something of the work of the commercial, distributing, advertising and other vital departments of a newspaper organisation".
(51)

Clarke's attitude towards his own students exemplified his approach to the subject of teaching journalism when he

threatened to refuse to look at "copy" - the students written reports of events - which was not presented in correct newspaper style: with margins, on one side of the paper (quarto not foolscap). Included under "Newspaper Style" he placed aspects of grammar, spelling, punctuation as well as "best English", echoing Dr. Sinclair Will's belief that a well-conducted school of journalism should be one of the best of all English departments in the training in writing clear, simple, graphic English, "embracing the judicious use of the right word in the right place". (52)

Clarke committed his thoughts (about the value of his future position in King's College) on the back of ten pages of lecture notes. (53) In his eyes education for journalism was a public service, and improvement in intellectual qualifications, as well as professional fitness, was of as much value to the public as it was to newspapers:

"There is now a definite upwards tendency due to the broadening intelligence of the public... academic standards cannot be debased (because) the press generally must be committed to the spread of higher intelligence".

One of the books on journalism education that Clarke admired was the American Allen Sinclair Will's "Education for Newspaper Life" published in 1931 and he turned the usual dictum of newspapermen - about the "best newspaper university is the newspaper itself" - to his own advantage by taking Will's line that 'you can't teach practical journalism by theoretical lectures". (55)

The apparent contradiction involved in teaching practical journalism was resolved, in Clarke's notes, in this way:

"... Journalism... can be taught. The task a news editor gives a reporter can be given in a school of journalism as well as in an office and with more individual attention (because) editors are too busy". (56)

This explains Clarke's insistence on getting the atmosphere of the newspaper into the classroom by having the news agencies installed in the Journalism Room at Kings' College, with bulletin board, reporters' desks and typewriters. He was adamant that students must do the real things they would do as reporters and get away from the concept of "playing at it." His was not a course to merely study journalism, but one where you did it. "Not how to. But do it." (57) So the first year's instruction in practical journalism would be nearly all reporting work and he estimated he would need at least two, if not three, hours consecutively with the students each week. However just as Professor Will had wanted two full consecutive days each week (but only got two afternoons) for his practical newspaper sessions in his American School of Journalism so Clarke had to make do with two hours each week. This expanded with the appointment of his assistant, in 1937, who also arranged voluntary assignments.

To illustrate why Clarke considered Will's textbook the best one for journalism, a few extracts follow:

"Reporting and newspaper work in general... mean the acquirement of facility in trained thinking and writing in a great variety of ways to suit the special needs of newspapers. (They mean) the attainment of good style in writing different kinds of news in the only way in which the style can be attained - by practice in writing actual items, perceived in the making, winnowed out of a mass of useless details, visualised with professional scope, order and accuracy before the reporter takes his seat at the typewriter." (58)

"Newspaper work is trained thought. It is thought that makes a reporter and it is thought that makes an editor... If newspaper practice is carried out under the direction of thoroughly experienced newspapermen serving as teachers, it is equal in cultural value - that is, real educational value embracing the widening knowledge and the unfolding of innate capacity - to the most cultural courses taught in colleges. Only in a minor, a relatively inconsequential sense, is it methodistic, routine, mechanical or what is termed technical in academic circles. If the teaching is of the right kind, originality must be the chief aim, but the originality must be adapted to the purpose of the newspaper." (59)

7.n. Dr. Harrison on "The Universities and Journalism"

Clarke must have felt some trepidation as he prepared to enter the academic world on a permanent basis for, as Dr. Harrison said in his address to the Institute of Journalists annual conference in London in 1935,

"the unkindest criticism that one academic can make of another's books is that it is journalism." (60)

As he went on to point out, the Press was not always kind to academics either, representing them as "peculiar" in their habits and "cranky in their views". The bright, young

reporter was someone of whom, Harrison said, many academics were suspicious because,

"like a magpie, he hopes to pickup some glittering fragment to line his own nest"

While he was on the subject, Harrison said:

"...Why O why, must our women students always be labelled pretty girl students?"

The ideal Harrison preached was one which saw journalism as a serving profession because:

"journalists in the modern world provide one of the necessities of life, that is current knowledge of what is being done, thought, written and said around us. It is essential knowledge, especially in democratic times. No human occupation calls for a wider variety of powers of intellect and character" (61)

Yet what amazed laymen was that, although journalism was one of the most important influences in modern life, anybody without any particular education or recognised qualifications, could enter or just as easily be dismissed. "To those outside the profession neither is a happy state". (62)

Even though he could quote examples of inane questions form the staff of great daily newspapers - "did Shakespeare write any prose" was typical - he still felt that "training in general knowledge and intelligence that a University can

.give" was sound and useful, even on such newspapers as he was quoting above. If, however, the Diploma was not giving them more competent recruits, they should say so and the University would do their best to improve it. Dr. Harrison also expressed the opinion that a large proportion of what was called English Literature was also English journalism, just as the history of the press played such an important part in the development of English political freedom. For these reasons Harrison thought it was worth the newspaper industry endowing a chair in the history of the Press. He also ventured that any newspaper doing this would gain enormous prestige over its rivals by putting up capital to found a University chair, or by establishing scholarships to enable children of registered readers to go to the University.

Returning to the revised syllabus proposed by the University he felt it would be more appropriate for journalism students to study the modern world from the French Revolution to the present, rather than the constitutional problems of Tudor Settlement. The same could be said of the course on which H. G. Wells lectured: "Social and Economic Structure of Today." Because the Honours School of English Literature at London University in 1935 did not study English literature beyond 1875 the Journalism Committee had to provide special courses in the literature since 1850. Since the underlying mainspring of the revision of the syllabus was the desire to introduce students to the study of modern world which can reasonably be covered in two years - which in itself was quite an academic achievement for that time - it

needed money to do it properly because "students cost twice as much as they pay in fees" and London University was not well endowed with private funds "unlike the two older universities".

"...herein lies a great opportunity. If the profession of journalism believes in education, and is prepared to put up the necessary capital to endow professors, readers and lecturers to teach, and scholarship for its own chosen candidates, then it could have all it wanted". (63)

Until this was achieved Harrison said the Diploma for Journalism would never receive the priority it needed while it was regarded as something existing staff devoted as "much time as...our honours work" allowed. The inference being that the financial basis of the course was still as precarious, and makeshift, as when it started as "an emergency" after the 1st World War. (64) "with little special attention... given to the students."

Harrison saw the next five years, up to 1939, as a last chance for the Diploma to prove itself, or disappear. He stated that with Clarke's appointment, the course was beginning a five-year experimental period which would either mark a new stage in the development of English journalism or else see the end of Diploma. It would be a new experience for Clarke, and not the least important of the posts he would have held, but he would need incredible patience, for it was easier to move a dead elephant than an academic body, although while it only took the academics three months to re-design the syllabus, it had taken three years before the

Journalism Committee had been in a position to invite Mr Clarke to become Director. In his address to the 1935 conference of the Institute of Journalists Dr Harrison referred to the need of newspaper money to endow the Diploma course allied to capital to provide scholarship "for its own chosen candidates" in the hope that the industry would support "its brighter stars" on the Diploma course. This did, in fact happen to some extent in the last few years of the course, when, on average, about a dozen applicants left jobs in journalism to attend the course, though few, if any, were supported by newspaper finance.(65)

Dr. Harrison also mentioned that some members of the Journalism Committee felt that the existing Diploma should become a post-graduate Diploma making the course a "special training in the rudiments of journalism and a knowledge of the modern world" to those who have already received a degree. This could be justified because a far larger percentage of young people who used to leave school at sixteen or sixteen or eighteen were now spending an extra three years in University training. The result was an increasing number of graduates entering all kinds of new posts and professions.

7.0. Clarke's First Year as Director of Practical Journalism

While Dr. Harrison was telling the Institute there was no desire for a degree in journalism Clarke himself was avidly reading, and marking, the facilities available to the

journalism schools in America at Missouri, Illinois and Ohio States Universities. He corresponded with American professors and, later, met others while on a visit to his daughter who was then married to an American journalist. In place of the printing presses and newsroom of his American counterparts Clarke hoped to get waste-paper baskets, 25 desks for reporters, with typewriter tables and filing cabinets. Eventually the Daily Telegraph gave them one typewriter, which was later stolen. Blackboards would be used for posting diagrams of news pages and notices of lectures but he wanted a "bulletin board" for pinning up newspaper schedules. File racks for current newspapers and a clippings service for reference (using "one girl student on this), plus a library and a "morgue" were also required. (66)

This list is headed by a noted that the equipment must make the classroom look like a newspaper office and there should be a motto "Accuracy. Facts. Report what you see not what you want people to see".

By December, 1935, Clarke was thanking the newspaper industry for their co-operation when he was guest of honour at a luncheon at the Cafe Royal with Colonel Lawson, Sir Leicester Harmsworth and Sir Harry Brittain as his hosts. He thanked people like Henry Martin, editor-in-chief of the Press Association, for sending current news copy for students to work on, as did Reuters' editor-in-chief, Mr Rickatson-Hatt. A plea to Sir Roderick Jones of Reuters, for a teleprinter met with a hearty laugh and a pledge to supply one: it appeared in King's within a week; as the College would not accept liability, Reuters had to pay for the insurance as well.

For the lack of £2,000 a year the course was unable to proceed with "a scheme nearer our ideals" which would enable them to hold up their heads to their American rivals. As it was, Clarke described himself as

"Director, Organiser, Lecturer, Demonstrator, Guide, Philosopher, and (I hope) Friend, to 124 students. It really is more than a one-man job".(67)

Clarke soon discovered that students from University College did not wish to attend the practical journalism sessions because they had not entered the course with the intention of becoming journalists. Hence his remarks that University College authorities had not shown any disposition to consult him about the "suitablility for the practical course of the

students they had enrolled. His request to University College tutors for reports on their students academic work "had been, to say the least overlooked". (68)

These experiences spurred his efforts towards arranging for the course to be centralised in King's. This way control of admissions, and proper selection of students, under a single and definite policy would make for simpler tasks for lecturers and students. The lecturer's because he would be relieved of making special arrangements for University College students caused by their differing term dates, clash of lectures etc. Students' life would be easier centred in one college, able to look at the Journalism Bulletin Board daily for details of extra assignments which University College students missed by not being where the Journalism Room was situated, in King's College. Another problem was the sheer weight of numbers of students on the Practical Journalism courses. On top of that:

"the deplorable English of quite a number should have been an immediate disqualification for a course in which the power of expression in simple English is essential."

7.p. Plans to Re-Organise the Course at King's College

Clarke and Harrison prepared a draft memorandum on how the course should be re-organised once in King's. There should be a Director of Academic Studies with the same responsibilities as the existing tutor for journalism students, and they also proposed a committee of all teachers meeting at least twice a term to consider the work of the students. Trying to run the existing Diploma, which had no

department and no-one responsible for overseeing the co-ordination of academic instruction given by the different lecturers, was the root cause of many of the problems associated with the course, ranging from initial selection to isolation of some students from the ethos of the Journalist Room. To counteract the "deplorable English," tutorial sessions once a fortnight were proposed: this would raise the number of hours the lecturer spent with students from four to fifteen hours a week, so, obviously, another member of staff would be required. Another proposal to relieve the work load on Clarke was the appointment of a part-time assistant, plus a secretary assistant. The memorandum saw the latter as being a woman with journalistic experience who could assist the Director of Practical Journalism with the lectures, 'copy' marking and preparation, organise vacation work and run an embryo employment bureau as well as acting as registrar and secretary to both Directors.

Allied to the increase in staff was the need for more accommodation to house demonstration and lecture rooms with all the equipment, from typewriters to telephones, needed to provide a proper working environment for prospective journalists: from reference books to cuttings files, news agency teleprinters to reporters' desks. In the future, some kind of printing room would be desirable.

Harrison felt that a department which was not controlled could not be efficient and he, too, complained of being unable to get any report showing the progress of his

students taking a compulsory subject "in a sister College" and in a marginal note he added:

"in a department, the members are constantly in touch with the head of the Department.... exchanging notes on their students." (69)

He also supported Clarke's plea for an assistant, saying it was beyond the capacity of man to be solely responsible for the practical work of 120 students. Harrison recommended that no student be admitted unless interviewed by both Clarke and himself and further suggested a new application form be used in which students would have to declare a serious intention to follow the profession of journalism, as well as undertaking to reach proficiency in shorthand before the end of the first academic year. Provision should also be made for students to withdraw if, in the opinion of the College, they were unlikely to make a successful journalist.

The reaction from University College underlined Harrison's assertion that the attitude of other colleges towards journalism students rested on an economic basis: that they brought in fees that were useful, hence, out of 100 students, 50 never intended to become journalists. University College stated it would not save money because there was little possibility of reducing staff numbers to compensate for the losses of students if the course was centralised in King's; University College had not appointed lecturers specially for the journalism students, preferring instead to strengthen the staff of various departments and so no saving could be made there.

Nevertheless, the King's College Delegacy approved the appointment of an Assistant to the Director of Practical Journalism who should be a woman who had herself taken the course and gained some practical experience after it, at a salary of £250 p.a. With this appointment at King's the way was set for the consolidation of the course in King's College. To offset the loss of income to University College, of no longer registering students from the Diploma, the paper on "Social and Economic Structure of Today" would continue to be taught at University with King's College paying three guineas a head to University College for arranging it. An interesting footnote to this debate was provided in an interview with Mr. Geoffrey Pinnington, then editor (70) of the Sunday People (until 1982), who explained that the one time he mentioned having mentioned having been on the journalism course to Mr Hugh Gaitskell said that University College thought very poorly of journalism students and they were glad to be rid of them. This conveniently ignores the fact that University College were responsible for recruiting their own students onto the journalism course.

7.q. The Assistant to the Director of Practical Journalism, 1937-39.

The person appointed as Assistant to the Director of Practical Journalism, Miss Joan Skipsey (now Mrs Galwey), had herself attended the course as a student between 1934 to 1936. In that year she first of all helped Dr. Harrison when

he was editing the Penguin Shakespeare series, before herself taking a job with Allen Lane of Penguin Books (in the official history of the company her name is mistakenly given as "Skipsie.") Miss Skipsey had worked on printing trade and fashion papers for two years prior to joining the course as a student, and worked on the Daily Telegraph before re-joining Clarke as his Assistant.

One advantage arising from the sudden demise of the course when the 2nd World War broke out in 1939 - for this researcher - is that all the papers concerning the course were put into storage, and forgotten. These papers reveal Miss Skipsey's organising ability in arranging a variety of reporting assignments for large numbers throughout the academic year and planning visiting lecturers and paying them the fee of three guineas. She also maintained excellent records of students' progress and assessment of their abilities which proved useful when she wrote to newspapers with lists of Diploma winners seeking employment. Miss Skipsey also prepared press notices of visiting lecturers pronouncements for the two trade papers, Newpaper World and World's Press News. Students often had to write-up these lectures as if for publication. On other assignments Miss Skipsey often undertook the preliminary marking of students' scripts, although internal evidence suggests Clarke accepted those marks as a valid estimate of students' performance.

So it was, at the start of the academic year in October, 1937, that Clarke was able to operate the course nearer to his ideal than had earlier proved possible, with

the immediate prospect of seeing the journalism course centralised in King's College and operating the revised syllabus first mooted in 1935. In effect, he was only to have two years operating the course this way before war intervened - far too short a time to have much effect, but just sufficient to show the way things might have developed had the London University School of Journalism materialised in the form he and Harrison had proposed (See Syllabus at Appendix XV)

7.r. The Beginnings of a London University School of Journalism

In a way it might be said that many of the problems surrounding the course only surfaced when there was the possibility of someone being there who was responsible for observing them. For most of its existence - until 1938 in fact - the course remained the property, so to speak, of inter-collegiate interests whose main concern was to maintain their fee income at the highest level. (71)

The attempt to simplify the syllabus, as instituted in 1935/36, and introduced chiefly with the aim of reducing the large number of optional subjects, had, in fact, led to an increase in the number of compulsory subjects to such an extent that it "had proved beyond the capacity of the majority of the students". (72)

On top of the Practical Journalism taking up to one-third of the students' time they also had to prepare for five other compulsory subjects involving attendance at seven lectures each week; on top of that another two hours a week were needed for the one optional subject chosen. The Syllabus for Courses for 1938-39 shows the compulsory subjects as "Practical Journalism" with two hours a week, English Composition" as one hour week, along with "Principles of Criticism" and "Social and Economic Structure Today" and the paper on "History of the Modern World from 1789". The last compulsory subject, "Modern Literature from 1850" is shown as occupying two hours a week.

Not surprisingly some students in attendance at that time considered it "too academic" (73) and Miss Skipsey herself is of the opinion that the academic and the practical should not co-exist in the same course. (74) Others still regard the time they spent at lectures by Mr Hugh Gaitskell as the highlight of their time on the course. (75) The opportunity to "taste the delights" of the academic richness of London University was something not to be missed, and even those from the early days of the course regarded the lectures available as "the centrepiece" of the Course". (76)

To describe the course as having "supposedly dubious academic credentials" (77) misinterprets the issue. Far from being "early victim of the alleged incompatibility between the academic and the vocational" (78) the history of the course in its last three years illustrates a determination to grapple with this problem and to find a solution to it.

During the 1938/39 session the University Journalism Committee was in the throes of yet another revision of course content and its progress deserves attention, even though it was never to be put into effect.

It would appear that there had been very little attempt to relate the academic side of the course to the requirements of journalism; in fact, former students refer to lecturers "despising the fact that we were journalists" (79) while others found them so irrelevant that "we played cards or chatted." (80) As someone who had been both a student and involved with running the course as Clarks's assistant from 1937 to 1939 Miss Skipsey commented:

"Nobody said, 'Now if you're going to be a journalist you must understand the elements of economics as it is understood today.' Nobody talked like that to us. If I were teaching economics to journalists I would start off by arming myself with a bunch of clippings showing the kinds of story that could only have been written if you'd got some idea of what econonmics is all about. Nobody looked at it that way and I don't think we had any feeling that this really mattered to our success as journalists. And every subject in the academic course should be done that way, for a start."
(81)

Indeed, until 1935 students had attended the same lectures as students on ordinary degree courses offered at the University taking the same subjects. After 1937 all the compulsory subjects had specially-arranged lectures. (82)

With the re-organised course under King's College control there existed a College Journalism Committee, which

met every term, prior to the University Journalism Committee meetings. Dr Harrison's copy of the agenda for the meeting held on 21 January, 1938, gives his detailed thoughts, committed to paper, including the topic:

"the general relation of academic and professional subjects with particular reference to English Composition and History... who is responsible for co-ordinating the instruction between the Practical and the Theoretical?" (83 & 84)

Under "History" Harrison expressed his concern at the lack of personal contact between lecturers and students with no tutorials allowed. The lectures were "frankly unsatisfactory" and he suggested that the "department of journalism have its own history lectures." (85)

Dr Harrison also wanted the university to recognise the validity of journalism students studying "current events and their origins" as part of the course - and this sounds like a refrain from earlier attempts at journalism education. (See Appendix, II item 7). The outcome was yet another sub-committee consisting of Harrison, Gaitskell, Roger Fulford and Professor Williams. They met on October 21, 1938, and issued an amended version for the next full meeting of the King's College Journalism Committee on November 1, 1938.

A view often expressed about the Diploma, by post-war critics, refers to its "dubious academic

credentials" (86) Yet, as we have seen, Diploma students for many years had no special lectures, attending those provided for under-graduates on Honours courses. One result of this subcommittee must have surprised the College lecturers: the Journalism students took as many exam papers for their Diplomas as candidates for full Honours degrees. (87) If anything, the University should be criticised for not being aware of this fact. To criticise the course's "dubious academic credentials" reflects both the ignorance and partisan nature of many such criticisms. The amount of work expected of Diploma students might go some way to explaining why there was a 50 per cent failure rate in Principles of Criticism and Social and Economic Structure papers. In the words of the memorandum:

"It would thus appear that the syllabus is too heavy and needs revising, especially when it is remembered that students in Art take only four subjects for the Intermediate Arts, and three for the General Degree".

Without any attempt being made to co-ordinate the different subjects the "Course leaves much to be desired on the academic side". Harrison also suggested they should

"devise an academic course which should meet the needs of journalists, and at the same time avoid the very real danger of the Course becoming solely a Technical School for Reporters".

While stating that it was undesirable to reduce the syllabus to mere "popular knowledge" Harrison felt it must provide

students

"with an intellectual equipment especially designed for their needs, and different in degree, kind and quality from that considered suitable for students for a B.A.degree".

As the Diploma was the only course for journalism available at any British University - and it was partly financed by newspapers - the expressed requirements of the newspapermen should be met so that the academic side would

- "(a) Stimulate intellectual curiosity
- (b) give such knowledge of the modern world as will equip students to understand, to report and to comment intelligently on current events of all kinds.
- (c) indicate the methods of approach in certain branches of modern knowledge.

To meet these requirements Harrison proposed the following syllabus: (see also Appendix XV)

"Section I Practical Journalism and English Composition (3 papers)

Section II The Modern World

- (a) Current events and their origins (1 paper)
- (b) Social and Economic Structure Today (1 paper)
- (c) Discoveries, Ideas and Thinkers who have influenced modern thought - (eg Darwin, Marx, Freud, Frazer, Lenin; Hitler (1 paper)
- (d) Literature and Drama (mainly English) 1850-1938, but particularly since 1900.

Section III An optional subject (as at present limited).

This would be studied as part of the Intermediate Arts Course.

The changes were not as great as might appear at first sight, suggested Harrison, with "Principles of Criticism" being "absorbed into Discoveries, Ideas and Thinkers" and the

emphasis in "History of the Modern World" to be laid on "current events, their causes and origins" instead of a course which began with the French Revolution and ended in 1914. Under the new syllabus, "the present situation in Europe is traced backwards". Above all:

"It is essential to the success of the Syllabus that there should be close co-operation in the teaching of all the Subjects in Section III".

This was underlined in the memorandum. Overall, the effect was to reduce the number of examination papers to six.

Attached to the papers for consideration at the 1 November College Journalism Committee meeting was a note provided by Clarke on Dr. Harrison's memorandum in which he stated he was generally in agreement with the proposed alterations for they fitted with his case:

"for bringing the academic side of the Journalism course still more in line with the requirements of the journalist today." (89)

However there was one detail he suggested should be altered, which he felt was outside the scope of his responsibilities, and that was Dr Harrison's proposal to combine English Composition with the Practical Journalism. The Practical Department must concentrate on "writing for the Press" and not just "dressing up reports or arguments in words (i.e. composition)." Clarke stated that what he was concerned with "was a technical matter - writing NEWS" - and while he agreed they must avoid making the course "solely a Technical School for Reporters," the plain fact was "that is what the Practical Department really is-and is meant to be." Clarke wanted to be able to assume that:

"The student coming to take part in our assignments and demonstrations, has acquired elsewhere, or is acquiring, the necessary background of English Composition in its academic aspects, to say nothing of grammar and spelling."

Clarke then expounded how he saw the practical side developing in the future, on the newspaper writing side where the heaviest part of the work was the:

"...Supervision of this "writing for the Press" - the work done in Newspaper style by students sent out on routine jobs at the Law Courts, police courts, exhibitions, county councils, dress shows, literary and social gatherings, speech reporting and so on."
(original emphasis)

So while "thoroughly in agreement in principle" with Dr Harrison's memorandum he would prefer Section I to read: "Practical Journalism (two papers). (91) (see Appendix XV) The committee meeting on 4th November 1938, approved the proposals. (92) Attached to these Minutes is an intriguing letter from Miss Skipsey asking the Secretary of King's College, Mr S.T. Shovelton, to put on the agenda for the 4 November meeting "the question of degrees for Journalism". She added that she had mislaid the form of what Mr Clarke and Dr Harrison "thought appropriate" and, in fact, there is no reference to the subject in the Minutes. (93)

When the College Journalism Committee met next, later in November, 1938, they recommended that "Practical Journalism" remained at two hours a week for first and second

year students but that "English Composition" should have classes of no more than fifteen and that individual students should receive "at least a quarter of an hour of individual instruction each fortnight in the year." (94) On the proposal for "Modern History" the Committee recommended the first year should receive a lecture course of one hour a week on "History of Europe from 1500 to the Present Day" and for the second year an hour a week to be devoted to "Current Events and their Origins since 1915". Both courses were to be conducted by the History Department of King's College but additionally

"arrangements be made for occasional lectures by distinguished visitors".

The Committee also agreed with the proposal for instruction in "Social and Economic Structure" to incorporate "a lecture course of one hour a week with a discussion class".

For the innovatory course entitled "Discoveries, Ideas and Thinkers which have influenced Modern Thought" they proposed a series of public and semi-public lectures without any examinations at the end of the course and specified the content as follows:

"Scientific Discovery in the Natural World	- 10 lectures
Scientific Invention	- 10 lectures
Religious Ideas Today (summer term)	- 5 lectures
Political Theories from 1789 to present time	10 " "
Critical and Artistic Ideas	- 10 lectures
Some Modern Philosophers (summer term)	- 5 lectures

and that for the first year students, lectures on Scientific Discovery in the Natural World and on Critical and Artistic Ideas be arranged."

The Committee noted that "Modern English Literature" would be a lecture course of one hour a week for each year and also noted that the recommendation quoted above replaced "Principles of Criticism" which was "in effect an Honours subject, and as such is unsuitable for Journalism students as a compulsory subject followed by an examination". At the same meeting Mr Clarke submitted a claim for assistance in teaching and the Committee agreed to consider it more fully at a later meeting.

That next meeting, on 20th February, 1939, reported that the new course on "Discoveries, Ideas and Thinkers" would be difficult to arrange in practice - as the Professorial Board of King's felt it would probably be rejected by the Senate because it proposed that no examination should be held on the work of the course". (95) So that experiment, in what might have been assessment of course work, did not meet with approval and was dropped. But the Committee stood by their conviction that "Principles of Criticism" for which students... might have no aptitude" should be made optional. Mr Clarke's request for more staff was not discussed. At that meeting the Committee had a letter from Mr Gaitskell saying he had handed over his work to another colleague and commending one student in particular, Mr R.H. Stephens who was "quite exceptional and shows a remarkable desire for knowledge". (In 1982 he was Diplomatic Correspondent of The Observer)

While these discussions continued throughout the summer of 1939, some students were already involved in military activity and in March the University Journalism Committee considered an application from Mr George Sokolov to be allowed to postpone his entry for The Diploma Examination from 1939 to 1940 because as "a member of the Polish Army he was recalled to Poland in the middle of February". (96) Meanwhile the annual Scholarship examinations were held and two awarded. (97)

Although these two never took up their scholarships it might be interesting to gaze into the crystal ball to see how the course might have developed. Since Clarke's arrival Dr. Harrison had pursued the idea of a separate School of Journalism, either within the University or financed by the newspaper industry. There followed several lengthy letters between Clarke and Harrison on the subject and, obviously, much private discussion. (98)

The first mention by Dr Harrison is in Clarke's very first term at King's and then seeking meetings with influential journalists to draw up "an ideal scheme for the Diploma-syllabus, organisation, equipment - and see how much it would cost." (99) Harrison hoped that "influential Persons in the Newspaper World" would then approach the University with the scheme and say "If you will provide such a Diploma as we wish, we will subscribe £X,000."

Keeping the course at King's would not require a vast endowment, possibly £2,000 a year to endow two Chairs - one for the Director of Practical Journalism and the other for the Director of Academic Studies - and with that, wrote Harrison, "we would do things quite handsomely."

Introducing the idea of a "School of Journalism as a separate unit apart from King's, "would require nearer £10,000 a year. As Harrison said:

"There would be advantages, as well as disadvantages in having a separate School of Journalism, either as an independent School of the University or apart from the University supported and endowed by the Newspaper Makers and the like."

As we have already discovered in this chapter, "the connection with the University means we are subject to tedious and irksome control."

There is no record of Clarke's response to this document. In an undated memorandum entitled "A Suggestion for a School of Journalism in the University of London" Dr Harrison again returns to this theme. Internal evidence suggests it was written about October or November, 1935 or early in 1936, urging a generous endowment Harrison played upon the newspapermen's opinions about student selection for the course. (100) A large endowment would:

"Make those responsible for the School less anxious about numbers and more able to concentrate on securing the best kind of student." (101)

Concern both with numbers and standards had regularly surfaced in the Journalism Committee discussions.

Harrison had gone so far as to designate the building for the School: when Birkbeck College's premises in Bream Buildings, E.C.4 were vacated there would be a site "adjoining Fleet Street". The costs had increased and a page of costs illustrates by now how much: This estimate budgeted for an extra English lecturer as well as the part time lecturers in History and Economics suggested in the earlier proposals. It also included an estimate for buildings and maintenance of between £3000 and £3500. Out of a total proposed annual expenditure of between £7000 and £8470, students' fees (at £36 - £45 per annum) would contribute between £3600 and £4500, leaving between £3400 and £4500 to be found. Harrison expected the University "might reasonably be expected to provide the balance from Government grants at its disposal" if the profession was ready to "contribute £2,000 to £3,000."

These proposals, however, presumed a continuing association with the University because, in demolishing arguments that might be raised against a separate School of Journalism, Harrison saw the academic subjects being properly safeguarded as the governing body would be appointed largely by the Journalism Committee. These subjects would consist of two professional subjects and six academic subjects - the latter being examined by the the University.

A School of Journalism obviously presupposed the existence of quite a large student body although Harrison felt there were more benefits in a "community life lived with 100 fellow students." However Harrison did suggest that a separate, and independent, School would mean "the profession would be able to take the larger share in dictating the policy of the Course." Speaking with years of experience of the problem, he continued:

"So long as the Diploma is controlled by the College authorities who know very little of the needs of Editors, who are a little suspicious of the Press, and who have first to consider the College budget there is bound to be waste of energy and lack of efficiency." (102)

Harrison further suggested that, if his proposal was approved, a definite plan should be drawn up and offered to the University as a "substitute for the present Diploma in Journalism."

The next move for Harrison was to gain the agreement of the Principal of King's to an appeal and he achieved this by April, 1937. His proposals no longer called for two chairs but sought "permanent endowment" of the Directorship of Practical Journalism and for "A Readership in Modern English Literature" to be responsible for the academic studies of the Journalism students. For the former Harrison proposed asking for £25,000 and for the Readership, £20,000 plus another £15,000 for the "erection and endowment....of a suitable library."

Clarke thought that the way it was presented made it appear as though he himself was personally appealing for financial support for his own position. Against the £60,000 figure Clarke had pencilled in "Pulitzer £250,000." Harrison's proposed original idea of "asking Influential Persons.....to endow two chairs, or guarantee £2,000 a year" had become an appeal for £60,000. (103) By 1939 Clarke was writing to the Principal of King's that;

"while I share Dr, Harrison's enthusiasm for improvements in organisation, I do not share his eagerness for immediate and drastic action. We are, in my view, going along very well and tending to settle down on the right lines". (104)

While the relevant papers to which the comment refers are not in the journalism archives of King's College, the developments outlined in the latter half of this chapter illustrate the possible way Dr. Harrison's proposals were heading. He was certainly active on all fronts where the Diploma was concerned, but he was disenchanted with King's College after he was passed over for a professorship (in favour of an Anglo-Saxon expert), which he later achieved at an American university.

But this was in the future, after the start of the Second World War and the dispersal of the University around the country and staff to all quarters of the globe. With this dispersal the Journalism Department papers were pushed into a store room, where they remained, apparently unexamined, until unearthed during this research. While

arguments about university education for journalism ebbed and flowed, after 1945, these papers contributed nothing to the debate. Neither journalists nor academics considered they had anything to learn from this experiment, although it did have its supporters. Clarke wrote to The Times, without any result. By 1945 the course was officially closed. The hundreds of applications from servicemen and women gathered dust while both sides conveniently forgot the experiment.

7.s. The Academic Tutor for Journalism Students at King's College, 1929 - 1939: Dr G.B. Harrison

The author has been fortunate in being able to correspond with Dr Harrison, now living in retirement in New Zealand, and has enjoyed the benefit of his comments on earlier versions of this research. Nothing Dr Harrison has said, in correspondence, has contradicted anything to be found on the files in King's College archives, even though retrospection sometimes lends a rosier glow to events than the documents themselves might suggest, especially regarding the student calibre on the Diploma for Journalism course.

Harrison firmly believes that the "stuffed professors in the University... disapproved of journalism and would gladly have destroyed the course." For good measure he adds that, in his opinion, "...in those days there was a general prejudice against newspapermen." He describes Clarke as a pusher although he doubted if he would have the patience to see the course through to the status as an Independent School of the University.

Although there was no formal test for entry to the Diploma Dr Harrison states that he carefully scrutinised the School Certificates of applicants to check their examination records. He seldom rejected anyone he regarded as "a possible," but he once refused "a woman of 40 or so" on the grounds that her influence might affect the younger students. He estimates that only "40 per cent were seriously interested in Journalism as a profession," the other 60 per cent wanting to be writers or "reviewers." The implications of such an analysis, for the performance of students and their success rate, indicate that, perhaps, the selection was at fault. But it is well to remind ourselves that pre-war universities needed their students, especially in provincial universities like London, possibly more than students needed the university, so limited were student numbers by comparison with the age-group of the population.

Dr Harrison, however, remembers that the "best students were a real joy" and that he could savour, in the fortnightly tutorials in English Composition, the products of what "they had written and we would discuss it."

Yet Dr Harrison states he has a strong dislike for journalists "as a class....I have not yet met one who knows his job" - and here he was speaking with recent experience of interviews conducted during recent visits to England. He remains convinced, however, that some of the best English writing was journalism, as he reaffirmed while writing a

book on the year 1939, called "The Day Before Yesterday." He states:

"The most important matters are to learn to write for his particular public - that does not mean write down to. Good writing, i.e. getting the message across the message across to the person for whom it is meant - is a great art. The real artist delights readers of every kind. A second technique is to be able to write to time and at the right length. A third essential gift is empathy, the ability to feel as the person who made and experienced the event felt. All that is vastly improved by education - of the right kind. So... a journalism course... needs both sides - the development of the right kind of art, and the training of the actual technique of writing to time and for the reader." (107)

As an additional bonus Harrison suggests the interviewer should be taught the "Art of Conversation" in any School of Journalism, and his ideal education for a journalist is included in Appendix XVI. As it was, Dr Harrison's method of teaching English composition was ahead of its time, as can be seen from his scheme for teaching English, where prominence ought to be given to:

"exact description of events, places, persons as often a better way of developing self-expression than the writing of critical essays about poems and short stories which they cannot understand anyway." (108)

But the baronial climate of Fleet Street was not conducive to Schools of Journalism in universities. Press Lords had a sufficiency of supplicants for places and it was cheaper to hire and fire than to invest in schemes which might actually provide products not only ready to follow the accepted

traditions, but change them as well. This the best always did yet their identities remained the property of a self-perpetuating, craft-oriented, network. The benefits of tutorial sessions with people like Dr Harrison were what generations of workers craved for in the Workers' Educational Association, or some, like Clarke, who benefited from a stay at the workers' college, Ruskin College, Oxford. That this was offered, and rejected by Fleet Street proprietors is on record:

"Rothermere and Beaverbrook won't help and Elias's help might be a handicap... meanwhile there is a vicious circle: the university can't do more, or differently, unless subsidised: the Press won't subsidise till the university does more... we ought to be able to touch Rockefeller." (109)

Had the 'touch' been put into effect, there might have been a different ending here.

Chapter Seven

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Chapter Eight

Editorial Attitudes Towards News Reporting Revealed
in Clarke's Lecture Notes.

8. a. Introductory Lectures & First Reporting Assignments

Clarke's draft of his lecture notes shows he determined that, from the start of his teaching at King's College, students would follow current news events and report them, handing in their reports at specified times, to specific lengths. Their copy would be returned with his remarks for their guidance, which would be as good as seeing their work in print. This might explain the demise of the L.U.J.S. Gazette termly newspaper when Clarke was appointed. Students' reporting assignments would be concerned with public, or semi-public, bodies which were important sources of news, most of whose chief executives were known personally to the Director of Practical Journalism at King's College, as files of correspondence in the archives testify.

Clarke also decided that students would be invited to offer their criticisms of fellow-students work. Visiting lecturers would also provide the occasion for students to write a summary of the lecture and prepare it as a news story, with the best report sent to the lecturer (often an editor or special correspondent.) The first three weeks of the course would be introductory sessions followed by a suburban, or provincial, weekly newspaper editor describing his work. The best stories handed in by students covering outside assignments would be read out in subsequent classes.

"Such things as "bus stations; motor coaches; census; hospitals; schools; London County Council; Courts; Chamber of Commerce; street scenes; churches; university news. All in

proper perspective. Write for the general public. Not for the college" (1)

All these were the possibilities Clarke outlined for outside appointments for students to report on.

Earlier Clarke had sought out copies of three American universities Schools of Journalism "announcements" for 1934 and 1935, and he took a leaf from these when he was able to release the news that Sir Leicester Harmsworth had offered an annual Gold Medal for the best all-round student, with £200 of Government stock to endow it in perpetuity. The winner would have his, or her, name inscribed with the date, and the words "Truth is stranger than fiction" were later sunk into the rim, at Sir Leicester's request. Explaining his teaching methods to the Cafe Royal luncheon in December, 1938, Clarke described how he felt that there was only one way of trying to do it, and that was to make the students learn mainly by doing; not telling them so much how things should be done, but making them do them. So his first word to students, on joining the course, was they had now become junior reporters on a newspaper going to press that very night, and that they would learn by doing the things they have to do on a newspaper, and doing them speedily and accurately. Again, still at the same luncheon, Clarke felt strongly that:

"This practical work must have some relation to reality, not only in the matter written, but in its accuracy, condensation, and the speed of its preparation and transmission."

Several of those at the luncheon, people like the Chief Clerk at Bow Street Police Court, Albert Lieck, took four students at a time, twice a week, to do practical reporting of the cases there, but not for publication. Others attended meetings of the London County Council, arranged by Herbert Morrison, and this helped them learn about local government. The Port of London Authority were also very helpful and a former student remembers being taken to the docks and writing a feature on it which he sold to a London evening paper. (3)

After Clarke had been teaching for about a year the opportunity arose to discuss the future of the course with fellow academics in November, 1936. (4) Some problems discussed included the different term dates; for instance, University College students sometimes missed Clarke's first lectures in the term which, "in a progressive course like Practical Journalism... is a handicap." While it may have worked well enough in the past, Clarke put his case forthrightly:

"but we are not dealing with the past, but with the future, and attempting to meet changes which have come about in the newspaper field... and it was recognition of these changes that brought about the revision of the Journalism course... to bring it abreast of modern newspaper requirements. The newspaper profession is still watching us, what we are doing to make the course really efficient and we have still got to get the general body to take us seriously."

The considered opinion of the journalists on the Journalism Committee of London University was that there should be a centralised Journalism Department at one college

and, if that could not be arranged, "setting up in the University of an Independent School of Journalism."

The old journalism which involved "writing short stories, descriptive articles, dramatic criticism or leading articles" Clarke felt was wrong, because it ignored the "going out and digging up news, knowing how to deal with a speech or a police court case." In other words, he was referring to the standards of the old journalism with its leisured pace and readership, centred in the London clubland of Pall Mall, being replaced by the brasher, brighter luminaries of the new journalism - as they were again calling themselves throughout the 1930's.

Clarke's method of teaching, as evidenced in his lecture notes which exist in manuscript and type-written form, allows informed discussion of his technique of imparting journalistic skills to youngsters of university age, and also provides an invaluable insight into editorial attitudes towards news and how it should be reported.

Clarke started as he meant to continue: with newspaper practice as standard, in other words, all 'copy' (paper on which stories were written) had to be one side of the paper only, with student's name in the top right hand side, with regular margins and spacing between lines. Next came notes on how to deal with names, quotations and always putting the time at the end of the story. Accuracy was the first motto and, instead of saying "If in doubt, leave it out" often

quoted as a journalistic adage, Clarke was of the opinion that "If in doubt don't write it until you have found out." His first, 20-minute introductory talk on "What is a Newspaper and What Does It Do?" was the first subject that the aspiring journalism students had to report in 500 words "as if you were writing for a newspaper this afternoon... and hand it in... before you go." (50) The next session was devoted to a critique of their reports, when errors were pointed out. An additional note warned students never to submit stories, obtained on College assignments, to any public publicity concern without Clark's approval. (The author has seen references to a student-run news agency at King's, but no corroborative evidence has been discovered.)

First year students, from 1937 onwards, also had to complete a form listing daily, and local, newspapers read, plus details of shorthand speeds and student's telephone numbers. This was because Clarke wanted them to be telephone-minded because, once they got a newspaper job, they would probably spend half their working lives on the telephone. To give practice in telephone technique the public relations office of the General Post Office installed free demonstration handsets, and gave conducted tours of exchanges and a postal sorting office.

8. b. News - Facts not Fiction

Clarke's introductory lectures, on the highly organised industry which dealt in the commodity called "news",

highlight the function as being that of buying news and selling it to the public. The first year's work was practice in elementary reporting - how to get the news and write it in newspaper style. Reporting was the basis of all journalism, the reporter was the man who collected and wrote the news; and learning where to find it was as important as how it had to be written. There was no point sitting at home indulging in flights of fancy which, probably, nobody would want to read; he had to go out into the world to be able to see and hear things - news - so he had to know how to look, where to look, and where to listen. The reporter differed from the mere writer both in the way he found his material and in the way he wrote it for presentation to the public. The reporter was dealing with "Fact, not Fiction." He disabused students of the notion that practical journalism had anything to do with essay writing. Reporting was quite another matter from writing essays. Indeed, Clarke went so far as to refuse a prize for a "best essay" offered by the Institute of Journalists.

For Clarke part of the process of becoming a reporter involved a close scrutiny of the product of the profession, and so a session of "How a Journalist should read his daily paper" was included for first-year students. He reminded students at the opening of the introductory first year lecture that they had all signed a document when they joined the course stating what national paper they read. This was because he saw one of the first duties of journalists was to keep in close and regular touch with the mainstream news.

"The Big Things," as Clarke described them, that reporters had to keep in touch with because they were his modern history which could only be obtained from newspapers. Because he could be sent out at any moment to talk with people or report meetings he had to be aware of the big news topics of the day. But there was another dimension to this reading: that of selecting ideas to "follow-up" because the reporter who brought in such ideas was the one who progressed. Clarke then made the students provide six such "follow-up" ideas from their newspapers by the end of the lecture.

Clarke's advice to students at his first lectures was to tell them that they had to assume they had become junior reporters on the staff of a daily paper and that he required them to accept the discipline they would have to accept if they had a job on a newspaper. This meant they had to be on time. "You must be on time here, or, (as in a newspaper office) you will be sacked." That succinctly states Clarke's attitude, and it must have sunk home, as the files are full of letters - and telegrams - apologising for absence from lectures.

Unlike the professor of English who would not tell the Diploma students what to write (because no journalist would be told what to write) Clarke on the other hand pointed out that, as reporters, they would often be sent out to report certain things the value of which had been decided, beforehand, by their news editors; whether fires, exhibitions or interviews. Although the news editor made the initial

news value judgement to cover the incident, say a fire, they would still have to assess its newsworthiness, based on its degree of "unusualness" or "human interest", in terms of lives lost or, if a well-known person was among these, it thereby took on a higher news value. The fledgling reporter would also soon learn that, in terms of news values, a fire in a West-End store had more appeal than a fire in a Bermondsey leather factory. But, whatever the incident, the reporter had always to ask himself three questions of any story: "Is it true? Is it important? Is it interesting?"

Clarke warned the students that very often, as young reporters, they would find it hard to answer objectively at least the two last questions:

"You will have umpteen facts and - knowing that lots of other stories are competing with yours for sub-editorial approval - you will bewilder yourself wondering what to put in and what to leave out. Although I stress the need for brevity and terseness in reporting - I would say this to the young reporter in such a quandary:- Of the two evils - writing too little or too much - write too much (and apologise to the sub for doing so, explaining your quandary. Flatter him by telling him you want his advice. He'll curse you outwardly but secretly he'll admire your judgement.")

Reporting speeches caused problems because they were ten times longer than reported and Clarke advised students to watch for topical points, which they would have to prepare for by reading up about their man, and his subject, before they went to the meeting. One further piece of advice to reporters was always to think "yours is THE story of today. Often you'll make it so".

8. c. The Lobby - Parliamentary Reporting

The next, first-year, lecture on January 18, 1938, was given by a former student of the course and member of the Journalism Committee, Norman Robson, then political correspondent for the Westminster Press group of provincial newspapers. Speaking on "The Lobby Journalist and his Job" Robson warned them it was no eight-hour day because the Lobby man for provincial newspapers had to do everything from social paragraphs on deputations and visiting delegations to straight news, comment and "news with an angle." The morning was usually spent seeing people away from the House before attending question time at 2.45 p.m. Then from 3.45 to 5.30 p.m. they were in the Lobby itself and again from 6 to 8 p.m. From then until 10 p.m. it was "Copy and dinner followed by another session in the Lobby until about 11.30 p.m." Quoting Mr. Speaker Lowther's ruling of April 29, 1920, on the subject of what may be published by Lobby journalists, Robson pointed out that it only repeated the tradition of the House which forbade discussion of its Committees until they had been "laid on the table," notice of which appeared in Order Papers available each night at 10.30 p.m. at the Vote Office. To obtain Government papers Lobby Correspondents, in those days, had to co-operate with Departments in securing advance copies. The extension of the Official Secrets Act to cover Lobby journalists was a disgrace because the Act had not been designed for that purpose.

"Patience: trustworthiness: knowledge: short-hand: quickness: tact: decision".

These were the qualities Robson listed as essential for Lobby reporting. Patience because of the tedious hours spent waiting to "catch the man, allied with being a good listener because, after all, Lobby journalists were only human and, as such, "born gossips,"

To betray a confidence given in the Lobby, by an M.P., would render future attendance useless because Lobby journalists had to establish a position of mutual understanding with politicians. Robson's attitude was that the trained journalist needed a fund of "stored-up knowledge": of Parliamentary machinery, political history since 1900, personalities and party manifestoes, the inter-relation of Departmental activities, foreign affairs and trade. Added to these you also need a good reading background in biography and general "wide reading."

Working in the Lobby demanded a good memory not only because of the importance of literal accuracy but also because a notebook was itself a danger. "Good memory was an asset. Shorthand a safeguard." "Quickness was important because the Lobby man had to decide quickly which was the right topic of the moment and "tact" meant not wasting M.P.'s time by trying to tell them their own game. "Decision" was the vital element in knowing "when to use information and HOW to use it... scoops are what are wanted. News more than views. Making stories."

When it came to marking the students' reports of his lecture Robson was concerned that one point had not come across clearly. This was his reference to "angle writing" in news:

"All Lobby Journalists are alike in having to collect the facts. They are all alike in having to present FACTS. Where they differ is the degree of importance they may attach to the same facts. That is what is meant by colour. A meeting about Empire trade might not be considered by some correspondents as of much importance. The (Daily) Express representative would not take that view of it... his report would... be longer." (6)

Robson was also concerned at how few reports were typed, pointing out that in his student days (just after World War 1) students bought their own typewriters. Clarke asked him to bring this up at the Journalist Committee because, coming from a member, it would have more authority behind it.

8. d. Interviewing and Approaching People

The third lecture of the Easter Term, 1938, was on "Interviewing" which Clarke said was misnomer because what editors wanted when they sent someone out to "go and get an interview" was really "go and get a statement from him." He demonstrated this by showing students that, in the "Fire Test" simulation, their reports were built up after a series of interviews with the fire chief, police, survivors, shop-owner, from which they only selected certain statements,

leaving out many things, sometimes their own questions. For what he called the "armchair variety" of interview, then students would need to find out all they could about their victim, by reading reference books to learn about the background, family life, children, hobbies etc. Their line of approach could thus be planned, and not haphazard.

Approaching people for an interview was also dealt with and Clarke was adamant they should never adopt a superior manner to the interviewee and, if they were difficult, either point out delay would only put off the moment of reckoning or so phrase a few questions he could answer, like "Shall I be making a fool of myself if I say this" or "Shall I be wasting my time if I do that." Even obstinate officials had a human side and budding reporters would do well to cultivate them and find out what interested them apart from their work.

8. e. Accuracy: Jargon: Reference Books

The greatest problem for all students seemed to be maintaining accuracy: Clarke himself commented that one year he'd been surprised how many people had lectured the previous week: sixteen, out of nineteen, students wrote the visiting lecturer's name in eleven different ways - when it was actually written and exhibited on the notice board. One had even spelt the name "three different ways in the same report." So he hoped none of them would make jibes about newspaper inaccuracies as they had had a preliminary

experience in the difficulty of being accurate. By drumming in the need for accuracy in reporting Clarke was pointing to his dictum about journalism being tied in very closely to thinking - and accurate thinking at that.

Jargon that might puzzle the beginner was the subject of another lecture on the "Glossary of Newspaper Terms" in which both journalistic and printers' terms were explained. Just as important was "The Newspaper Library and the Use of Reference Books" which began with Clarke stating that no reporter should ever go to see anybody without first finding out all about them, because even the subject's hobbies might raise an issue worth reporting. It was the same for sub-editing - getting things correct. While admonishing students to use them he warned that they soon dated and ideally they should all start their reference books of lists of contacts, addresses and telephone numbers. While admitting that it had taken him years to learn how to use reference books, Clarke and Miss Skipsey set them writing paragraphs based on information taken from reference books - with the added task of giving news reasons for writing about them. So, a Dowager Marchioness was one subject chosen because her daughter, a Crown Princess of Sweden was visiting her; Lord Cecil appeared in the list because he was organising a peace ballot; Gracie Fields because she had recently been awarded an honour.

Out of 30 attempts 12 were labelled 'scanty' by Miss Skipsey, 4 were good and 3 only, very good. 33 students completed this assignment but 24 handed in no work for marking.

8. f. More Reporting Assignments

Good relations with the House of Commons must have persisted throughout the years as 26 students attended a debate on Australia instead of reporting one of Clarke's simulations on March 1, 1938.

The next day G. Pinnington went with four others to cover the Brazilian Ambassador's talk, while others covered a Left Book Club protest. Such activities must have taxed the ingenuity of the budding reporters especially as they had, ringing in their ears, Clarke's remarks about speech reporting, that they should start with an arresting sentence especially where the speaker was not well-known. Alternatively, Clarke suggested a quotation from the speech as being a good starting point and, failing that, a question sentence was always a good way of breaking a dull routine. Just as valuable was always to be ready to grasp any new phrases invented by the speaker: Churchill's "terminological inexactitude" or Eden's "uneasy partnership". Life and reality were what were needed not dull third person past tense where "the speaker continued" or "he then proceeded to say." Shorthand here was essential, more for the ability to catch those rare moments of rhetorical indiscretions than pages of dull reading.

8. g. Vacation Attachments on Provincial Newspapers

Prior to their departure from the College for their first venture (for most) in provincial newspapers Clarke underlined the responsibility of writing for publication, advising them that some newspapers might be nervous of trusting them at first and, if so, they had not to mope around the office. If anyone looked particularly busy, offer to help:

"If you see something which might be reported by you at a certain angle, offer yourself. The editor will probably turn it down; or send someone else, but never mind. You will have made a tactful little dent."

The Easter vacation was usually the first opportunity Diploma students had of gaining experience in provincial newspapers, and this was written into the syllabus, and Clarke read this out in his introductory lecture to these attachments: that they should be prepared to devote part of their vacations to gaining such experience. He advised them to veil any ambitions to be reviewers because local newspapers wanted reporters not book or drama critics. There was advice, too, about the pitfalls of the "superiority complex" that had brought a lot of trouble to the task of getting papers to co-operate over vacation attachments. He admonished students to be primed with the note of the office address and telephone number as well as the name of the editor, local mayor, and the political complexion of the Council. Get to know the history of the district and its leading personalities, was another piece of advice. The

keynote of their behaviour should be that:

"you have come to learn. Don't argue. Make contacts. Don't be a clock-watcher. Be accurate in all you write. Put nothing on paper that you do not know to be true. When in doubt FIND OUT."

Office hours had to be ascertained and adhered to and promptness was a virtue. Know the edition times and days and find out the last time for receiving copy. And he reminded them always to put their names in the top right hand corner and to try and type their copy.

They also had to keep a diary of this period and submit it to Clarke in the first week of the summer term. He told them to persist with any story they were allocated and to take the kicks with a smile if they got it wrong. Or get a colleague in a quiet corner flatter him - or her - and "they'd probably win sympathy with guidance." In this way Clarke prepared students for the realities of provincial newspaper life where everyone had most likely come up the hard way and might well regard University journalists most unfavourably. He also advised students to dress well, but not ostentatiously... the sloppiness of College wear was not suitable for a reporter who might have to go anywhere.

When these students returned to College, the editors' comments, listing occasional weakness as well as regular strengths, were already before the Journalism Committee.

Although Clarke expected most students to find jobs outside London he did prepare them for daily paper work with lectures on newspaper organisation and with the crime reporting simulation mentioned earlier. He advised that, in covering a murder, the short story techniques was permissible because "the chief canon of short story writing was suspense."

8. h. Historical Background of the Press

But it was not just the practical element that attracted Clarke's interests: when it came to newspaper history his enthusiasm for what he described as "a most fascinating and enlightening study" was apparent. Rather than begin with a list of dates and names of long-dead newspapers Clarke started his talk by asking "What were the beginnings of news?" and answers it by starting:

"Moses first reporter, made himself the spokesman unto the people." On Mount Sinai "wrote all the words of the Lord" (shorthand). Tables of stone. Broke notebook... but started reporting tradition of accuracy by bringing back with him his rod of proof".

Nor did he forget his audience, even in King's College with so many women among his band of young, hopeful newspaperwomen of the future. He did not forget to mention Jane Coe's "Perfect Occurences of Parliament and Chief Collections of Letters of Several Victories" of 1644 and Mrs Powell's "Charitable Mercury and Female Intelligence" of 1716.

Rushing across the centuries from Corantes to Courants Clarke saw the turning point of English Journalism as the introduction of the Daily Mail:

"...and the most important thing was the appeal to women as well as men... hither to papers had not considered the existence of women readers".

Clarke's admiration for the founder of the Daily Mail led him to write two books on his days under his tutelage.

Even this historical sketch returns to his favourite theme that:

"from the news-pamphleteers of Elizabethan days to modern times when the Press had become a major British industry... it has been the same - the same getting about of all news and therefore the basis of all journalism".

As if to distance himself, and his students, on the eve of their first vacation attachments in newspaper offices from the academic setting of the lecture room, Clarke continued:

"now you see why men started newspapers - to satisfy human curiosity as to what was going on at home and abroad. Now you see what journalists do - practical journalists... who give the public their newspapers. They do not sit in easy chairs and write what comes into their heads. They go out into the city highways and by-ways, to police courts; to wars; to borough councils and funerals; to political meetings and sermons... to theatre and football match - always out and about, searching, questing in the most competitive profession in the world."

8. i. The Question of Teaching Shorthand

By early in the academic year 1938/39 Clarke had also settled the thorny question of shorthand: Pitman's College, in their Southampton Row annexe, offered a short course before the start of the academic year at one-third the cost of ordinary courses. Lasting six hours a day over three, or four months (with an extra guinea to pay for that extra month on top of £10) this was only suitable for those living in London and so a Correspondence Course was also offered for three guineas (£3.15). A third option was twice-weekly, two-hour evening course just for King's journalism students during the course. All these arrangements involved the Principal of King's, Dr. Halliday, in protracted negotiations and might indicate the extent the College was prepared to go to demonstrate its serious intentions for the continued efficiency of the course.

8. j. News Teams

As students progressed the first and second years combined to produce simulated newspaper operations, with two groups of teams collecting and making-up the news on make-up sheets presented by various London papers, usually the evenings, The Star and the Evening News. There were two of everything, from editors, chief sub-editors, news, foreign, picture editors, to leader writers (one each side) plus two telephonists (to take the stories telephoned in) and two ticker attendants to cope with the teleprinter news agency copy, plus sub-editors and reporters. Often the lists were

shorter, denuded of picture editors and leader writers. The layout of the newspapers was decided in advance so that there might be "big stories - 2" with "3 heads. 1st line of 12 letters, 2nd (Turn) of 16 letters and 3rd (Turn) of 14 letters" with advice about spaces counting as one letter. Occasionally there might be a law court reporter to file legal reports or a sports editor setting up a sports page. Usually the two groups met both Clarke and Skipsey at 10 a.m. to discuss the day with the latter arranging collection of wire service copy (by hand) from British United Press and the Press Association.

Once the operation began Miss Skipsey took notes of the two groups' performance for later analysis. On Thursday, November 3, 1938, Pinnington played the editor of The Star and Joan Veale that of the Evening News editor. By 2 p.m. Miss Skipsey had Pinnington assessed as "excellently organised. Working apparently in co-operation" while of Miss Veale she noted: "Quite unorganised, subs working separately in various corners. She realised her mistake by 2.15 p.m. and centralised the subs on one table. By the close, at 3.15 p.m. The Star was still better organised but Miss Skipsey's comments: "Pinnington rather despairing but working intelligently". (7) This simulation was a small operation with only four editorial staff, one reporter, four sub-editors plus telephonist and Reuters teleprinter attendant. Later versions of the exercise had up to 21 staff and they became increasingly more complex in execution. In this way Clarke provided the element of pressure that students would have to face when working in newspaper offices, but he did it

for pedagogical reasons: to facilitate students learning by providing simulated, first-hand, experience and not leaving it to the pages of books to describe what happens in a newspaper office, as did so many manuals of journalism.

8. k. Language of Headlines, Make-up, Voluntary Assignments

Nothing was too simple for inclusion in Clarke's list of lectures, the mysteries of "Headlines and (content) Bills" were utilised to demonstrate that the journalist "had to think out what the news is you have to say." He talked about the influence of headlines on language and how short words went into them but rarely long ones. Contents Bill used by newspaper sellers', Clarke suggested, should indicate the news, leaving it to the headlines to tell the news.

These second-year students spent another two Thursdays either making-up pages, or reporting on the Port of London Authority. On 17 November, 1938, there were 38 such reports to discuss; G.C. Pinnington, one of six not handing in anything, receiving nought. Eleven were marked five or below and no-one was marked above eight: comments suggest some basic lessons had not been taken to heart: "An amatuerish essay on tusks", or "News buried. Catalogue of disconnected facts" or three who "Bury news in 2nd paragraph. Also 'sediment' and 'medicine' were misspelt."

Miss Skipsey's assignment sheet also include details of "voluntary" assignments students reported: like the Armstice Day celebrations that November or an electric power industry press conference. News agencies and their work was one of Clarke's topics later that Autumn Term, followed by a talk by the Daily Telegraph's advertisement manager, Mr. G.P. Simon. After Mr Simon had discussed the relationship between the editorial and advertising departments of newspapers Clarke had explained the intricacies of Press Association and Reuters teleprinted copy. That concluded lectures for that term and students returned on 12 January, 1939, for the first of two lectures on "Make-up and Typography." Clarke was a firm believer in the need for mental alertness in display and headlines, allied to awareness of the technical and psychological problems involved in presenting news and articles using static type.

Eighteen pages of notes give a good introduction to the subject, backed up with examples of many of the items described - supplied by Colonel Fred Lawson, chairman of the Journalism Committee. In this lecture Clarke keyed in students to the ideas of having to rise to the challenge of the new media; "the radio news and the news reels at the film theatres - and television on the horizon." These meant that journalists could no longer ignore the physical side of presenting ideas, which they had hitherto neglected. Readers consequently wanted material presented with lively mental energy because these "powerful engines of publicity," as

Clarke described them, would attract young people, and it was these the newspapers would have to keep first and foremost in their minds.

"The fundamental change in the Popular Press in this editorial striving for effect in appealing to the public - in the form rather than the matter is:

- 1) Greater legibility and variation of type to express character, tone and light and shade;
- 2) The adoption of a horizontal instead of a vertical make-up. The old single column had practically gone."

"Just as women have become interested in 'make-up' - so have the newspapers" was how he introduced this first lecture. He went on to warn against what he described as "editorial window dressing" but he favoured all those things that helped to "break" the page and give it strength and life. He described the "open" effect as the new hall-mark. (8)

The effect of all this on the journalist himself was

"a new generation of news stylists, who are giving attention to these technical and psychological problems of type in presenting news and articles".

It all added up to the better printing of newspapers (not just the work of the printers, as Northcliffe had earlier specified) and to the growth of mental alertness in both display and headlines. Those who did not believe him had only to compare newspapers with those of twenty years earlier, at the end of the first decade of the twentieth century.

Clarke's attitude to the "complete journalist" was one that showed through in his attitude towards the role of the sub-editor, "No one can be the complete journalist who lacks experience in the subs room."

The true worth of a sub-editor was assessed by the "copy" he treated being fit for publication without any further attention once it left his hands: "in short that it is proof against inaccuracy of fact and against technical blemish". So, before students passed their work to him later that afternoon, in the practical session which followed the lecture, they had to ask themselves:

1. "Is it accurate?
2. Will the compositor be able to read and understand it?
3. Are the headlines right?
4. Is the length right?
5. Is it properly punctuated?
6. Is it clear (who's, who etc.)?"

While most journalists often regarded sub-editing as just critical work Clarke saw it as having a creative side, including re-writing and putting life into dull facts, as well as giving the right "angle" to the story. There was the element of brightness being added by headlines, "crossheads" and breaks, while selection and extending, "adding absent facts," was all part of the creative side of sub-editing. It was also the "subs" job to spot such howlers as:

"A report of a Womens Institute meeting ended: 'The meeting ended with community sinning' or 'Owing to our crowded columns we regret the births and deaths will be postponed till next week' or 'His name is Smith, but he is expected to recover'".

The "subs" was a more judicial, or more critical task. The "sub" did not go out and judge the value of news as he saw, or heard, it happening. He dealt with the mass of written news (of which reporters always sent him more than he could use) and his choice depended on four factors: the amount of space he had in his paper; the policy of his paper; the kind of readers he was catering for, and, finally, balance. The "sub" had to ask himself the same questions of his material as the reporter and then had to try and pick out those happenings, or discussions, which were of the greatest interest to the greatest number of readers. That was the criteria they had to assess while wielding "scissors and paste and Blue Pencil." Clarke felt that their sense of news values had to be an informed one, operating to establish, and retain, the confidence of their readers in their common-sense, fairness and accuracy. Private opinions could not be allowed to warp their objective sense of news values and, whether pleasant or unpleasant, the happenings of phases of life were the reality which surrounded them all and, as such, were the basis of the newspaper's responsibility to keep its readers informed. Describing the vast range of readers, from undergraduates, to nightclub butterflies, station ticket-collectors to Tory stockbrokers in Rolls Royces, Clarke believed that, collectively, their sense of things is pretty accurate, pretty decent, pretty healthy in their wants: "They want to know what's happened - whether they are immediately concerned or not."

8. 1. Attitude Towards The Reader

Clarke reminded students that the public was buying news and did not like to be "lectured or nagged" by the press. As he saw it the public were the real makers and censors of the press with the press reflecting, more than it directed, public opinion. They all had to remind themselves that the public, collectively, was what those in authority had made them, those who were responsible for social legislation:

"If you say the modern Press is cheap and vulgar it represents the cheapness and vulgarity of the Public; and therefore, in the long run, represents the vulgarity and cheapness of our so-called betters who have run the country these last few centuries."

That was one view, but "giving the public what it wants" was too glib a description, for Clarke, of the process whereby events became news. His attitude was that there was always a main news stream that dominated thought and discussion which, in turn, directed public thought and discussion. The journalist could not escape it:

"Your criteria are forced upon you. You have to watch that stream and tell the world its message - that is, unless you are totally bereft of any sense of responsibility".

Speaking in January, 1938, Clarke saw the main news stream as the sickness of the poor world: mainly economic but social and political as well. That was the "Big News" - the news

behind all the other news. It threw up all kinds of topics and "talking points" (Northcliffe's phrase for them) for the journalist to exploit - social, political, economic. Here, however, Clarke saw these as elements of news and not of features and he went on to say that the most difficult thing was knowing how to deal with the rest of the news, "discussion news" he termed it:

"...selection... must be according to the Purpose of you paper, and its idea of what entertainment the public want".

It was this "Purpose and its Interpretation" by the paper that determined, to some extent, how reports were "coloured". This could not be avoided in modern journalism but Clarke did not think that ethical standards had to be lower in newspapers than in other walks of life. Clarke admonished his students (when they next thought of News Values) that journalists were no better, and no worse, than any other body of human beings, trying, on one hand, to earn a living by service and, on the other, to try and leave the world a better place than they found it.

8. m. Review and Summary

In this chapter we have observed how a former editor of a national daily newspaper, of the late 1920's and early 1930's, approached the question of how to teach news values, selection procedures and verification systems which would

squiggles, but as vital for those "rare moments" which shone out from dull passages when carefully recorded. The implication, for the reporter, was that no-one should be a slave to the "old journalism" verbatim reporting of noting down every word - and printing nearly every word, too. For Clarke the psychology of the reporter to the task in hand was just as essential as the other elements of mental equipment: "thinking yours is THE story... often makes it so." Throughout we have noticed the continuing thread of the importance of accuracy, that democratic goddess of factuality, referred to in Chapter Three, Clarke was her High Priest. His former pupils still talk that way.

Clarke's serious approach to the task of teaching journalism in a university was never in doubt. Just as obvious, on the surface, was the willingness of the the university to match that approach on their side, as we shall see when the development of the examination papers is studied in Chapter Nine.

When Government grants for ex-servicemen dried up in the early 1920's, the future of the course must have looked bleak. It was then that the newspaper industry began to provide financial support for students, with Exhibitions offered by the Newspaper Society, several provincial newspaper groups, and the National Union of Journalists, as well as the Institute of Journalists.

Since the course was inter-collegiate, with no department and no staff permanently involved, the fee-income from the journalism students must have been a welcome addition to the university, and college, budgets, as there was no major expenditure on the course with students attending existing lecture courses. So we have observed how the fees received from Diploma for Journalism students were nearly double the amount taken by the School of Librarianship in University College - started in 1919 - which boasted a full-time director, plus five specialist subject lecturers (admittedly one came from the English department.) Obviously the University would have been loathe to lose such fee-income, and encouraged the continued existence of the course.

Without this departmental base within the University the Journalism Committee - part-time, meeting only three times a year - was never in a position to control its own course. Perhaps, then, it is not surprising that the columns of the Institute of Journalists various publications give fewer mentions to the course during the late twenties and early thirties. Even the appointment of a full-time Director of Practical Journalism, in a Department of Journalism within King's College, in 1935, did not lead immediately to an awareness of what had been happening to the journalism students. A course re-organisation prior to Clarke's appointment actually increased, rather than diminished (as had been planned) the student work-load. With no one person concerned, or in authority to call for action, nothing could be done. Even after his appointment Clarke suffered at the hands of University College academics, who refused to reply

to his requests for information about journalism students under their control. So the Diploma students, far from having to undertake less than a degree course, actually took the same number of exams as Honours students. Any query in people's minds about the inferior status of the Diploma vis a vis degree course is, in the case of the Diploma for Journalism, severely wide of the mark. The extent of university involvement apparently ended with the appointment of College tutors, responsible solely for guiding students through the maze of possible options they could take.

The result of this lack of management and control was that only students on the course knew what was going on, if they found time to consider it between rushing from lecture to lecture with "no time for thinking" as a student stated. This might explain why Mr Valentine Knapp undertook a survey of former students, seeking information about their careers and opinions of the course.

This exercise was a vital tool for the Journalism Committee in its deliberations about the future of the course. By the early 1930's practical journalism had been officially examined since the 1927 examination and two part-time lecturers employed. Students placed a high value on these sessions, praising both lecturers, yet they stated that the course offered them an exalted view of their journalistic futures. The implication was that provincial newspaper editors did not share the view of journalism expounded on the London course. Such newspapers did not want "old style"

journalists, but reporters capable of going out and gathering news. They did not want dramatic critics, book reviewers and art critics. This mismatch between expectations and experience in its early years is the reputation that has dogged the Diploma in the years since. Many could truthfully say they had attended the Diploma course (Table III) but fewer could count themselves as Diploma-holders. In 1926, fifteen graduated, nine men and seven women: six of the nine men found newspaper jobs. The next year, ten men and eighteen women won the award and ten of the men and six of the women had jobs. In 1928 nineteen won the award, ten of them men (Sydney Jacobson and Maurice Lovell among them.) Of these, eight men and one woman had newspaper jobs. (Figures from the Senate Minutes for 1930/31.)

The mismatch could be said to reflect both the composition of the Journalism Committee which usually had representatives of the Daily Telegraph, Morning Post, and The Times represented, but never anyone from the popular end of Fleet Street, although provincial newspaper groups were represented through the Newspaper Society. Mr Fred Miller and Mr Peaker represented the first two newspapers just listed, while the part-time lecturer, Mr F.J. Mansfield, worked on The Times, and had been a president of the National Union of Journalist from 1918 to 1919. He was assisted by Mr Edward Hawke, of the Spectator and Daily Telegraph. The "agenda" for newspapers of this type was far removed from that required by the provincial weekly press, or, for that matter, by the popular elements of the "new journalism" with its bright, popular image.

TABLE III

Diploma for Journalism, London University,
1919 - 1939

DIPLOMA EXAMINATION RESULTS

Academic Year (1)	Nos. of Diplomas Awarded (2)	Women (3)	Men (4)	Number sitting examination (5)	No. of women (6)	(7) Total Students (1st and 2nd Years)
1919/20	2*	1	1	3 (35) +	?	109
1920/21	29	4	25	44 (29) +	37	146
1921/22	30	14	16	? (19) +	28	89
1922/23	15	7	8	? (12) +	40	57
1923/24	9	7	2	? (22) +	?	53
1924/25	15	10	5	? (19) +	43	74
1925/26	15	6	9	29 (27) +	?	89
1926/27	28	18	10	37 (9) +	45	93
1927/28	19	9	10	25 (13) +	49	84
1928/29	19	15	4	27 (4) +	53	87
1929/30	17	4	13	32 (13) +	54	101
1930/31	21	10	11	28 (10) +	67	112
1931/32	31	19	12	43 (6) +	74	115
1932/33	23	15	8	34 (9) +	57	88

TABLE III
(continued)

DIPLOMA EXAMINATION RESULTS (continued)

Academic Year (1)	Nos. of Diplomas Awarded (2)	Women (3)	Men (4)	Number sitting examination	(a)Men	(b)Women	Number of women students	Total student (1st & 2nd Years)(7)
1933/34	18	12	6	30 (17) +	10	20	73	113
1934/35	28	16	12	48 (0) +	20	28	68	111
1935/36	27	18	9	42 (2) +	13	29	71	119
1936/37	27	14	13	48	27	21	51	110
1937/38	17	9	8	37	19	18	52	102
1938/39	23	11	12				55	104
Total: 413		219	194					

SOURCES:

Annual Calendars of Bedford College, East London College (now Queen Mary College).
King's College, London School of Economics, University College, 1919-39.

Journalism Committee Minutes and University of London Senate Minutes.

NOTE: The figures for 1938/39 are incomplete. Students who completed one year by the end of the academic year 1938/39 were awarded a special certificate of attendance.

* indicates that in the first year of examination only graduates were eligible to sit after one year. This continued until the summer of 1937, after which it required two years attendance.

+ the figure in brackets indicates the numbers passing in other papers, but not gaining their Diplomas.

Although it might be expected that practitioners of journalism would be aware of such trends, we have seen how trends could be ignored. So David Anderson, founder of the first London School of Journalism in 1887, himself a Daily Telegraph special correspondent, would shy away from excrescences like Tit-Bits and Answers and abhor shorthand. We have seen how some of his Oxbridge proteges could find jobs at the assistant editor level, capable of joining a provincial newspaper and producing those long-winded leaders so necessary to the journalism of opinion of those days, reflecting the partisan political ownership of the day.

One of the problems of the early years of the Diploma for Journalism course seems to have been the perpetuation of these attitudes into the twentieth century, as indeed, they continued well into the second decade, possibly up to the demise of the Morning Post in 1937. Just as we have seen how the Diploma course itself suffered from the lack of an authoritative centre, so the newspaper industry as a whole was incapable of regarding itself objectively; it could not offer an established view of its wide-ranging extremities, and suffered from the wide disparity of views which contributed to its success in trying to be all things to all men, with goods on the market shelf for every taste.

One aspect of the 1930's we cannot overlook is the request from the National Union of Journalists for the University of London to validate an External Diploma for N.U.J. members around the country. The stumbling block was

possible to hint at the connection between the N.U.J. request of 1931 and the 1944 Newspaper Society invitation, but, as we shall see in Chapter Ten, the Newspaper Society was strongly in favour of re-opening the London University course.

Now it is time to remind ourselves of the transatlantic connections pencilled in earlier when examining the early discussion about education for journalism at the beginning of the twentieth century. Although his friends and colleagues would dispute this statement Clarke was a close reader of the prospectuses ('announcements' as the Americans called them or 'bulletins') of American university Schools of Journalism. His copies (of such Schools at the Universities of Illinois, Missouri, and Ohio State for the mid-1930's,) are well-marked and heavily underlined at many points. He also addressed a letter to Dr Allen Sinclair Will at Rutgers University, formerly of the Columbia School for Journalism. Dr Will's book on journalism education has been quoted in the text because of this evidence of Clarke's regard for the book, mentioned in his letters. This diffidence in attributing anything American to Clarke's teaching is understandable only in terms of understanding the ingrained habit of mind among British journalists about Schools of Journalism; an attitude which is one of their most persistent shortcomings. They cannot see any good coming out of them, but tend to confuse British, commercial schools of this name, with academic departments. If anything, their criticisms increase, and do not abate, the further away they get from this London example of a School of Journalism, as it had planned to call itself,

possibly from 1940 onwards. The cost of instituting this, at 1938 prices, was estimated at between £7,000 and £8,500 a year, half of which would have required a subsidy from the newspaper industry. This sum was not excessive and would have provided for the Director of Practical Journalism as well as a Director of Academic Studies, with another two full-time lecturers in Practical Journalism and English subjects, with two part-time lecturers providing specialist courses, designed for journalists, in History and Economics. This sum the British newspaper industry was incapable of finding, even though some of its leading proprietors were often pleased to perpetuate their names in chairs of literature, or similar endowments.

8.o. Assessing Clarke's Directorship of the Diploma for Journalism, 1935-1939

Any attempt to try and assess Clark's contribution to the development of the Diploma for Journalism in its last four years existence raises the question: "Was he the right man for the job?"

In the context of solving the problem of a mismatch between what the earlier course offered and what students perceived as necessary for providing them with entry into the reporting role, then the answer to that question must be a categorical "Yes." He pulled the course firmly out of the rut of the "old journalism" with its emphasis on the old-fashioned, dilltentante aspects of the higher reaches of

journalism, and established, in theory and in practical sessions, the ascendancy of the role of the reporter in the hierarchy of training for news gathering and writing. Prior to his appointment the Diploma had had no pivotal centre, and much was revealed that hitherto the University of London had carefully hidden, or allowed to remain unobserved. His appointment also had the support, financially, of the newspaper industry, and unusual for most university lecturers, a luncheon in his honour at the Cafe Royal. To sociologists this appears as a manifestation of outmoded 'grace and favour' attitudes of the press proprietors, but the luncheon had a simpler relevance. It signalled to the press world that there was a renewed hope, in certain quarters, about the Diploma for Journalism's future (Harrison, in 1935, referred to it as a "five-year experiment".) The major newspapers, serious and popular, reported the event, and the Press Association spread the story (written by Clarke himself) on their teleprinters around the country. The regard in which Clarke was held by his peers was a contributory element in his appointment. Indeed, even Lord Beaverbrook had asked him to become editor of the Daily Express, before Arthur Christiansen accepted the offer.

This aspect of Clarke's job as Director of Practical Journalism assumed an important part of his plan: he was a builder of bridges between the course and the newspaper industry. That was his undisclosed role and the archives of King's College Journalism Department indicate the full extent

of his contribution to winning friends. By the closing years of the course numerous editors, and proprietors, were seeking his support for their various relations, and he kept them informed of the selection process. This selection procedure was something which had not had the attention it deserved until Clark's appointment with the course re-organised in one College.

Another achievement seems to have been to widen the range of topics available to the students, and to impress upon them the importance of their being able to get their message across clearly to people whose education might not match their own. While he did not, as far as can be known, refer to the working classes as such, this was what he implied. He was also important because he alerted the students to the widening range of questions to which newspapers would have to address themselves if they were to compete with the newer media of radio and cinema newsreel.

When it comes to asking "What is missing from Clarke's teaching?" the obvious answer is the absence of any sign of a critical appraisal of the possible effects of the kind of journalism he was teaching. While Clarke did not contribute to such a development he does appear, in this, to share the attitudes expressed by some of his former students in their desire to forego any pleasures of philosophical debate in favour of getting onto a job on a newspaper in the shortest possible time.

In the eyes of Dr Harrison, the ideal instructor for journalism students

"should be chosen rather for their liveliness an ability to communicate than for their academic achievements - but not quacks." (11)

Discussions with former colleagues and students demonstrate Clarke's sense of liveliness, indeed it appears as his hallmark. Most striking to the modern mind is the way Clarke imposed a sense of discipline among students by treating them as if they were reporters instead of freshmen undergraduates.

Yet we never really know what Clarke was thinking and feeling, although there are interesting intimations in a book he wrote in 1936. Called simply, Brian, it is the story of his youngest son's battle with an incurable disease, which killed him before his tenth birthday. In the book Clarke refers to his days at Ruskin College, Oxford, in his early teens (although the College has no record of his attendance), and mentions that further serious study was cut off by the necessity of earning his living. He mentions his eldest son, Dennis, "deep in reading philosophy for his Oxford exam, took me well out of my depth." (12) He foresaw that what the schools and universities then - in the 1930's - were afraid "to know about... fifty years hence they will be teaching the history of the Russian Revolution and its lesson to the world."

Clarke mentioned how Brian had regarded Latin as "stupid stuff" until

"I asked him if he remembered the Roman villa at Bignor... and asked him what language the Romans used who'd lived there. When told Latin, and that I wished that I knew Latin well... and then could read that things on the walls of the villa..."

He instances this as an example of how many boys, reported 'dull' by their schoolmasters,

"would be reported otherwise if efforts were made to show how their studies could be linked up with interesting everyday things."

Clarke's objection to the emphasis on examinations was that it only prepared children for exams, "not for the realities of life and work."

This, then, can stand as Clarke's original approach to teaching journalism in a university: making it interesting, involved with everyday things. In this he is a true successor to all those quoted earlier who talked about 'learning by doing' - this Clarke attempted to practice as Britain's first Director of Practical Journalism at London University between 1935 and 1939.

While he contributed fully to the activities and responsibilities of being the Director, he still maintained a toe-hold in Fleet Street, with a weekly column in a popular Sunday newspaper, and also started to make a reputation as a broadcaster - something he was to expand during the war years. Whether or not he made any attempts to return to a

full-time editorial position we are not in a position to judge. At the end of the Second World War, nominally still the Director of Practical Journalism, he returned to the fray to support its rehabilitation in London University, without success. (13) More mysteriously, considering his availability, he did not give evidence to the first Royal Commission on the Press, even though favourably mentioned as someone to whom Commission members should speak, by Lord Burnham (formerly Col. Fred Lawson, ex-chairman of the university Journalism Committee up to 1939.) Since then, all has been silent about this experiment in education for journalism at university level in Britain. But that period is worth examination for the light - and contradictions - thrown up about the course by the questions put to those giving oral evidence to the Royal Commission on the Press between 1947 and 1949.

Chapter Eight

References

1. This chapter relies on the collection of Mr. Tom Clarke's lecture notes held in the University of London private collections and denoted as ULC/PC. Nearly all quotations in this chapter are taken from that collection and unacknowledged quotations should be so regarded. This first one is from ULC.PC 11/35.
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8. Clarke, Tom. KCA. This lecture only appears in the King's College archives.
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Chapter Nine

Developments in the Practical Journalism Component
of the Diploma for Journalism, 1935-1939; and changes
in the Examination Papers, 1927-1939.

9. (a) Developments in Practical Journalism, 1935-1939

Before attempting a perspective on the achievements of the London University Diploma for Journalism it is as well to take into consideration what the King's College Course Tutor for Journalist Students, the man responsible for the educational progress of these students, thought about them and their prospects. In his 1935 address to the Institute of Journalists Dr. Harrison stated that, intellectually, the men were too often of lower quality than the women, although he also had to warn the women their chances of getting posts were slight. It was his opinion - even though he felt journalism had not then realised the possibilities of women journalists - that, of 80 women on the course, 40 were only there to escape their mothers, or to make up the deficiencies of an education at some select school for young ladies; while perhaps 20 seriously hoped to become journalists.

It was also his opinion that too many students "found a refuge in the course" and that too many of them were "third rate, who (would) become junior reporters on county papers and then stick" (1) This could explain why one student who won the Newspaper Society Exhibition for 1935-37, Howard J. Whitten, remained mildly astonished, in 1977, that so few "of my brighter contemporaries monopolise the hottest seats in Fleet Street". (2) With hindsight Dr. Harrison commented that the Diploma for Journalism students:

"were more interesting than the conventional kind, but we did attract some who thought the course an amiable way of spending a couple of years after leaving school". (3)

While "scholarship boys" could win places to Oxbridge to take honours degrees others found it difficult to get local authority grants to study for the Diploma and one, Geoffrey Pinnington (1937-39), had to repay his as a loan, after the 2nd World War, while he was working his way up through local newspapers. In conversation with the author he declared that if he had tried for Oxford or Cambridge - as his schoolmasters wanted - he would have won a scholarship place. As it was he was guided to other scholarship funds once he was in attendance at King's College.

Possibly because of the kind of student who could afford the fees one former student, David Dunhill (1936-37), described his feelings on first meeting Tom Clarke:

"Perhaps it was just my fancy; but Tom Clarke eyed us, the newcomers, with scarcely veiled disdain. We can't have seemed to him the kind who were going to make a success in Fleet Street. He clearly thought we all read The Times and none of us obviously had a nose for news." (4)

Dunhill had started work in his family's tobacco business, but had decided on a change:

"Journalism was attractive, for I liked writing. The course seemed the very thing: it committed me to nothing, perhaps for two years - and my father was willing to pay. King's College was happy to take me - and I think probably anybody - so I presented myself that October and became enrolled." (5)

Dunhill felt that his story was not untypical for those pre-war days and observed:

"we all seemed to come from established and fairly prosperous backgrounds. The prevalent unemployment touched us little."

Commenting on the academic side Dunhill mentioned that one Professor of English always refused to set a subject for their essays. Clarke chimed in with:

"Never mind what those English professors tell you. Forget all that. We don't want composition and that nonsense. We want a story."

As this was in the days before any central control existed it is not surprising that Dunhill's feelings were likened to that of being a football "kicked about between Grub Street and the Academic Halls."

Another student was highly critical of the academic lecturers who did not turn up for lectures and said the course was badly organised: she wondered if the professors engaged in that side of the work took the journalism course seriously. "I can hardly think so, from what I have seen".
(7) This young lady also objected to writing essays which were never returned, but she also maintained that the course was excellent, although there was not sufficient opportunity for practical work.

These "stock character" reactions possibly typify the tenuous grasp each side academic and journalist held, conceptually, of the other. So that Dr. Harrison could add a postscript, in his second letter to Clarke in November, 1935:

"How can I do some journalism myself? I have some things to say of general interest - at least I think so".

Dr Harrison himself believed that a natural gift was what was needed to make the good reporter, backed up by learning the art of writing and employing another of nature's gifts: empathy. Reporters who did not do their homework before interviewing someone - whether it was looking up people in Who's Who or the corresponding book of the interviewee's profession - would not win their confidence. That extra knowledge (either from books, or personal contacts) could make all the difference: that was the natural gift of empathy, mentioned earlier, but backed up by what Dr. Harrison regarded as the "right kind of education" - in this case, knowing where, and what, to look up, or who to ask.

Dr. Harrison was a firm believer in the Art of Conversation, and students attending his tutorial sessions in English Composition must have had every opportunity of developing the art, when discussing their fortnightly written work for that subject. The titles in the English Composition examination papers also reflect the flavour of those sessions, reinforcing Dr. Harrison's strategy, that the ideal journalist was an all-rounder, supplied with general knowledge of home, and international, politics, sport, art of all kinds and even religion.

In this way, Dr. Harrison obviously felt his talents were under-employed and needed the supplementary income such writing for the press might provide. Clarke's approach was different, as students soon discovered at their first lecture.

Students themselves found their own conceptions about writing ("atmospheric" as opposed to factual reporting, as one put it) received a rude awakening in the hard school of crisp demands for answers to the questions: "Who, What, Where, When, How?" (8) What some former students interpreted as over-emphasis on the academic was seen by others as providing the necessary background knowledge that would pull them out of the rut of covering events which required little more than common sense and a knowledge of shorthand.

9. b. (i) Monitoring Student Progress

Although Dunhill's reminiscences mention the "delightful feeling of going back to school... with the Diploma exam two years off," he would have received a rude shock if he had been there one year later because first-year students had to sit a termly examination on 14th December, 1937. The paper was as follows:

TERMLY EXAMINATION

1. Shorthand reporting test (10 marks)
2. Re-write the attached Police Court report for publication (10 marks)
3. Name six important points in the presentation of copy (5 marks)
4. Mention three major news stories in this morning's papers and say how they struck you (15 marks)
5. As junior reporter on the local paper in a Cumberland town of 16,000 inhabitants, whom would you contact regularly for news? (10 marks)

Marks awarded ranged from 15 to 41, out of 50, and nine of those scoring under 60 per cent left the course before it finished and 3 out of 7 absent for the examination also dropped out. 20 students achieved marks of 64 per cent, or above, and all of them finished the course.

Miss Skipsey's comments on the marks was that they were "rather bad. I think perhaps I've marked them too kindly, so please be the dragon T.C.". (9) She had marked all the questions, except the fourth, and added comments about students' performance:

- "Question 1. Badly done. Invariably failed to read their shorthand accurately and I marked them low for unintelligent reporting.
- Question 2. Appallingly done. If they missed the two bad faults in the first line I knocked them down to half immediately.
- Question 3. Easy, and most get full marks.
- Question 4. ... very interesting and intelligent comments. I suggest a maximum of five marks per story.

Question 5. Quite well done, but too few realised the special contacts for a Cumberland town. Thus Winifred Coales, who remembered climbers... gets full marks."

(Note: Marks taken from students' individual records for the year 1937/38).

The second highest marks on this test were shared between G.C. Pinnington and Katherine S. Walker. Pinnington, a Newspaper Society Exhibitioner regularly scored high marks and went on to become the editor of the Sunday People in 1972, after holding several posts on the Daily Herald and other Mirror newspapers.

These termly papers were discussed by Clarke on the first Tuesday of Easter term, 1938, before he turned to the topic of his lecture: "News values: how a journalist judges them" (Lecture V) and he took his examples from the leading story in that morning's newspapers.

Another innovation, with Miss Skipsey's help, was the presentation to the Journalism Committee meeting on 7 July, 1938, after the Easter vacation's newspaper attachments, of reports on students' work provided by provincial newspaper editors, news editors or managing editors. In the past these had been provided - but not in such detail - by Mr. Davies of the Newspaper Society, usually bemoaning the students' lack of shorthand. No such criticisms were voiced by editorial staff in that report (10) and, even though students names were left blank, newspaper titles were given and names can be attached to newspapers by comparing the minutes of the November 4 meeting of the Committee.

The managing editor of the Liverpool Evening Express,
Mr. A. Burchill, commenting on Pinnington remarked:

"He is only in the elementary stages of his shorthand but the test reports which he did at Assizes, Police Courts, Council meetings, Quarter Sessions, and other routine engagements were done with strict reliability. The most enthusiastic student we have so far had from King's College".

The editor of the Free Press of Monmouthshire, Mr. J.H. Salter, reported on Gwyn Davies:

"His enthusiasm and willingness to undertake any engagement for which he was marked on the diary, however uninteresting, made him very popular with the other reporters, and... despite his lack of previous experience he did quite well with them, turning in 'copy' which was easily 'subbed' into readable stories. He obviously has an eye for the essentials of a story, and did not overload his copy, as most youngsters do, with a lot of irrelevant side-details... we shall be only too happy to have him again."

Such sentiments were repeated by various editors, though there were two pleas for improved shorthand. Mr. James Palmer, editor of the Western Morning News, came nearer the truth, one suspects, when he said that one girl was:

"a big improvement on some of the girls we have had in recent years. Frankly I thought of checking the flow, but if the standard of (John) Gerrish could be maintained, we could help either winter or summer."

Though this might appear a harsh comment on women students Mr. H.T. Hamson of the Middlesex County Advertiser and Gazette could write of Miss Eileen Combe:

"One of the bright particular stars of your system, with rather more aptitude and assurance than any of the girls I have had - and I have never had a really poor one!" (Hamson never mentioned the course in his dealings with the first Royal Commission on the Press.)

Hamson's opinion was that students were coming to them far better equipped for the job, and had the feeling this was due to the influence of Mr. Tom Clarke.

9. b. (ii) The Last Two Years 1937-39

By the summer term of 1938 three, out of the original 59 who had started the first-year, left the course and another was just marked "absent" for the term and two were ill, but returned in the autumn. Of the remainder, 27 submitted reports written after attending the London County Council meeting of 26 April, or watching M.P.'s arrive for the Budget at the House of Commons; some had also gone to the Ideal Home Exhibition. Others had a sub-editing test using Reuters' teleprinted copy. Miss Skipsey typed her comments and passed them to Clarke with remarks like 'appalling handwriting' (reflecting the lack of typewriters) or, occasionally, "spelling appalling" or "tenses all to pieces."

Records indicate that Jean Dixon-Scott left the course to work on the newspaper which had taken her on vacation attachment (as David Dunhill had done a year earlier) and another six did not turn up for the start of their second year on the Diploma. In Miss Dixon-Scott's case the attachment had included no reporting, although she had written up a wedding, and completed a film review as well as a book review. She had accompanied another reporter to interview a woman whose husband had been found dead with his head in a water butt that morning. "It was not very nice. Still I expect you get hardened to those kind of cases". (11)

Of the 59 offered place at the start of the 1937/38 year, 16 had fallen out by October, 1938. Out of that sixteen, one had withdrawn before the course started and another four never appeared in Miss Skipsey's assignment records at all for 1937/38. Two of the latter P.J.T. Cornish and P.P. Krance, caused Clarke some aggravation if a typed note of June 8, 1938, is anything to go by. Clarke had asked Cornish to leave the class that afternoon for persistent talking during his lecture and told him not to come back. Cornish obviously intimated he was leaving before the end of the course and Clarke wanted to stop him sitting the end-of-term examinations as he feared he would use passing the examinations as evidence of his journalistic ability which he didn't really possess. With Kranc, Harrison and Clarke decided to recommend his leaving the course as even he admitted to having missed so many lectures that he could not attempt a reporting test set by Clarke. Writing to the Principal, Dr. Halliday, Clarke mentioned the danger that a

growing number of students would come, ostensibly for two years, but quitting after one year if they could get a job.

Although war clouds were building up over Europe there was no shortage of students knocking on the door of King's College to gain admission to the journalism course. By 1938 a larger proportion than ever before came from families with newspaper connections: (12)

"Robert Duarte has worked on the Financial Times. Mary Edmunds is a daughter of G.L. Edmunds of the Derbyshire Times. Joy Joynton-Smith is a daughter of Sir W. Joynton-Smith, founder and proprietor of the well-know Australian Smith's Weekly. Lois Forman's father is an ex-Leeds newspaperman now with the London Press Exchange. D. Inskip Harrison has left the Press Association to join the course. Enver Kureishi worked for Reuter in Johannesburg. Anthony McManemy is the son of a well-know figure in the accounts department of the Daily Mail. Ann Meo worked on a newspaper for American women in Paris. Richard Picton has done a year's reporting on the Hertfordshire Express. Jack Swaab was some months on Cavalcade earlier this year". (13)

These details, from a press release produced by Miss Skipsey on October 31, 1938, show that around sixty students actually started in the autumn term of that year and, alone of all the products of this course, they received a certificate to verify their attendance which was disturbed by the outbreak of the 2nd World War in September, 1939.

Fifty-two of these first-year students were examined in June, 1939, and seven were absent from the examination, of whom one had already left the course and another who had been

placed on probation. Two who were examined had been asked to withdraw and another 12 had been warned that their work was not entirely satisfactory. (14) So, if there had been another year to the Diploma (from 1939 to 1940) 48 would have progressed to their final year of the Diploma.

Vacation reports for newspaper attachments showed students putting Clarke's teaching to good effect, with 23 provincial newspaper editors comments seeming to suggest that Clarke was on the way to providing the newspaper industry with a reputable training ground. As in earlier years newspaper editors and proprietors were even poaching students half-way through the course and, presumably, a year in King's College had been equal to, if not better than, the "sitting next to Nellie" type of training that was all that existed then.

The way the initiation of an unknown, and "untrained" reporter, was managed is well expressed in comments on a student mentioned earlier, G.C. Pennington, while on the Liverpool Evening Express:

"At first he accompanied the man each day on day enquiries; then we put him on to inquests; and next on to the smaller police courts. He also covered meetings on charitable organisations. Although his shorthand speed was slow, he managed to get good summaries of the meetings. He proved reliable on the work he did. All his stories were used and I do not recollect a single query coming from the subs regarding his reports."

After the war this student worked on a London suburban newspaper before becoming deputy news editor on the Daily Herald, then on the Daily Mirror as night assistant then deputy editor, and eventually becoming the editor of the Sunday People, from 1972 to 1982 and a director of Mirror Group Newspaper, from 1976.

When these students returned to King's as the second year of the 1938/39 session there were 44 of them, including one re-entering the second year after a year's absence from College. This academic year witnessed another innovation - something Clarke had hoped to institute much earlier - a joint College/newspaper operation mounted in Fleet Street itself. Miss Skipsey's press release for the opening of the 1938/39 session stated:

"On March 22 (1939) the practical department tackles its most ambitious demonstration when a team of twelve students will produce two news pages at the Daily Telegraph offices. Brigadier Lawson has generously arranged for the sub-editors' and the services of compositors, to be at their disposal during the morning".

During that session Clarke delivered only twelve lectures to the second-year students, mostly aimed at developing their awareness of the practicalities of sub-editing, typography and make-up of pages. Seven days were devoted to the making-up of news papers, plus another three for reporting assignments and interviews. About nine working journalists, including lawyers, also gave lectures to students.

The Easter term started on January 19, 1939, with several young ladies absent, suffering the ravages of ski-ing accidents during the Christmas vacation. By the time that academic year ended, war was less than three months away.

9.c. Changes in the examination papers, 1927 - 1939

No amount of discussion about proposed syllabuses for journalism education can determine what actually happens when a system has to be put into operation. The hazards involved in any such innovation are increased when the elements have to combine practical and academic elements. As we noted in earlier discussions, under the heading of aspects of professionalisation, practitioners and academics will always moan about the over-emphasis given the other.

On the practical side students could assimilate their learning aided by nearly immediate feedback of results. On the academic side this was a slower process. One aspect of the course which the author finds difficult to believe is that there was little actual contact between students and lecturers in academic subjects; some lecturers set essays but often students complained, that their work was not returned. The Assistant to Mr Tom Clarke, Miss Joan Skipsey, in a recent conversation, informs me that when she was a student on the course from 1934 to 1936, no such work was set by lecturers except for Dr Harrison's fortnightly tutorials in English Composition. But we have to remember that, at that

time, assessment systems in Arts subject were nearly always based on essay writing, and nothing else. The usual procedure of attendance at lectures was often the limit of students expectation, and essay writing was what they had been conditioned to by the school's slavish adoption of what they understood to be university requirements.

Were that the whole of the argument it might help to explain why journalism education has sat so unhappily, in Britain anyway, in the university setting. But there is a heartening aspect which tells another story. That is how examination papers developed over the period of the course, with special papers set from 1927 onwards.

Practical Journalism papers in the early years were basic, requiring little more than descriptions of newspaper terminology. By 1937 there had been a transformation. Judged by the questions, students were expected to take a more critical stance, instead of being asked to regurgitate descriptive formula. One question that year read:

"It was said by Lord Bacon that every man owed a duty to his profession. What would you consider your duty to the profession of journalism?"

There was another question seeking to learn what half-dozen rules (of ethics) would guide them in their newspaper life.

The following year, 1938, students were asked "to discuss, in 300 words, "It is impossible to define NEWS to satisfy every taste." Earlier years had seen questions on topics then in vogue: "What do you understand by the term 'the new journalism'," (1934).

The paper that was believed to cause many students' to fail was that on "Principles of Criticism of Literature and Art." In the first paper, set in 1927, Plato, Aristotle and Matthew Arnold were in the first four questions. By 1934 Professor Isaacs was asking them:

"the following are headlines from recent newspapers:
"Peer's son leaps to death"
"Russian explorers perish in Arctic"
"Suicide of Stavisky"
"Discuss their suitability as themes for classical tragedy."

One thing was certain, the professors were reading their newspapers, as there were very few books which gave a critical appreciation of the journalism of the day. Isaacs last question in the question paper just quoted goes a long way to exemplifying how different the journalist's exam papers must have been from other university exams, which ended their studies in 1875. The question called for short, critical notes on any two from:

- | | |
|----------------|--|
| (a) Futurism | (f) Epstein's <u>Rima</u> |
| (b) Cubism | (g) The acting of Elizabeth Bergner |
| (c) Surrealism | (h) The films of Rene Clair <u>or</u> Eisenstein |

(d) Expressionist
drama

(i) The novels of Virginia
Woolf

(e) The poetry of
W.H. Auden

(j) The music of Honegger or
Schoenberg or Duke
Ellington

As an indication of what lecturers considered suitable cultural background knowledge these questions, even at this time of writing, in 1982, appear as adventurous, if not downright avant garde. But they were certainly in keeping with the journalists' self-perceived role as purveyors of "current events," although slightly outside the usual remit of events journalists consider current, i.e., political, economics, sporting, yet indicating, possibly, how journalism has to keep enlarging its own boundaries.

The scope of some of the history papers appears vast, ranging from questions about "the causes and results of the establishment of Latin American independence between 1810 and 1926" to giving an "account of the nationalistic movements in China after 1850 and explain their problems" to the more basic "Give some account of the origins of the Great War of 1914." The examiners of this modern history paper were Miss P. Boys Smith and Norman Gash, recently retired from the chair of history at St. Andrews University. He started his academic career as assistant lecturer in history at University College, London.

Other question papers demonstrate a determination to be up to the present date: "In what direction is a knowledge of psychology useful to journalists?" While "political science" papers tested students' understanding of the collective

responsibility of the Cabinet, as well as seeking analysis of the chief weaknesses of the British electoral process. "Distressed Areas" was one question in "Social and Economic Structure of Today" for 1939, as was one asking students to discuss problems faced in constructing a cost-of-living index.

Miss Skipsey mentions this last-named paper as one extremely difficult to encompass without the benefit of discussion between lecturers and students. That such did take place is proved by records in the archives where Mr Hugh Gaitshell, the lecturer, recommends the work of a student, Robert Stephens, now the diplomatic correspondent of the Observer. But we have to remember that it was easier for Mr Gaitskell to see students, like Stephens, who were from his college. The chance of students from King's College having the same access was limited by the distance between the two colleges, University College being over a mile away from the Strand, in Gower Street near Euston.

Dr Harrison obviously enjoyed stretching the creative imaginations in his brief for questions in the English Composition papers: "A wireless University" was one to tax the imagination in those early days of broadcasting; "This Examination" was a regular question in one form or another, which required a 750-word article, not an essay.

This brief introduction to the developments in the kind of questions asked on the academic papers set in the Diploma for Journalism examinations indicates the serious, if

occasionally tongue-in-cheek, approach to asking questions to test budding journalists' awareness of the world around them - economic, political, cultural, and journalistic. But if, as Miss Skipsey and Dr Harrison both state, it was impossible for there to be contact between lecturers and students apart from the lectures it must have been a daunting task to develop the critical stance called for by such questions. This could be one explanation of why so many of the journalism students failed their Diploma: there was no attempt made to ensure that the full process of education was nurtured to help formulate the students' critical faculties. This could also explain why quite large numbers left the course after only a year, although, of course, there are other contributory factors, such as need to earn money or take up job offers - this was becoming a greater problem in the last few years of the course, under Clarke's directorship of practical journalism.

What comes over very strongly to the author is the determined effort attempting to introduce a civilising influence in the type of questions asked. It is that kind of general knowledge, discussed by Sir Ernst Gombrich in recent years, calling for a definite commitment to providing just this kind of knowledge at undergraduate level. It indicates an aspect of civilisation which has had little chance of expressing itself since the demise of the Diploma course - in journalism, at least.

This change, demonstrated in these extracts, typifies what Kitson Clark, in his "Making of Victorian England," has

called "of greatest importance because it links practice and practical skill with an extended view of more general knowledge in the sphere the practitioner is to work in." Kitson Clark is discussing the making of the professional man in Victorian times and elaborating on how the apprentice model of barristers learning in chambers, solicitors as articled clerks and officers in their regiments, had to give way to more systematic education and training as the skills employed were themselves developed. Just as science lecturers wanted their students to think scientifically, so it would seem an extension of the natural history of journalism for its students to learn to think journalistically: just as earlier generations had been expected, in legal education, "to discipline his mind so that he could grapple with any kind of problem" as the Select Committee of the House of Commons on legal education put it in 1849.

The aim of these examination papers was not far from that of the group responsible for selecting candidates for training in the church, in 1918, when it said that the purpose of the course they were testing was

"to stimulate their imagination and widen their outlook, and to provoke thought and criticism, as well as to create or revive intellectual interests with a view to encourage further study of the subjects later on."

The examination papers of the Diploma for Journalism at London University, between 1927 and 1939, exemplify such sentiments.

Just how the London course might have developed, had it continued after World War II, is wasteful conjecture, but Professor Wilbur Schramm, writing in the Journalism Quarterly (USA), in 1947, provides an indication of possible avenues of development, in his article on "Education for Journalism: Vocational, General. or Professional?" reviewing the first forty years of university education for journalism in the U.S.A. Professor Schramm comments that

"if the medical schools had made no more research contribution to their profession than journalism schools to journalism, the chief medical therapy might still be letting blood."

But he immediately follows this remark with the comment that Dr George Gallup's work on readership survey methods at the University of Iowa was done as a doctoral dissertation in psychology. The necessary emphasis, in the early years of American university newspaper courses, upon practicality involved using former newspapermen, while research interests were neglected.

The London University Diploma for Journalism, then, would illustrate the early stress on practicality that Professor Schramm mentions as the hallmark of early labours in the vineyard of journalism education. Schramm's prophetic paper, in relation to subsequent American developments in

Journalism Schools after 1947, might then be taken as an indication where things might have gone had university-level education for journalism been continued at London University after 1947. Having taken the decision not to continue the course without newspaper industry sponsorship, and with no evidence that the university authorities actually sought such support, it is, indeed, an added irony to find one of London University's leading authorities being quoted as being in favour of extending the vocational educational role of the university - in 1972. (15)

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Chapter Nine

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Chapter Ten

The effect of the Diploma Course upon the
National Union of Journalists and its
attempts to secure university co-operation;
the demise of the Diploma for Journalism;
the first Royal Commission on the Press
and post-war moves to introduce post-
graduate courses.

10. a. The National Union of Journalists and Education.

One of the assumptions challenged by this thesis is that the twenty-year existence of the London University Diploma for Journalism had little effect upon contemporary, or subsequent, deliberations about journalism education in Britain. One of the tenets of such assumptions is the independence of the National Union of Journalists from anything which did not relate to pay and conditions - itself a result of their determination to differ from the Institute of Journalists, which working reporters saw as too concerned with education and not enough concerned about pay and conditions of work.

Yet a search of the archives of the N.U.J. at the Modern Records Centre at Warwick University reveals the extent of Union involvement in the subject of education for journalists, reinforced by a long-running campaign in the Union's journal, The Journalist. (1) There is little mention of education before the Union received an invitation, from the University of London, to appoint representatives to its Journalism Committee; this invitation caused the Union to appoint a special committee:

"to examine the syllabus issued by the London University and to consider the formation of an independent Education Scheme."
(2)

Two, out of the eight, members of this special committee re-appear as members of the first full-time Education Committee

when it was formed in October, 1924: H.T. Hamson and T. Jay.

(3) The convenor of the original sub-committee, Mrs Pegg, presented a report of its proceedings to the Union's National Executive Committee in January, 1920, and the limit of official involvement at that stage was seen as asking the editor of The Journalist to "give an article on the craft of journalism." (4) The N.E.C. subsequently considered applications from students on the London University Diploma for Journalism seeking recognition of the two year course counting towards the probationary three-year qualifying period for full membership in the Union. When the question of Exhibitions, or scholarships, for students on the course was raised in 1924 the N.E.C. instituted the Education Committee.

One of the first actions of the Education Committee in 1925 was to appoint a sub-committee to contact Universities to ascertain their views concerning "the real-issue the creation of an educated profession with a common consciousness and aim." (5) The letter suggested a preliminary step of establishing voluntary courses, restricted to a few hours a week, meeting on one or two days. As well as instruction to students the Committee hoped the schemes would "familiarise all connected with journalism with the idea of education for journalists." (6) Included in the letter was request to help youths, beginning on small town and country newspapers, with a correspondence course.

The Committee's "temerity in approaching" thirteen universities (7) was rewarded with favourable responses from Aberystwyth, Armstrong College (Newcastle), Nottingham, Reading, Southampton and Swansea, while Cambridge and Leeds suggested the Union join with the Institute of Journalists in formulating a common approach to the universities - "a very natural suggestion" as the sub-committee noted. Some of the replies from the Universities indicated that they had considered the proposals seriously. Glasgow doubted the possibility of courses "exclusively for journalists" (8) and pointed out that:

"in interviewing Editors and leading newspapers my experience has been that they do not wish specialised education but prefer wide general culture which is afforded by our degrees in Arts."

The Principal of Edinburgh University agreed with the suggestion that the "best education for a journalist is a general course of cultural character... as provided in the Arts Faculty of a University." (9) He also went on to say he thought the W.E.A. provided just the kind of courses needed and

"to create separate classes for journalists would probably be, to a great extent, duplicating existing arrangements and it is doubtful whether the numbers likely to be enrolled would justify separate courses." (10)

Leeds University stated it was "anxious to do all in their power to further the creation of an educated profession

of journalism" (11) while suggesting the I.O.J. and N.U.J. join together in the venture. Newcastle regarded "exclusive classes are educationally unsound (and) the value of University education (was) mixing with others with different outlooks." (12) They too, suggested W.E.A. classes operated jointly with the College. The local Branch of the Union "agreed classes for journalists would be a splendid thing." (13) although the Union Branch officer continued

"Armstrong College two years ago declined to admit me as a student refusing to recognise my Lower Matriculation Examination because... I have only five subjects instead of the six stipulated by the College." (14)

This same official said his editor had suggested he get a London B.A., even though "he will not engage university men because he is dissatisfied with them - he has two graduate probationary members..." (15) and he himself did not attach much value to W.E.A. classes, which would not have the "sustained lasting value of a degree."

Oxford University's Vice-Chancellor managed to offer the suggestion that "a very large number of... pressmen are Oxford-trained men... the University will not be able to do anything special." (16) Cambridge University's Vice-Chancellor was able to reply that "the Institute of Journalists are holding their annual congress at Cambridge tomorrow" (17) and, not surprisingly, suggested a "joint application from your Union and the Institute." A warmer response was received from University College, Nottingham,

where the Dean of the Faculty of Economics and Commerce,¹ Professor A.W. Kirkcaldy, referred to his being a member of the staff at Birmingham University when Professor Churton Collins "had this matter very greatly in his heart, and I was on the Committee he got together to consider the whole subject." (18) He also enclosed a copy of Collins' journalism syllabus for the Education Committee.

H.T. Hamson summed up the Committee's initial inquiries into existing educational facilities by stating that

"We wish... to direct attention to methods that will enable odd half-hours being put to profitable use, whereby members can be directed to a sustained course of reading on a given subject over... three to six months." (19)

This tied in with the Committee's view of journalistic work

"it rarely allows for regular hours for study, especially class work; and, further, that reading is often of a spasmodic, perfunctory, or scrappy nature." (20)

The enquiry revealed no classes organised anywhere, specially for journalists, but promoted the idea of journalists taking advantage of existing facilities by "fathering" classes in any one subject if at least a dozen members could be found, as this made it easier for the local education authority to subsidise such courses. The Workers' Educational Association, University Extension Lectures, and the Home Reading Union and Ruskin College Correspondence courses were all recommended. (21) Study Circles and Weekend Schools were also recommended and, indeed, several flourished in later

years, as reports in The Journalist indicate. (22)

One aspect of the Committee inquiries - that of the attention given to education for their members by other trade unions and organisations - was stated but no conclusions offered. It was left that

"those professions that have attained a higher status have done so by an evolutionary process in which education has played a large part, growing from simple helpfulness... to direct arrangement of lectures and courses, with or without examinations or diplomas." (23)

However both articles referred to indicate the existence of a set body of knowledge labelled "extra school" topics and these included those least likely to be dealt with thoroughly in secondary or public schools:

"Local Government, Psychology, Constitutional History, Logic, Ethics, Economic Theory and History, Social and Political History, Modern History, English Literature, Political Theory, Sociology, Co-operation, etc." (24)

In its report to the National Executive Council of the Union the Sub-committee on contacting Universities discussed the one positive response to their proposals: this was the University College, Southampton, organised course of six lectures by Professor Ifor Evens which "treated the art of conveying ideas in pictures and words." (25) Thirteen journalists attended the first lecture, given in the offices of the Southern Daily Echo, where the management had provided

accommodation and, later, guaranteed the full cost of the course (which the university had reduced to a "practical amount.") (26) The brake on the enthusiasm of the Union's members was the question of their getting time off to attend classes and the management

"while not professing any unusual friendship for the Union made no objection to working with us. They first gave promise that time off should be given if the classes could be established at a convenient time." (27)

The value of this course from a Union of point of view

"hardly needs illustration. The members of the Southampton Branch are united in a new interest. They are engaged in a new and important activity which has been created by the Union. And this has been achieved not at the expense of good relations with the employers but actually with an improvement of those relations." (28)

The Report was careful, however, to elaborate that this was an unusual case in that there was only one newspaper office in the town. Branches in Reading and Newcastle doubted whether anything could happen until employers would guarantee time off and the Sub-committee stated that a national agreement would be required to put this into effect. Accordingly the Report recommended that the Union should approach the employers for some kind of national agreement.

To stimulate interest in "the general idea of education for journalists" the Report recommended also that the Union should commission:

"recognised authorities to write handbooks on Economics, Criticism, International Finance, etc., with particular reference where possible to the work of the journalist." (29)

Young journalists were encouraged, by the airing of the subject of education for journalists, to contribute their comments and one "Twenty-one" year-old suggested

"... what we require is a practical examination in journalistic work, the passing of which would confer on the candidate a degree of efficiency, with a certificate which could carry weight with editors." (30)

The range this young man expected of the novice journalists "anxious to get on in their profession" is illustrated by his list of examination topics. First of all he wanted them to attend and report a serious local inquest and for the copy to be ready 30 minutes after the inquiry ended. Secondly, to attend and report a town council debate, with a column of copy ready one hour after the end of the debate. Thirdly, an interview with a local celebrity on a matter of some importance written up in a descriptive article. Then a bright column article on a visit to a local resort at holiday time. 30 minutes was allowed for a critical note on the council debate. An hour was allowed to write a leading article of half-a-column on a parliamentary debate. A local dramatic performance had to be criticised or a novel reviewed before, finally, attending a local sports match and supplying a report 30 minutes after the end. (31) This kind of examination would lend credence to the issue of certificates.

While references to the London University Diploma for Journalism became rarer, in the Journal of the I.O.J., with only one in 1926, (32) some of its earlier supporters expressed a preference for a postgraduate course when they met at the Institute of Journalists annual conference held in Cambridge in 1925. (33) In contrast, references to the course increased during the same period in the N.U.J.'s official organ, The Journalist, (34) as they did in the columns of the Newspaper Society's Monthly Circular. (35) While contributors to The Journalist talked of the "general indifference prevailing among members of the Union on the subject of education for journalists" old and young alike wrote in to say how greatly they appreciated the educational articles, indicating that the Education Committee should "Keep pegging away at that idea of education..." (36)

10. b. The Newspaper Society's Involvement in Education Debate.

As the national representative body of the provincial newspaper press the Newspaper Society (founded 1836) had a major role to play in the process of negotiations between unions and management over a variety of topics and, in 1919, education for journalists achieved prominence in the debate around "reconstructing" the postwar society when Valentine Knapp introduced the idea in his article "The Postwar Weekly" in the series "Post War Conditions" in January, 1919. He wrote:

"Nor should the educational needs of our own industry be neglected. When the requirements of other trades and professions are under consideration, let the claims of journalism be advanced with deliberation and courage."

As another writer commented once the Diploma for Journalism had started, "it provided liberal education... but is lacking on the practical side" which individual "Fleet Street" men are voluntarily undertaking to lecture to students." (37)

Once Valentine Knapp was appointed Chairman of the Journalism Committee of London University this situation changed and, as we have seen, a course of lectures on "The General Principles of Writing for the Press" were undertaken by Mr Edward G. Hawke (d. 1942) an Oxford graduate who worked on The Spectator and was also a leader writer for the Daily Telegraph. Knapp's ten years as Chairman (1922-32) witnessed a renewed interest, especially from the Newspaper Society whose Monthly Circular regularly carried details of Exhibitions raised by Knapp and of students (diplomees, as it called them) seeking positions in journalism. By 1925 ten annual Exhibitions were awarded, one from the N.U.J., the rest from provincial newspaper groups or individual papers. (38)

This meant that five were awarded to first year and five to second year students, usually running over the two-year Diploma. All five Exhibitioners graduating in 1925 gained their diplomas, out of the fifteen awarded, ten of which went to women students. (Women usually outnumbered men in awards of the Diplomas.) (39)

10. c. First Steps Towards Negotiating a National Body for Training.

Returning to the developments within the National Union of Journalists we find an increasing number of articles appearing in The Journalist - six by members of the Education Committee between June, 1932, and March, 1933 - and the attitudes behind their appearance provide information about the reasons for this activity.

Many of the arguments offered to justify entry tests, or examinations, referred to the weakness of any machinery for regulating entry into the Union itself (40) while negotiations with the Newspaper Society were described as providing

"for a scheme for making entrance to journalism dependent on a system of examinations in keeping with the practice of journalism which would... (provide) a method which would go a long way to restrict the inflow of new entrants to the ranks of journalism... and give an assurance of... right quality." (41)

The speaker was James G. Gregson who became Vice-President of the Union in 1931 and President in 1932, while continuing his interest in educational matters (as evidenced by the six articles mentioned above.) The occasion of his speech was a dinner given by the East Lancashire branch of the Union which was supporting a motion to restrict entry by tightening up entry requirements. He was quick to point out, however, that the entrance examination would apply only to those under 21.

The Journalist resounds with articles reminiscent of earlier battles conducted in the Institute of Journalists Journal on the subject of improving the status and standing of journalism. The chairman of one of the Union branches wrote on "The Question of Status. The New Journalists' Views." in March, 1930. He proposed "lifting the craft from the common rut, and placing it among the ranks of the accepted professions." (42) The next month another branch chairman, James Fieldhouse, picked up the proposal and developed it saying:

"The first step in raising the status of the profession, in my view, is to institute a system of examinations, preliminary, intermediate, and final... A certificate would give those who enter the profession something to aim at during those years of training." (43)

He related this specifically to the London University diploma course when he said that he would recommend the syllabus of that course while instituting an independent body, or joint board, to conduct the examination. This would enable journalists to study for the certificate while still engaged in practical newspaper work when their leisure time was

"often browsed away reading with no set purpose in view, or, worse, wasted in the smokey atmosphere of the billiard room of some club."
(44)

The author believes that this article provides the first published example of the idea which eventually developed into the proposals for a 'National Council' to

oversee the education and training of journalists on their own terms. Fieldhouse spoke as one who obviously regretted not being able to attend the London University course, saying, "in 1919 I could not afford it." Within a year the Annual Delegate Meeting of the Union was discussing, and approving, a recommendation from Mr Fieldhouse's branch that

"the National Executive Council approach London University asking them to amend the rules governing the... Diploma in Journalism, to make it possible for working journalists, provided they have Matriculated, to obtain the Diploma without attending the University." (45)

The same year saw the setting up of a joint committee, in 1931, of the Union, Institute and Newspaper Society, "to consider drafting a scheme for the training of journalists" although the Union replied to the Society that "Your Society and my Union are fully representative of all the interests concerned." (46) Further progress in these negotiations was halted when the Union attended a conference at the Newspaper Society on January 5, 1932, and found Institute representatives there. They left stating that "because of an ADM resolution, they were unable to act jointly with the Institute." (47) While the columns of The Journalist still contained many articles on the subject of education for journalists there were no more references to either the London University Diploma or the idea of a national training scheme up to the outbreak of the Second World War in 1939. (48)

10. d. The Aftermath of the Second World War

Within sixteen months of the start of the Second World War the British civil servants were already consulting their First World War files to discover what had been done regarding post-war reconstruction. So a Mr S.H. Wood wrote to the President of the Board of Education, the Right Honourable Herwald Ramsbottom, suggesting "steps be taken to prepare a scheme for operating after the war, along the lines adopted in 1918." (49) Reference was made to the autobiography of H.A.L. Fisher (1865-1940) as he had been responsible, as President, for formulating plans to enable returning Servicemen to further their civilian careers which the outbreak of war had interrupted:

"no more single stop will be found to have contributed more effectively to the spread of the University idea through England than the decision of the Government... in 1918... to allot eight million to enable Ex-Servicemen to enjoy the privileges of University education... 27,000 went to University..."
(50)

The result was the formation of an Interdepartmental Committee on Further Education and Training with terms of reference

"To consider and report upon the plans to secure, on demobilisation, the further education or training necessary to equip them for appropriate occupations in civil life..."
(51)

The committee took the name of its chairman, Lord Hankey (1877-1963), who had served as Secretary to the Cabinet from 1916 until 1938, and it spawned sub-committees for nearly every profession and occupation throughout the land, from economists to town planners, librarians to electrical engineers, bankers and social workers. Included in the list were journalists and evidence on their behalf was sought from the Journalists' Advisory Committee to the Appointments Department of the Ministry of Labour and National Service. The deliberations of these sub-committees were deep and far-reaching, producing estimates of their professional manpower requirements in the two years after the cessation of hostilities. (52)

The report of the journalists' committee was published in the Interdepartmental Committee's Second Report in December, 1944. This report is given in three paragraphs of twenty typewritten lines and ignores most of the vital evidence submitted by the journalists. (53) It entirely ignores the details of support for the "London University Diploma Course in Journalism (which) proved a valuable training ground and undoubtedly served a most useful purpose." (54) The journalists actually stated that

"it is hoped the Course will be resumed at no distant date... and this method of journalistic training might with advantage be extended to other British universities." (55)

No reference to this is included in the Second Report of the Interdepartmental Committee, nor to the discussions held

between the two committees later in the year when the journalists again stressed that they would favour the extension of courses in journalism along the line of the London University School of Journalism. (56) They also stated that University trained men were likely to go further than boys who entered from secondary school. One of the journalists added that

"the success of such courses depended on experienced teachers. The London School had the advantage of a Director, Mr Tom Clarke, who was a most experienced journalist and was a former editor of the News Chronicle." (57)

Another, from the Institute of Journalists, said commercial correspondence courses were of no value and should be strongly discouraged.

The comments that were published were more pessimistic in nature and mentioned the need to re-instate returning servicemen, and the shortage of newsprint, as contributing to the difficulty in estimating postwar manpower requirements, and so providing "few openings for men or women who have been on war service." (58)

It is difficult, nearly forty years later, to ascertain how widely the Interdepartmental Committee's report was seen by participants in the debate over journalism education. Such references as the author has seen indicate that the journalists who contributed to the report of the Journalists' Advisory Committee felt they had stated the case in favour

of University-based courses in journalism. (59)

The Newspaper Society itself devoted some time to considering the future of the Journalism Course at the University of London and appointed a sub-committee to deal with the question. Their representative on the Journalism Committee, Mr Norman Robson, himself a former student on the course, reviewed the course pointing out that, in the early years, "too much academic training was attempted," (60) His report included extracts from a letter from the Principal of King's College, Dr W.R. Halliday, dated June 22, 1943, where the University view appeared:

"... the Diploma is unsatisfactory in its present form on the grounds (a) that it is non-homogenous; (b) that there is always difficulty in combining vocational and academic courses, as in practice one side is bound to predominate to the detriment of the other, and (c) that the academic courses are too miscellaneous in character." (61)

The University saw it meeting a "limited demand from serious students from overseas" but were strongly of the opinion that "if the course is to be continued the academic standard must be substantially raised." (62)

The Newspaper Society decided that, in view of the tone of Dr Halliday's letter, early representations by journalists were necessary and Mr Robson suggested that, if the course was to be reconstituted, the following conditions of entry ought to be insisted upon:

- "1. At least one year in a newspaper office (except in the case of Servicemen) before taking up the course;
2. A working knowledge of shorthand and typing;
3. A general standard of education of the level of Matriculation, School-leaving, or equivalent, certificate."

The major change, over pre-war conditions of entry, was the insistence upon experience and the possession of Matriculation which, in itself, might meet the requirements of the University for strengthened academic training. The first condition, newspaper experience, was one that, by the last few years of the course, many entrants actually met. The second had been satisfactorily dealt with between 1935 and 1939, in Clarke's Directorship.

Mr Robson was not in favour of extending the idea of university education for journalism to other universities. Sir Robert Webber, however, much as he supported the London scheme, felt there was room for courses at newer universities. Whether there would be the necessary number of "journalistic instructors" was something Robson doubted. (63)

The N.U.J. also came out in favour of continuing the Diploma course at London University in 1944 and the minutes note that

"resumption of the course would cost an initial £2,000 and an annual outlay of £2,000... agreed the course was desirable and the National Executive Council be recommended to make a grant not exceeding £200... but... no annual charge be undertaken." (64)

These figures were based on a letter written by the Union's Education Officer, Mr H.S. Toynbee, in August, 1944, which show an estimated expenditure of £7,000 p.a., and a deficit of £2,000 p.a., as noted above. (See Appendix XXI). When figures were next quoted, in 1946, estimated expenditure had risen to £12,000 a year and the University had indicated it was not prepared to take direct control of a reconstituted journalism course and the Journalism Committee itself was hoping to set up an "Institute to furnish the course" (65) if journalistic organisations were prepared to find £7,000 of the estimated £12,000 needed.

It is difficult to know now just how these various figures were calculated, but there is a hint in the comment made by a member of the Journalism Committee when he stated:

"the blitz had so affected King's College buildings that it was unlikely that the Journalism Course be resumed for quite some time. Forty rooms and 25 members of staff would have to be provided to maintain the course which the University of London had before the war." (66)

As the figure of 25 staff is five times the pre-war staff total it is difficult to see how the increase was estimated in the post-war proposals. The most Dr Harrison's pre-war proposals for developing the course into a School of Journalism had called for was a staff of six with two of these, in economics and history, part-time appointments. Office staff added another three, making nine in all. And

these proposals remained just that - they were never implemented. Where the figure of 25 staff comes from, is a mystery. (67)

While the University seemed to be inferring it ran the course at a loss (vide the need for £2,000 p.a. to meet the excess of expenditure over fee-income, noted above) we have to remind ourselves that, between the wars, the University must have welcomed the fee-income from journalism students - about £2,000 annually in most years - especially as it was not involved in any major expense in the early years as most students attended lectures provided for those taking the Intermediate Arts courses. To put the journalism course into some kind of perspective there is an interesting comparison to be made with a course which started the same year as the Diploma, in the School of Librarianship, in 1919. Its fee-income in its first year was £900 and it supported a full-time director and five full-time specialist lecturers. The librarians' course was fortunate in receiving a small annual subvention from a charitable organisation which met any deficit; the Diploma for Journalism did not receive such benefits, although students on the course benefit to the tune of £900 annually in scholarships contributed mainly by provincial newspapers through the auspices of the Newspaper Society. (68)

The University view was expressed in the minutes of the Senate:

"... the Senate are willing to continue the award of the Diploma, provided that a satisfactory scheme of study can be agreed upon, but that they are not prepared to re-establish a School of Journalism, or to provide the necessary instructional facilities which should be undertaken by the Profession itself."
(69)

Sir Linton Andrews had written a memorandum on behalf of the Institute of Journalists proposing a "Technical Committee of Inquiry into the future training of newspaper workers, and the possibility of basing it upon a curriculum" (70) which would have industry-wide relevance. He wanted a "scheme of training which could be embodied in a national system of education." Although the memorandum was aimed at getting the Minister of Education to set up such an inquiry all he offered was a Board of Education official to act as an adviser. Andrews believed in the kind of training offered by Clarke at London University before the war, yet he saw a danger in producing journalists "too academic in their outlook." (71) Clarke responded to his friend's comments deploring the melancholy state of affairs in which "we muddle on in the old haphazard way." (72)

Clarke returned to the question of perpetuating university-based education for journalism in a letter to The Times later the same year (see Appendix XXII) in which he commented upon

"... academic bodies... fears of endangering their standards by the merging of academic and practical studies which is essential in any journalism course worthy the name." (73)

Because of the university's "jealousy regarding their standards" Clarke suggested the idea of a Journalism Society

"such as the Law Society - providing its own programme of studies, its own professional code, and its avenues of recruitment: but that seems something far off."

But this was attempted, as an undated letter in the King's College archives suggests when replying to intending applicants for the journalism course: "the professional associations... tried to establish some form of Institute to be conducted in association with the University, but this proved to be impossible." (74) The absence of such an Institute was something which puzzled a member of the third Royal Commission of the Press in 1977 and, had it existed, there might have been little need for three such Commissions. (75)

10. e. New Moves Towards a National System of Training.

Even as these ideas were being aired in the press various organisations were deliberating the way forward. In May, 1945, the N.U.J. discussed proposals for "Recruitment and Training" (76) which were in response to an earlier invitation from the Newspaper Society to engage in tripartite discussions on the subject with the Institute of Journalists. (77) By the time the Newspaper Society's Monthly Circular was announcing the University of London's unwillingness to continue the Diploma course, in May, 1946, it was anticipating receiving the N.U.J.'s scheme for training

junior journalists. (78)

Although there were major disagreements with the Union over selection of recruits (with Andrews leading this attack (79)) a year later Mr Hamson re-enters the arena, this time in the Newspaper Society colours seeking to

"minimise the divergence between the conflicting views, urging the necessity of setting up a training scheme at the earliest possible moment." (80)

Mr Hamson's wish seemed to come true within three months when the Society expressed its willingness to establish a National Advisory Council, (81) in which representatives of all sides would be included, to "establish a training scheme for junior journalists." However nothing had materialised by November, 1948, as the Society informed the Royal Commission on the Press, (82) with both sides (i.e. Union and Society) blaming each other for the delay. The Newspaper Society said it had no quarrels with the Union on the training aspects of the scheme, just on the selection which they interpreted as interfering with the editorial power of selection of staff. The Apprenticeship Authority was called in to try and help solve this impasse, but it was not until 1951 that the nucleus of a National Advisory Council was in embryonic form, including, among its members, Mr Norman Robson and Mr E. Jay and Mr H.S. Toynbee, the Union's Education Officer; these three had all involved themselves in the question of education for journalism and the one man, on the Union side, who had worked so hard for this, Mr Hamson, "our first great

educationist", (83) only lived a few months after the announcement.

At a series of conferences early in 1952 the National Advisory Council agreed on details for a General Proficiency Test and Certificate of Training, spread over a three-year basic course, while a Vocational Training Committee deliberated on draft articles for indenturing junior journalists and the National Diploma Committee, chaired by Mr Norman Robson, outlined details for the advanced course. These would be required to submit a thesis, after 18 months, on a subject of their own choice.

"The object... is to encourage journalists to extend their interests beyond the point of acquiring a general level of education and a recognised degree of technical competence."
(84)

Candidates for the Diploma would also take examination which would include

"... practical tests of journalistic knowledge; questions on the structure of the newspaper industry; the relation of various departments to each other and the history of journalism." (85)

The National Advisory Council also commissioned a Manual of Training, and proofs of this were available at its next meetings on May 25 and 26, when the appointment of its first,

full-time, Executive Officer, was announced. (86) On June 11, 1952, the General Purposes Committee of the Newspaper Society - sitting in lieu of the Council - approved a contribution of £650 to the new Council's budget, estimated at £2,500 for its first year, exclusive of rent and rates. So the National Advisory Council for the Training and Education of Junior Journalists began its independent existence on July 1, 1952. (87)

The N.U.J. contributed to all these meetings and, additionally, sought the agreement of its members at a Special Delegate Meeting, in 1946, to the proposed scheme. The hard-worked Education Committee also had to plan, and execute, a very comprehensive scheme for returning ex-servicemen wanting to take a "refresher" correspondence course which the Committee arranged with Ruskin College, Oxford. (88) For this the Committee produced several handbooks on law, reporting, and sub-editing, which contained much of educational interest, as well as recruiting a team of working journalists to act as tutors to correspondents and, at one time, 750 people were signed up to take the course, with 78 tutors to assess their work. Much of the Union's time between 1946 and 1949 was also taken up with preparing the groundwork for the first-ever Royal Commission on the Press, and in presenting evidence, both written and oral.

Another factor contributing to both the Union, and Newspaper Society, action on schemes of education and training was the decision of the Senate of London University

not to continue the Diploma course. After April, 1946, there was little hope of revitalising university education for journalism, so other schemes assumed a priority which they did not have until the Diploma for Journalism was seen to be a non-starter. (89)

10. f. The First Royal Commission on the Press, 1947-9.

(i) The Policy Committee

This Committee was set up after a meeting of the full Commission held on July 17, 1947, with the brief "to consider what questions of policy should be examined by the Commission, and how; and to make recommendations to the Commission. (90) The Commission itself was the result of pressure from the National Union of Journalists (91) for an investigation into the "monopolistic tendencies in the control of the Press with the object of furthering... the greatest possible accuracy in the presentation of news..." (92)

Membership of the Policy Committee included the chairman, Sir David Ross (1877-1971) Provost of Oriel College, Oxford, from 1929 to 1947; Lady Violet Bonham-Carter, later Baroness Asquith (1887-1969); (Sir) Robert C.K. Ensor (1877-1958); G.M. Young (1882-1952); (Sir) Hubert Hull (1887-1976); and Miss Eirwen Mary Owen. They were assisted by the Commission secretary, Miss Jean Nunn, a Girton College, Cambridge, graduate, a principal in the Home Office.

Of these Ensor had been a journalist before becoming a historian, like Young, Hull was a civil servant, and Lady Bonham-Carter had just finished a term as a Governor of the BBC (1941-6). Ensor, Ross and Young were all connected, in some way, with Balliol College, Oxford.

It was the Policy Committee's task to formulate the questions to be addressed to witnesses and it called upon people like Leonard Woolf (1880-1969), joint editor of the Political Quarterly from 1931 to 1959, and Sir William Haley (b. 1901) then Director-General of the BBC, a former journalist on the Manchester Evening News who later edited The Times from 1952 to 1966, to discuss topics with them. Miss Nunn drew up a list of "Questions on which information and conclusions will be required" and the "Appropriate body to investigate" was placed on the right-hand side of the list. The 'body' could be the full Commission, the Policy Committee, the Secretariat or Research (which was under a specially-appointed officer, Mr R. Silverman.) One of "the causes" of journalistic inaccuracy was seen to be "poor education of journalists" and under "Remedies" the document lists

"Education, and training of journalist - entry, supervision, organisation, University and post-graduate courses. Professional organisation - chartered body embracing journalists only. Registration. Press Council-form and functions. Should it include disciplinary functions or economic functions..." (93)

(ii) Views on Education

Members of the Royal Commission saw the Press Council's major impact on journalism would be to improve training, education and recruitment. G.M. Young (1882-1959), the historian, held the opinion that a good deal of inaccuracy and distortion could be attributed to ignorance, so training and education obviously had a direct bearing on the object of their inquiry. This was supported by quoting examples of recklessness in the use of figures, totally inadequate accounts of speeches, misleading comparisons allied to a tendency to base sweeping generalisations on a single statement or example. These were all included as "factors leading to distortion" which were categorised as:

- "(i) categorical statements made on inadequate evidence
- (ii) the accumulative effect of striking headlines
- (iii) inaccuracy of detail... due to speed of production
- (iv) sensationism and over-emphasis on the novel and the new to the exclusion of the continuing." (94)

G.M. Young, however, believed the press was often made the scapegoat for the

"inherent traits of the multitude. The great public likes the sensation and triviality; it doesn't mind something more substantial (and he saw that the) twaddle served as ways to carry the heavier cargo" (95)

and this, to him, was evidence that the press would accelerate this progress as education advanced. Another

member, R.C.K. Ensor (1877-1958), journalist-turned-historian, submitted a six-page memorandum drawing attention to press distortion for personal, or vicious, motives, quoting Northcliffe's vendetta against Mr Asquith and Beaverbrook's and Rothermere's against Stanley Baldwin. (96) He also drafted a bill to regulate the invasion of privacy. (97)

These views were re-inforced by evidence from a working journalist of sixty years experience - fifty of them as editor of provincial/suburban London, newspapers - H.T. Hamson, whose early work for the National Union of Journalists' Education Committee has already been touched on. In fact Hamson was a founder member both of the N.U.J. and the Guild of Editors of Great Britain, and rightly described himself, to the Commission as a pioneer of the movement for education of journalists. (98)

Hamson kept the Commission primed with supplies of papers on the subject of journalism education, especially those discussed by the N.U.J. and the Newspaper Society in the late 1940's mentioned earlier. With such a wealth of experience it would appear that members of the Royal Commission were avid listeners to someone who provided them with information, based upon experience, to re-inforce their conclusions. In his evidence Hamson stated he had early formed the opinion that reporters were not particularly well-informed people and, because of their weak knowledge of affairs, they were often unable to grasp the real news value - or the implications - of the sundry topics they had to deal

with at meetings, lectures, and local government affairs. He criticised them for their attitude of pretended indifference, which was really one of ignorance, and deplored the effect this had on younger staff and to the subsequent loss to the public welfare springing from their inability to correctly follow what was happening. This, Hamson, believed, explained the prejudice against the press held by many bodies and officials (vide the similarity of comments to the Third Royal Commission on the Press, in 1977, by both the Trade Union Congress and the Confederation of British Industries.) One oft-quoted phrase by the then editor of the Sunday Express, John Gordon, that "whenever we see a story in a newspaper concerning something we know about... it is more often wrong than right" was made in the context of the educational requirements for journalism.

These "occasional weaknesses" Hamson traced to the haphazard way beginners were still introduced to journalism, without proper training and an absence of special education in the kind of subjects likely to be of use during the journalist's career. One result of this was "half-baked people going on to Fleet Street newspapers, where they would most likely end up as permanent incompetents, or, at least, very shallow reporters." Properly trained and educated professional journalists would "decline to place more stress on the sensational than the factual, or to act more as public entertainers than as purveyors of news and information." (99)

While the Royal Commission archives, in their present

depleted state, contain no reference by Hamson to the London University Diploma for Journalism course we know that he reported favourably on students to Tom Clarke. (100)

The Report's conclusions echo Hamson's sentiments in their entirety:

"Unless the journalist has some knowledge and understanding of the subject on which he is working, he can hardly report it accurately. He cannot obtain the information he needs or assess the reliability of the information given. If he lacks the background which makes an event, a speech, or a discovery significant, he cannot make it significant, or even intelligible to his readers; and being unable to make his subject itself interesting, he will tend to fall back on the trivialities incidental to it." (101)

It must have struck the members of the Commission that a University course, such as that at London University between 1919 and 1939, must have contributed, in some measure, towards realising some of these statements. Even in this, however, there were problems to be overcome: such a one was the attitude of proprietors like Lord Beaverbrook: his Lordship was strongly of the opinion that journalists could not be trained in universities in the ways of journalism. (102) Consequently none of the six former students of the London course ever admitted to being on the course, at least not within earshot of his Lordship.

While it is difficult to ascertain how the Commission weighted the evidence they heard one is heartened by the fact that they seemed to give little credence to the claim of Mr

Laurence Cadbury of the News Chronicle, that its forerunner, the Daily News, had started the course. Such a claim is, of course, entirely without foundation.

(iii) Comments on the London University Diploma for Journalism

The response to the Royal Commission's question on the London course was as varied as one would expect from the wide variety of newspaper people called to give evidence before them. The Newspaper Proprietors' (now Publishers') Association criticised the course for failing to place many of its graduates in newspapers, while the Newspaper Society - responsible for the representation of the provincial newspaper groups across the country - declared it wished to see the course reviewed, because of the precedent which other universities might have followed. Norman Robson, whose work on behalf of journalism education appears earlier in this chapter, thought that the small numbers entering newspapers reflected more the desires of parents to get a semi-academic education for their children without the expense of taking a degree. He also thought that the course had improved under Clarke but that too high a proportion of students had preferred to work on magazines (which the author has noticed in talking to former students.) He did not see the course providing specialists, either in sports or finance or politics, but in giving students a good general education and an introduction to other subjects which, if they had begun

working life as newspaper reporters, they would not have had time to get. The limitation, as Robson saw it, was that students could only claim a rudimentary knowledge of journalism and practical reporting, even after Clarke's introduction of more reporting assignments. (103)

Here it is useful to note that Sir Linton Andrews later criticised newspapers (especially the national dailies) for not finding places for students from the course. (104) Andrews preferred Clarke's students because he knew they would be "trained in accurate habits of mind", always asking themselves "Have I got these names right? Have I given a fair summary of this man's speech?" Andrews felt that the young men from ordinary university courses might have a predilection for spelling people's names wrongly, and he despaired of one local (presumably Leeds) academic who said that Anglo-Saxon was the best course for educating journalists.

Supporters of the London course included Sir Robert Webber (d. 1961), managing director of the Western Mail in Cardiff, who had told Clarke he was doing most important work, considering how neglected had been the education of journalists. (105) Arthur Christiansen, editor of the Daily Express from 1933 to 1957, told the Commission he had employed a gold-medallist from the course who "had been no better than the average journalist trained in the provinces without the benefit of any university education." Yet this same student was praised by a provincial newspaper editor

because "he pulled his weight in a way that was totally unexpected." (106) These two comments reveal how the Fleet Street Editor, Christiansen, thought the student "no better" than average when the provincial editor was impressed at his ability, even as a student.

Not surprisingly the Institute of Journalists joined with the Newspaper Society in praising the London course, as did Kemsley Newspapers, and four other newspaper groups. Only Berrows Newspapers regarded the course as a failure (but Royal Commission on the Press Policy Committee minutes note that Mr R.G. Crowther said the course was the laughing stock of Fleet Street.) Even so, six newspaper groups favoured university education of some kind and these included some of the more reputable members of the provincial stable including the East Anglian Daily Times, the Liverpool Daily Post, the Western Mail, Home Counties Newspapers and the Kentish Times Group. Tillotsen's Newspapers also favoured university education, but after spending a few years on newspapers, and they had taken several former Diploma students who had "all made good." The Times said university training was the best method while even the Newspaper Proprietors' Association saw graduates always having an advantage over their colleagues in the long run. The Manchester Guardian expressed the view that more graduates should be encouraged to enter the sub-editorial side of newspapers. Also favouring the idea of university education were the Westminster Press Group (Norman Robson was chief of their leader-writing department) and the Birmingham Post and Mail (who had supported Birmingham University proposals for a post-graduate course in 1908.)

The secretary of the Newspaper Society, Mr E.W. Davies (d. 1980), as well as the then editor-in-chief of the Press Association, both supported the idea of having more university-trained men in journalism because there was "practically no cultural standard among reporters and sub-editors..." Lord Burnham, of the Daily Telegraph (formerly Colonel Lawson and former chairman of the Journalism Committee of London University) said there was divided opinion among newspapermen about what constituted the best form of training but, in his opinion, the London course had been good only after the appointment of Clarke. "Even then the mixture of academic and practical had been far from perfect, and nowhere near complete technical training." When asked, by members of the Commission, about the N.U.J.'s spokesman's assessment of the course as "unsuccessful" Lord Burnham replied that the spokesman, Mr Bundock, had served with him on the Journalism Committee for many years and had never said that then. Bundock, N.U.J. general secretary, had little newspaper experience (107) and did not present the Union's case to its best advantage, according to one member, Sir George Vickers. In his evidence to the Royal Commission Lord Burnham blamed the demise of the Diploma course on the inability of the university authorities to provide either accommodation or staff but, as Sir Tom Hopkinson points out, (108) this interpretation itself is suspect because of the fact that the newspaper industry as a whole was not prepared to commit money to the scheme (although Newspaper Society Monthly Circular's indicate that there was support among its members.) Norman Robson, as a former member of the

university's Journalism Committee, also found that the academics were unwilling to provide the professional element of technical journalism which they thought the industry ought to pay for (by founding a chair or similar financial backings.)

10. g. One effect of the Existence of the Royal Commission on the Press

The very existence of the Royal Commission was viewed by many in the newspaper industry as a threat, moreso because of the N.U.J.'s part in its inauguration. The editor of the Daily Mail was reported in The Times saying:

"when the Royal Commission on the Press began its investigations into the newspapers and newspapermen of the country, the British Press would be on trial." (109)

So, while the London University course was discontinued before the start of the Royal Commission, its absence was also a factor in bringing all sides back together in 1948 to try and formulate proposals for the national training scheme, outlined above. Nevertheless, the Union's educational ideas were severely pruned before the Newspaper Society would go ahead with the scheme. We only have to examine these proposals (Appendix XII a & b) and compare them with the subjects offered when the training body was set up, in 1952, when only Use of English, Law, Public Administration, shorthand and typing were obligatory. The conclusion must be that the provincial newspaper industry did not want education

but training, and so it was that, after 1955, the title of the National Council for the Training and Education of Junior Journalists was changed to the National Council for the Training of Journalists. It took the Council thirteen years to introduce schemes for college-based one-year courses for school-leavers, called pre-entry courses and, the following year, 1966, steps were taken to introduce courses in universities.

10. h. First Post-war Scheme to Involve Universities

The second director of the N.C.T.J., John Dodge, favoured the idea of post-graduate courses for journalists and managed to gather sufficient funds to enable Tom Hopkinson to take up the post of Senior Research Fellow, in 1967, (110) at the new University of Sussex, to investigate the possibility of such a venture. Nearly £10,000 was raised, mainly from provincial newspaper groups and individual papers, with the N.U.J. contributing £500 (from the royalties on a book, The Practice of Journalism) and the I.O.J. £50

A note "Press Studies at Sussex" dated March, 1966, under the name of the Dean of Social Studies at Sussex, Professor (now Lord) Briggs, indicates that the University had been

"interested for the last two years in the idea of setting up a Centre for the study of communication in modern society" (111)
(Appendix XXIII)

and sought £5,000 a year to fund the Fellowship for Hopkinson.

The University had already organised a course for journalists, under Charles Fenby (112) when the International Press Institute held a session on training, in 1965.

The introduction of several new universities into the academic mainstream, during the 1960's made people like Dodge and George Viner (d. 1983), who was then the N.U.J.'s Education Officer, think that the time was ripe to try and institute some form of post-graduate education for journalism. Viner thought Sussex was "the best centre... because of its nearness to London and special qualities." He went on to say that "Asa Briggs is also President of the W(orkers) E(ducational) A(ssociation) and I meet him from time to time."

Hopkinson supplemented his finances with a grant from the Ford Foundation to visit American universities where journalism education had a long history at undergraduate level, with Columbia University, New York, running a post-graduate course. Hopkinson came down against the undergraduate idea because graduates who might later wish to change employment could "be severely handicapped by this limitation" (113) especially when students did not usually make career choices until their last year in university. Hopkinson produces no evidence for these statements, the validity of which the author regards as merely showing

Hopkinson's own view on the subject, i.e. that he was expected to produce a post-graduate proposal. He also thought establishing a degree course would place "heavy burdens of extra work and organisation on existing schools" which would have to supply important elements in the proposed course in journalism. He also rejected the idea of a two-year diploma, considering it too short for anyone to obtain both "valuable *academic instruction and professional training*" and he did not think it possible for the London University Diploma course to have provided

"a comprehensive and co-ordinated curriculum of modern or current knowledge, together with instruction and practice in writing for the Press."

This claim, he said, rang hollow and he regarded it as an "almost useless qualification". (114) The chief reviewer of The Observer, writing to the author in 1978, stated that she had used it as a stepping-stone to getting a degree at Oxford. (115)

Hopkinson saw a post-graduate year as a "transfer year" in which students would spend most of their time, in vacation, working on newspapers or in radio and television newsrooms. Even if a student failed he would still have academic qualifications for employment in other fields. He also linked this idea to the first pre-entry, one-year, courses run at Colleges, recognised by the N.C.T.J., saying that the industry would be likelier to accept proposals of this nature.

The pedagogic task Hopkinson set for himself is worth considering in its detail:

"the basic aim of the course... is to produce a man or woman who can go into a newsroom - either in radio, television or on a newspaper - and be immediately useful, allowing for the fact that in any office there are variations of custom and routine to be picked up. He should be able to write a news story in correct and vigorous English, 'sub' it, make up a page, select and mark up pictures. He should be capable of interviewing people in any walk of life, and be familiar with the procedure of Parliament, the machinery of local government, the working of courts of law. He should know enough law to guard against libel, slander, contempt of court, and possess a sufficient knowledge of the social services.

He should be familiar with the organisation of a newspaper on the editorial side. He must have a clear picture of the whole inter-locked complex of modern communications. He should know something of printing techniques, the financing of newspapers, and the work of the circulation and advertising departments. He should have some understanding of the computer... as well as in opinion-sampling techniques." (116)

Hopkinson also thought special abilities "like leader-writing or political correspondent" might be included in the curriculum, without fully appreciating what that entailed, and that lectures by visiting journalists would provide professional elements. Two staff and 15 to 20 students would be able to call on Suxxex University's resources in "the fields of social studies, languages, law and sciences."

Once the scheme looked possible John Dodge was looking for larger sums of money from Fleet Street newspapers -

members of the Newspaper Proprietors' Association - to endow journalism studies at Sussex. He received a verbal offer, over the telephone, from Mr Cecil King, of the Mirror Group of newspapers, offering £25,000, but this was counter-manded by Mr (now Lord) Hugh Cudlipp. (117) Dodge states that the Printing and Publishing Industries Training Board, which was set up in May, 1969, made implementation of the course at Sussex impossible, yet it did start, in 1970, at University College, Cardiff, where Hopkinson was invited to introduce the subject, supported by Mr Don Rowlands, then editor of a respected morning paper in Cardiff and now Director of the Thomson Foundation.

In a report on his first year at Cardiff Hopkinson commented on the difficulties he had encountered in trying to establish the kind of syllabus he described as "background knowledge" which post-graduate students of journalism required. When the course started in Cardiff in October, 1970, he selected courses from the undergraduate curriculum:

"economics, industrial relations, sociology and social administration, elements of British government, the economic development of the USA and USSR, criminology and the use of the computer." (118)

These, he continued, formed the least satisfactory part of the course, with two exceptions in law and government, and he criticised the undergraduate courses for taking a "more leisurely approach adapted to a longer course of study... journalism students learn better in an atmosphere of free discussion rather than in a lecture-room situation."

The comments indicate Hopkinson's difficulties which, if he had studied what happened on the London University Diploma for Journalism, he might have been able to avoid, especially bearing in mind Dr Harrison's proposals for a School of Journalism which offered courses in non-examinable (background) lectures. (119)

10. i. Review and Summary

One of the accepted views about the National Union of Journalists is that it has always fought for pay and conditions and relegated education and training for journalism to more recent times. This tenet is revealed to have very little foundation in fact,¹ illustrated by the activities of the N.U.J. Education Committee, and its propaganda work in favour of education in the columns of the N.U.J.'s The Journalist (See Appendix XXV). The support for such schemes by employers' organisations is also revealed to be much more extensive than the mythology surrounding the subject would indicate. The Newspaper Society's scale of support is indicated in the extent of Mr Valentine Knapp's fund-raising, among its members, to provide scholarships for students on the London University Diploma for Journalism after the State awards to returning Servicemen ended in the early 1920's.

It is the author's opinion that what results there have been, in the field of education and training for journalism,¹ are the efforts of a small team of doggedly persistent

propagandists; their influence can be traced chronologically up to the introduction of the first National Council for the Education and Training of the Junior Journalist in 1952. Whether they were pupils in the Journalistic Classes at the City of London School in the first decade of the twentieth century (like Alan Pitt Robbins, who was on the steering committee for the above-named Council), or attended the Diploma for Journalism in the second decade (as did Norman Robson who served on the Council's Diploma committee), or had Hamson, one of the N.U.J.'s early Education Committee members), their presence in the continuing debate provided some semblance of continuity to what, originally, appeared to the author as disparate and contradictory phases.

The evolving stages in the search for a system of educating journalists mirror the contradictions those seeking solutions to the problems had to face: journalism was changing and responding to a variety of influences, internally - those allied to changes in technology - and externally - those which tied it to its readers initially and, more widely, to society. With no professional monitoring device to attune them to the long-term effects of such changes journalists could only respond to the immediate and obvious demands placed upon them - such is the nature of their work. These changes cannot be separated from those usually designated as their originators - people like Stead, Northcliffe or Beaverbrook - but theirs was a demonic role, as Piers Brendon has so clearly indicated. (120) What happened at the "workface" of journalistic activity - and how

the "innovators" influence has been perpetuated or modified to meet changing circumstances - requires a separate study beyond the scope of this present enquiry.

Even though a former President of the Board of Education H.A.L. Fisher (1865-1940) could believe that the introduction of state-supported grants for returning ex-servicemen after World War 1 wishing to undertake university courses "contributed to the spread of the University idea through England," (121) it was nowhere near as widespread as it was in America, where no such state support was needed. Hence the feeling of the National Union of Journalists describing their "temerity in approaching universities" (122) when seeking to widen the educational opportunities available to their members. Raising the question of correspondence courses with British universities in 1925 was either too advanced a step to expect of them, or foolhardy, depending on your point of view. Yet the University of Chicago had introduced such a course in 1899. (123) It did not become an acceptable practice to British academics until the introduction of the Open University, seventy years later. In fact the author believes the N.U.J. was among the first to foster this approach, using self-marking and tutor-assessed questions, in its post-World War 2 attempts to provide returning journalists with a "refresher" course.

Trying to disentangle the reasons for the demise of the Diploma for Journalism course at London University is no easy task but there is one explanation which the author supports. This relates to the unusual decision of the Interdepartmental

Committee on Further Education and Training in 1944, under Lord Hankey, to exclude all favourable references both to London University course, in particular, and to the general statements favouring the extension of such causes to other universities, from its three-paragraph summary of the memorandum presented to the Committee by the Journalists' Advisory Committee to the Appointments Department of the Ministry of Labour and National Service. Those who sat on that Committee were of the opinion that the Hankey Committee had published their favourable references (124) when, in fact, they had not. This three-paragraph summary strikes a very negative note compared to the Journalists' Advisory Council's very full report and, as the Interdepartmental Committee was originally instigated by the Board of Education, it is fair to assume that the three-paragraph summary was enshrined therein as the gospel about journalism education. One consequence could have been R.A. Bulter's refusal, when Minister of Education, to support the I.O.J. request for a special inquiry into journalism education, in 1944. (125)

Regardless of the fact that both employers and trade union organisations joined in supporting the continuance of the London course, no official moves in its favour meant it had little chance of being revived, especially as space was at a premium in bomb-damaged post-war London, though where the figures (of forty rooms and 25 staff) came from is a mystery. (126) The lack of such an advanced course (which King's College inspectors noted should become postgraduate in

1937 (127) bedevilled later attempts at introducing such courses and the impetus shifted towards the growing areas of further, and technical, education after the 1944 Education Act indicated funds would be available.

The impetus towards a national scheme must have been accelerated by the "considerable interest... going to be laid on this question in the report" (128) of the Royal Commission on the Press, as the trade press anticipated, in 1949. The writer continued

"my guess is that the Royal Commission on the Press will put its finger on this spot and jab till it hurts."

Whether any Royal Commission can achieve so much with just a "jab" is doubtful, but there appears to have been a sense in which, on the employers' side as well as on the union side, counsels of moderation (supported by H.T. Hamson) enabled the negotiations (which had also included the Institute of Journalists) to be continued with renewed vigour. The surprise, in the Commission's Report, was the prominence given to the second function of the proposed General Council of the Press: "to improve the methods of recruitment, education and training for the profession."

Reaction to the Report centred on the proposal to set up a Press Council, as it soon became known, but the educational aspect kept The Times correspondence column busy from July to November, 1949. One of those who "flowed from Oxford onto Fleet Street" was John Connell (1909-65)

B.A. (Balliol; 1931) who went onto the Evening News in 1932; serving as a leader-writer from 1945 to 1959. Connell deplored the lack of moral or historical background

"against which the daily torrent of happenings - in their complexity and perversity - can be assessed. The lack of background is really lack of knowledge... a complement of slick knowingness; a shallow cynicism; enshrined in the phrase "What's the racket behind the story?" (129)

For Connell the remedy was a higher general standard of education in journalists' in a greater knowledge; more widely backed and more soundly based; of what human life really is." Someone who had served various papers as correspondent in Bonn and Paris; including the Morning Post from 1928 to 1932, was (Sir) John Pollock (1878-1963); who graduated from Cambridge in 1900; commented on how "the five best posts on the British Press had been filled (during the period 1920-1932) by scholars of King's, Brasenose, and New Colleges; a Fellow of Trinity and a Master at Eton." (130)

A member of the Commission; Sir George Waters; (1880-1965) editor of The Scotsman; complained of the treatment the Report received in the newspapers and he; personally; doubted if journalism was "attracting the young adventurous minds" which he did not necessarily equate with university education. (131) Others feared the introduction of a "centralised bureau" which would make it easier to subjugate the press to a totalitarian regime; they; of course favoured the more romantic; "self-help" image of the journalist

reading his way through life (132) while another Cambridge graduate; Wilson Harris (1883-1955) did not doubt "the young journalist can read... but wisely-guided study is always better than random reading." (133) For Harris the relevant point was how all those testifying (including "other ranks") believed that journalists "had to learn a great deal more than (school) examiners require" indicating - without openly stating it - that the schools were ill-equipped for preparing future citizens well-versed in the ways of government. Harris thought that picking up journalism as they went along (solvitur ambulando) was "imperfect technical education".

This seems to echo the P.E.P. "Report on the British Press" of 1938, which included the criticism that

"it is too freely assumed in newspaper offices that a journalist can pick up anything without special study... whereas the truth often is that the standard of accuracy and judgment reached this way... is so low as to be valueless to anyone informed about the subject in question."

In this way the Royal Commission's report only extended the pre-war criticisms; enabling P.E.P. to say "there was nothing new in the Report." (134) The difference was that, within three years of the Commission's Report, there was in existence a National Council for the Education and Training of the Junior Journalist. To that extent the author believes the first Royal Commission on the Press played an important role in pushing forward what might otherwise have struggled out over a longer period.

We have seen how it took thirteen years, from 1952 to 1965, for the N.C.T.J. to introduce the idea of one-year pre-entry courses for school-leavers. In 1965 there was another aspect affecting journalism recruitment from universities which is under-recognised outside the newspaper industry: that was the agreement between the N.U.J. and the Fleet Street national newspapers, represented by the Newspaper Publishers' Association, prohibiting direct entry of graduates from universities onto national newspapers. A former editor of The Guardian has commented on how seriously this affected his recruitment policy. (135) The implication for journalism education was that all courses, in future, would have to meet N.C.T.J. requirements, and that provincial newspapers would be the only places where the products of courses could secure employment. In effect, this amounted to barring entry to both Fleet Street and provincial newspapers unless applicants had followed an N.C.T.J.-approved course. The word "followed" is used here as it appears that such a course is optional for those working on newspapers and taking the N.C.T.J. Proficiency Certificate by block-release methods, according to the 1977 Report of the Royal Commission on the Press, paragraph 18.37. (136) Even those who take the Certificate, and fail, do not suffer loss of employment if they are working on a newspaper. Provincial newspaper employers also have to take into account the salaries payable to recruits on entry and these are determined by the entrant's age; therefore graduate entrants, being older, have to be paid more than school-leavers. This, tied to what

Andrew MacBarnett has called the "lingering resentment in the industry... to graduates" (137) made the introduction of post-graduate courses a necessity and Dodge's efforts at instituting a course at Sussex take on a new significance when we understand this background to the proposal. Sussex must also have seemed an ideal setting; within easy reach of London; with an approach to academic study which suggested a breadth not normally available to students. Asa Briggs view was that

"All undergraduates would be expected not to study a multitude of unrelated subjects side by side or one after the other, but continuously to relate their specialised study to impinging and overlapping studies." (138)

This would have seemed to augur well for the integrated teaching that Hopkinson believed should be offered at post-graduate level; but it did not start at Sussex University; and here we need to remind ourselves of English academics' attitudes toward journalism training as being "cautious... they are not convinced that in the case of journalism such training is even necessary vocationally." (139) The author sees an irony in the fact that many academics can acquire vast sums of Government money to study the press and media; but none to institute any form of journalism education. The ability of American universities to provide just such education is often regarded as evidence of how low they have sunk, in the minds of English academics.

The rejuvenation expected from the introduction of the new universities, which opened around Britain in the 1960's, seems to have had little effect upon academic attitudes towards the needs of society. According to Lord Annan education in universities has "continued without relevance to jobs in the City, commerce, government" (140) while many have suffered what another describes as "the ossification of departmental disciplines," (141) The strong undercurrent of expressions of disquiet felt about the role universities play in modern society is well documented (142) and is a measure of feelings expressed by both industry and government. During the late 1960's and early 1970's, when the author served in the civil service, there were persistent rumours about Cabinet proposals to reduce the number of universities, verified by people working in those departments. (143)

The lack of an academic underpinning to journalism education in England has meant that whole areas are inadequately researched and it is difficult to pinpoint changes and developments as they occur. This contrasts with the surfeit of material available to the American journalism educator, in the journal of that name, in Journalism Quarterly and numerous other journals. (144) When Tom Hopkinson was guiding his first post-graduate students at Cardiff, in 1970, towards work in newspapers he could add "and by extension, given recruitment patterns, in broadcasting." (145) The author introduces this, at this stage, to illustrate the difficulties facing anyone seeking to identify constituent elements included in the fabric of "journalism" without benefit of knowledge of how the threads

are woven. The accepted view of broadcast journalism was that it was an extension of newspaper journalism; as Hopkinson himself believed when he stated that his aim, in starting a course, was to produce a man or woman who can go into a newsroom - either in radio, television or on a newspaper. The list of functions applicable to print journalists includes nothing specific to broadcasting per se; neither is there any mention, in Hopkinson's own papers relating to his tenure of his Senior Fellowship at the University of Sussex, of any contact with broadcasting organisations, either BBC or ITV. The same year that he took up his fellowship the BBC introduced local radio to eight towns and, in 1969, appointed Robert McLeish as the local radio training officer to guide the BBC's second phase in 1970, when another twelve stations were planned. McLeish states that he would have expected to hear from Hopkinson especially after the course at University College, Cardiff, had started; but no such approaches were made. (146)

In 1977 the author was planning the first full-time course for radio journalism and began this research to help in the preparation. (147) That same year the Report of the Third Royal Commission on the Press was published and it recommended that the "emphasis... about the industrial as against the professional objectives of journalists' training... would have to be modified," and that it saw "merit in arranging courses in higher education establishments to provide a common foundation for all forms of journalism." (148) One result was a conference on editorial training supported by the Printing and Publishing

Industry Training Board (which was disbanded in 1982) one of whose officials, Philip Marsh, was a former student of the Diploma for Journalism course at London University. (149) The questions of professional and industrial training were discussed at the conference, organised by the British Section of the International Press Institute in October, 1980, and many of the arguments raised in this research were again raised. The author felt that conference illustrated how both academics and journalists were victims of the limited extent to which knowledge of the pre-war arguments had filtered through to them; it was as if the author was listening to a replay of discussions started back in 1884 when the National Association of Journalists (later the Institute of Journalists) first raised these issues in their forums.

Chapter Ten

References

1. (a) The Journalist, May, 1925. p.95: "After attending to hours and labour conditions... the subject of education, into which we were instructed by the last Annual Delegate Meeting to make inquiry, is a new departure in our activities. The decision to establish an Exhibition in Journalism at the University of London... at a cost of at least £200..." Harry Christian belittles this emphasis upon education in his doctoral dissertation (Christian, 1976) However, one commentator at the time regarded it as so unusual as to devote an article to it: "...reports of educational activities in The Journalist mark a significant change from the time when it was full of grievances. "W.Linton Andrews in Leeds Mercury, February 23, 1927. (Quoted in April, 1927, The Journalist.)

(b) Appendix XXV lists articles in The Journalist on Education from 1923 to 1937.

(c) The subject of education was regarded as requiring a defence from the editor of The Journalist (November, 1925): "Members have said to me, "Why put in The Journalist articles about education; it smacks of the Institute (of Journalists); well, not exactly... anything that will help to make a better journalist... and raise the standard of journalism and the working journalist..." (is part of Union work.)
2. MRC MSS 86/1/NEC/7 July 5, 1919.
3. The idea of an Education Committee was mooted by the President of the National Union of Journalists, J. Haslam. of the Manchester Guardian, in The Journalist, April, 1923. H.T. Hamson 'an outstanding pioneer of our educational movement. "Obituary, *ibid*, November, 1951.
4. MRC MSS 86/1/NEC/7 National Executive Council (NEC) January 31, 1920.
5. From the letter to Universities printed in The Journalist, October, 1925. "Journalists' Education Problem. An Appeal to British Universities."
6. *ibid*.
7. The letter was not sent to other universities, as shown below:
Manchester and Birmingham - recent inquiries produced nothing
Bristol - scheme already established
Cardiff - fruitless negotiations just ended
Liverpool - negotiations started
Educational Sub-committee Report, March 12, 1926 + MRC MSS 86/3

8. From J.R. Peddie, Official Adviser of Studies,¹ University of Glasgow dated September 30, 1925. MSS 86/3
9. D.A. Ewing,² Principal, Edinburgh University,³ 22 October, 1925.
10. *ibid.*
11. December 4, 1925
12. October 25, 1925, from Armstrong College,⁴ Newcastle
13. December 5, 1925. J.A. Little to J.S. Dean
14. *ibid.*
15. *ibid.*
16. November 10, 1925.
17. August 24, 1925. A.C. Seward, Master's Lodge, Downing College.
18. Professor Kirkcaldy, September 1, 1925.
19. July 1, 1925, "Education for Journalists. Existing Facilities." The Journalist.
20. *ibid.*
21. *ibid.* plus August, 1925: (ii) organised reading courses
22. Mainly Liverpool study circle. June 1927; January, 1930; November, 1930.
23. July, 1925. Existing Facilities.
24. *ibid.* August, 1925.
25. MSS 86/1/NEC/8 March 17, 1926. W.H. Price to J.S. Dean.
26. *ibid.*
27. *ibid.*
28. *ibid.*
29. *ibid.*
30. The Journalist, June, 1925. 'efficiency certificates'.
31. *ibid.* compare, Newspaper Society Monthly Circular,⁵ April, 1944,⁶ 'What shall we teach?'
32. The Institute Journal, Vol. 14

33. *ibid.* Vol XIII No. 114, Sept/Oct. 1925, p. 94. The Cambridge meeting discussed a post-graduate diploma (not 17 above)
34. & 35. 17 references, 1919-32; Newspaper Society Circular: 1 references, 1923-32. There were another 14 in The Journalist between 1932 and 1938.
36. References include (i) J.G. Gregson, Chairman reconstituted Education Committee, 1936 in The Journalist, January 1936 (ii) Letter from A.H. Atkins, February, 1929, probationary member (iii) 'old' un's' letter, January, 1927.
37. Monthly Circular, August 1922, London University Diploma.
38. *ibid.* October/November, 1925, p.168-71. "the course in 'Writing for the Press' is known as the 'practical courses', has been extended and remodelled.
39. See Table III
40. The Journalist, February 1931. Regulating Entry into Journalism.
41. *ibid.* J.G. Gregson talk to East Lancashire Branch Dinner. Gregson was Vice-President of the N.U.J. in 1931 and President in 1932. He was responsible for the Liverpool Lecture Circle and organised the 1931/2 lecture season.
42. Aldwyn F. Porter, Coventry and Warwickshire Branch, The Journalist, March, 1930.
43. *ibid.* April, 1930. p.85
44. *ibid.* The University minutes of the Journalism Committee report that no further action was taken on the proposal for an external diploma, after long consideration. JCM Minute 34, February 2, 1932.
45. The Journalist, April/May, 1931, p.90 See Ch.6 (i).
46. MCR MSS 86/1/NEC/9. N.E.C. Meeting June 29, 1931. The Admin. Committee minutes for July 31 note that the President and General Secretary met the Newspaper Society to point out that the Institute was not representative of working journalists in the provinces.
47. *ibid.* N.E.C. January 16, 1932.
48. The Journalist, July, 1931 did mention that the LUJS Gazette, the students' newspaper for Diploma students was edited by Tom Winter, NUJ Exhibitioner, for May, 1931, issue. In the April/May, 1931 issue of The Journalist former Diploma for Journalism student, F.C. Roberts (a postwar Home News Editor of The Times) wrote about 'N.U.J. prejudice' against the University course and

pointed out that he knew several former students who were N.U.J. members. In the July, 1931 edition the Union's General Secretar, H.M. Richardson wrote in to say ex-students "are good members."

49. P.R.O. ED 136/146, dated January 11, 1941.
50. *ibid.* (quotes from H.A.L. Fisher, 'An Unfinished Autobiography')
51. *ibid.* Terms of Reference, February 21, 1941.
52. For example, postwar requirements for extra psychiatrists were estimated at 20 per annum, while 5 to 6,000 extra Youth Leaders would be needed. The Society of Women Housing Managers estimated they could train up to 60 students a year.
53. The Report has reference F.T. (44) Second Report, December, 1944 and paragraphs 55-7 refer to Journalism.
54. PRO LAB 18/179. reference F.T. (44) 17 has five paragraphs of 97 lines.
55. *ibid.*
56. LAB 18/180 (reference F.T. (44) 33, dated April 13, 1944 Note of a meeting of the sub-committee. Lord Hankey in the chair with 4 representatives of Journalists' Advisory Committee to the Appointments Department of Ministry of Labour and National Service.
57. *ibid.*
58. see note 54, above.
59. Newspaper Society, Monthly Circular, June 1944, p.86.
60. *ibid.* 'The Future of the Journalism Diploma Course, London University', by Norman Robson, September, 1943 p.172
61. *ibid.*
62. *ibid.* p.173
63. *ibid* and October, 1943, p.189/90
64. MRC MSS 86/1/NEC/19. Education Committee, September 16, 1944 NEC recommend approaching Carnegie Trust, Nuffield Foundation... to contribute towards maintenance and development of the course (NEC meeting November 24, 1944) Also Letter from N.U.J. Education Officer dated August 22, 1944, giving estimates of financial requirements... MSS 86/3 (see Appendix...)
65. Newspaper Society Monthly Circular, May, 1946, p.88

66. Institute Journal, July, 1946, p.93/4
67. Estimated contribution from 'journalistic organisations' was £2,000 to £3,000.
68. Exhibitions 1924-8, Monthly Circular, February, 1929. See Appendix.
69. Senate Minutes, University of London, 1945/6
70. Institute Journal, March, 1944, p.35/6
71. *ibid*, December, 1944
72. *ibid*. January, 1945
73. The Times, August 18, 1945 (See Appendix XXII)
74. King's College Archives, c. 1944/5
75. Lord Hunt in conversation with the author, 1977.
76. Memorandum by Robert Somerville and Alan Hunter dated May, 1945 (MRC MSS 86/1/NEC/20) indicates that the Union was the first to have its scheme on paper.
77. Newspaper Society Monthly Circular, July-August, 1944 and September-October, 1944 (NUJ 'no' to tripartite talks)
78. *ibid*. March 1946, May, 1946
79. *ibid*. April, 1947, p.7
80. *ibid*. March, 1948, p.90
81. *ibid*. June, 1948, p.208
82. *ibid*. November, 1948 p.296-8 'Training of Junior Journalists'
83. The Journalist, November, 1951, p. 163. Obituary H.T. Hamson. See also Middlesex Advertiser and Gazette, September 21, 1951.
84. Newspaper Society Monthly Circular, April, 1952.
85. *ibid*. When eventually instituted only one Diploma examination was held.
86. *ibid*. July, 1952, p.206. H.C. Strick, BA., B.Sc., Adviser on Training to H.M. Treasury was Executive Officer.
87. *ibid*. July, 1952, p.228
See also J.D. Wright, 1979. Ph.D. Thesis on the N.C.T.J. for a review of its first 25 years.
88. "Refresher for Journalists" (1946). Six Monthly Lesson notes with sixteen weekly reporting and sub-editing exercises and two monthly legal papers. There is also an

Education Committee paper titled "Refresher Course" dated June 23, 1944. Student numbers are given in MRC MSS 86/1/NEC/20, as 600.

89. MRC MSS 86/1/NEC/20 dated April 7, 1946 and Institute of Journalists The Journal, July, 1946, give details.
90. PRO HO 251/213. Policy Committee file.
91. PRO CAB 129/11, July, 1946.
92. Royal Commission on the Press, 1949, Cmd. 7700.
93. PRO HO 251/213 and 218
94. PRO HO 251/218
95. PRO HO 251/217
96. PRO HO 251/213. Attack on Northcliffe is in "England, 1870-1914"
97. PRO HO 251/173. Paper 189
98. PRO HO 251/251. Paper 58, Hamson's evidence.
99. PRO HO 251/251. Paper 58 ditto
100. See Chapter Nine, b(i) Monitoring Student Progress
101. Cmd. 7700. Report of Royal Commission on the Press, 1949.
102. Beaverbrook's opinion is quoted in Beverley Baxter, Strange Street.
103. All references in this section, unless stated otherwise, are from PRO files HO 251/252 "Training nad Recruitment of Journalists" and 251/213 "Training" file.
104. Andrews, Linton. 1962b. The autobiography of Journalist.
105. Webber letter to Clarke, KCA, June 14, 1937.
106. Morley Stuart, editor, Cambridge Daily News, to Clarke, April 28, 1937.
107. Cmd. 7700; Question no. 1315
108. Hopkinson, to the author, 1980.
109. Frank Owen, The Times, April 29, 1947.
110. MRC MSS 86/3, George Viner's correspondence. Dodge was Director of the N.C.T.J. from 1961-9.
111. See Appendix for Asa Briggs' letter (Appendix XXIII)

112. Fenby (1902-74) was editor, Oxford Mail, 1928-40, and editorial director, Westminster Press, 1957-70, serving as chairman of the British committee of the International Press Institute from 1960-72. Fenby's papers at Warwick University Modern Records Centre include no references to this.
There is a note in the papers of the N.U.J. that "the Newspaper Publishers' Association houses have been excluded since it is thought the appeal be better (to approach them) when it is desired to actually endow a department at the University." Viner committed the N.U.J. to it being a post-graduate course.
113. Sir Tom Hopkinson kindly lent me his papers connected with the Sussex venture, reference TH/SQE/9/68: "Press Studies: A Report to the Vice-Chancellor." March, 1968.
114. *ibid.*
115. Kathleen Nott to the author, August 11, 1978.
116. Hopkinson, 1968, *ibid.*
117. As a member of the Oral History Society the author is aware of the pitfalls of interviewing, and in this case Mr Dodge's memories are not always accurate, which is one reason for printing the list of donors to Hopkinson's Senior Fellowship as an appendix. In conversation on February 26, 1982, Dodge quoted the figure of £50,000 from King - if others could be found to equal that amount-while, on July 9, 1983, Dodge quoted the £25,000 p.a. figure.
118. Hopkinson, T. 1971. Post-Graduate Training for New-Generation Journalists. Journalism Today (2) No. 4. Autumn, 101-11.
119. See Appendix XV.
120. Brendon, Piers, 1982. The Life and Death of the Press Baron. Note chapter heading: "Satan and Son" and the author counted nearly thirty references to "demonic" "devil" etc.
121. See note 50, above.
122. See note 5, above.
123. O'Dell, De Forest. 1935. The History of Journalism in the United States, 51.
124. Stewart Nicholson, general secretary of the Institute of Journalists, referred to it in a letter to The Times, November 14, 1949.
125. I.O.J. Journal, March, 1944. Linton Andrews' I.O.J. proposal to the Education Department suggesting that "a Committee representing all newspaper interests with the object of producing a scheme of training for

journalism." Andrews' claims to have instituted this 'scheme' do not bear serious consideration; although he often spoke in favour of it he vilified the N.U.J. for seeking to usurp editorial prerogative in the selection of who would be selected for training. See Fortnightly Review, 168, 1950 "The Conscience of the Press" 182-3

126. P.13, above, note 67 refers.
127. King's College Archives, Journalism Committee, 14 June, 1937. The University Inspectors suggested a one year post-graduate course in journalism for graduates of this and other universities; and the Committee agreed, but did nothing about it.
128. World's Press News (WPN) February 17, 1949.
129. John Connell, in The Times, August 31, 1949.
130. The Times, November 1, 1949.
131. WPN, July 14, 1949.
132. WPN, August 25, 1949.
133. The Spectator, November 19, 1949.
134. WPN, August 11, 1949.
135. Hetherington, A. 1982. The Guardian Years. p.53
136. Royal Commission on the Press, Report, Cmnd. 6810.
137. McBarnett, A.n.d. Disciplining the Journalist: An Investigation of Training Methods. 20pp. TSS. later published in Media, Culture and Society, 1979, (1) 2. 181-93.
138. Briggs, A. quoted in V.H.H. The Universities. 1969, p.138:
"to break down rigid specialisation the academic courses at Sussex have been organised in schools of study, to free the students from the restrictions often imposed by a faculty or departmental system; multi-subject honours courses are offered."
139. Boyd-Barrett, O. 1970. Journalism Recruitment and Training: Problems in Professionalisation. In Tunstall, J. Media Sociology.
140. Annan, Lord. 1972. What are Universities for, anyway? The Listener, November 2. Annan was Provost of University College, London 1966-78, and Vice-Chancellor, London University, 1978-81.
141. Whitehead, Frank. 1976. Stunting the Growth. Use of English, 28, 11-24.

142. McNay, Ian. (forthcoming, 1984). Management Issues in Post-School Education (provisional title) Open University, Course E324, Block 2.
143. Keele, Strathclyde, Sterling and Essex Universities were mentioned.
144. The author has been a member of the American Association for Education in Journalism for several years, and has attended its annual conferences, as well as corresponding with, and visiting, several journalism departments.
145. Hopkinson. T. Press Studies: A Report to the Vice-Chancellor, 1968.
146. Robert McLeish, BBC local radio training officer, 1969-83, in conversation with the author, July 10, 1983.
147. Certificate in Radio Journalism, London College of Printing, September, 1977. Postgraduate Diploma in Radio Journalism from 1983. See Boyd-Barrett, O. 1984. (forthcoming) Management in Post-Compulsory Education, Block IV, Part 1, E324. Open University, 6.13. to 6.38.
148. Royal Commission on the Press, Report, 1977. Cmd. 6810, 18.20 & 22.
149. All-Media Survey of Journalists' Training (2 Vols) n.d. 1977. Written by George Viner, was presented, in summary form, by P.P.I.T.B. at the 1980 Conference on Editorial Training.

Chapter Eleven

Conclusion

Throughout this thesis the 'Review and Summary' sections have provided occasions for pulling together individual themes within chapters and now it remains to consolidate those concerned with the major partners in the development of education for journalism: universities, employers, trades unions and professional associations, students and staff involved in teaching. The closing pages raise some possible patterns for future research and development.

11.a. (i) The Universities

Although the major contender here is the University of London, and the Diploma for Journalism, there have been other examples of co-operation between journalism and universities. Earlier in the century the Institute of Journalists combined with the university in Leeds to operate a series of lectures, and Alan Pitt Robbins, then a reporter on the Yorkshire Observer received a prize that year, 1908, from his father. That year Birmingham University agreed a syllabus for the post-graduate course in journalism and, although it never started, one of the academics involved kept his papers on the subject and shared them with the N.U.J. when he was at Nottingham in 1925 and replying to their Education Committee letter seeking university co-operation for journalism education. Appendix IX lists the lectures, subsidised by one of the Harmsworth brothers, at Trinity College, Dublin, between 1908 and 1909. There was not much else available

between then and the introduction of the London Diploma for Journalism in 1919 and the next college to offer a course was at Southampton, in response to the N.U.J. letter of 1925. The lecturer, B. Ifor Evans, turns up as an examiner, on the London University Principles of Criticism paper in the Diploma for Journalism, from 1935 onwards. After the Second World War the Kemsley group of newspapers introduced lecture series, usually organised by University Extra-mural Departments, but the first full-time post-graduate course was not introduced at University College, Cardiff, until 1970.

11.a. (ii) London University Diploma for Journalism, 1919-30

It took the author some time to realise that this was a course which, in practice, had no identifiable centre within the amorphous institution known as London University. It had no physical place: no department, no directing hand (until its last five years), and no permanent centre until King's College offered it a home, from 1935 onwards. This experiment in education for journalism had no monitoring device for evaluating the Diploma, apart from the examination results or the professional legitimacy conferred by newspapers employing its graduates. However the University did set up a Journalism Committee representing all sides of the profession and it was really left to them to overcome the indifference of the academics to the quality of the teaching being offered. From an introductory series of lectures by visiting speakers - including the 'names' in the journalism

of the time - this commitment developed into arranging specific practical journalism teaching one afternoon a week and, later, planning vacation attachments for students with newspapers in the provinces. While the mythology of the "journalism cannot be taught" school would insist that few products of the course rarely held journalistic jobs, some names from the early days include students like Lord Jacobson, editor of Lilliput and a director in the Mirror group of newspapers, Frank Roberts, a home news editor at The Times, Norman Robson, who headed the Westminster Press London office, Stella Gibbons, who progressed from the Evening Standard into writing novels, Kathleen Nott, chief reviewer of The Observer and, from the very last year of the course, G.C. Pinnington, editor of the Sunday People when he retired in 1982.

That such people were able to progress as they did is no mean achievement, but it is even more astonishing when we consider how shakily the course started - really for returning ex-servicemen from World War 1 - and how little it was nurtured by the university authorities. They saw it as a source of funds enrolling, as they did, over 100 students in the first year of the course, when the Board of Education had not anticipated more than 30. (1) The first chairman of the Diploma course, Sir Sidney Lee, editor of the Dictionary of National Biography, stated that he saw the purpose of the course being to replenish "the supply of well-educated and well-trained men for the higher walks of journalism" while the journalist supporters of the course, like Mr Frederick Miller, long-time assistant editor (in effect, editor) of the

Daily Telegraph, had hoped it would enable young Londoners to get newspaper jobs. Miller believed Londoners were at a disadvantage when it came to gaining the necessary provincial newspaper experience required for promotion onto Fleet Street papers. A surprising number of the early products of the course did, in fact, get their first newspaper jobs in Fleet Street reflecting, no doubt, that lack of talent caused by the First World War when Oxford and Cambridge Universities lost nearly 5,000 graduates killed in action during the war. Yet it was the provincial side of the newspaper industry, through the Newspaper Society, which supported students on the course with Exhibitions, although a few national groups did contribute (see Appendix XIX and XX).

The existence of the course coincided with some of the greatest changes within the British press (Wickham Steed labels it the "commercialisation of the press" in his 1938 Penguin, The Press.) In its attempts to come to terms with these developments it would appear that the course adopted the role of training for the provincial press to please those funding students attending the course who were, at least, interested in it, unlike the press barons of the national Fleet Street newspapers although, even here, there were supporters who provided more than mere verbal support - like Reuters supplying a teleprinter, at no cost and even insured by Reuters because King's College would not meet that cost. By the time Mr Tom Clarke arrived as Director of Practical Journalism in 1935 the course was locked into the occupational belief that journalism had to be experienced

first at the provincial level before the pinnacles of national journalism, in Fleet Street, could be attempted. One of the problems, of this system, was the lack of system, with no acknowledged career pattern easily visible. Too much seemed to depend on luck, or bluff, as Piers Brendon put it to the author while he was writing his book on The Life and Death of the Press Barons, published in 1982.

Regardless of the progress made during the existence of the course it is still a fact that London University appointed no one "person or academic body responsible for co-ordinating the teaching, initiating changes, or observing progress." (2) It was left to someone like Dr Harrison, whatever his motives, to make the running in trying to develop the course into a fully-fledged School of Journalism,⁴ within the University; but, in his view, King's College's only reaction to new ideas was to drop them into the River Thames from Waterloo Bridge. (3)

11.a. (iii) The London School of Economics

To modern eyes it appears unusual to find the London School of Economics dropping out of the Diploma for Journalism from the end of the 1929/30 academic year,⁴ especially as it was just as "close to Fleet Street" as King's College (4) where the course eventually established its centre. Yet we have seen that aspiring Socialist member of parliament, Dr. Hugh Dalton,⁴ relegate the Journalism Committee to its "ragged crowd" (5) role, and he was,⁴ supposedly, tutor to LSE's journalism students. They stood little chance against Dalton's numerous attempts to secure a

parliamentary seat. There is no reference to the subject (of the Diploma for Journalism) in any of the papers of the LSE's director from 1919 to 1937, Sir William (later Lord) Beveridge (1879-1963). Beveridge did not see journalism as being "one of the urgent intellectual needs of our time" (6) which he saw as the main aim of the School: "training for a new learned profession... that of public administrators... no words are needed to emphasise its growing importance." (7) To further this aim LSE needed money to establish the new social sciences and Beveridge spent the early years of his directorship catching the millionaire to provide the funds. This was Sir Ernest Cassel, whose name soon attached itself to a Chair of Commerce in exchange for £150,000 towards establishing the professorships and lectureships, including Dr. Dalton's Cassel Readership in Commerce which gave him an extra £300 year in salary. (8) One other explanation as to why Beveridge was not interested could also spring from his view of journalism as outlined in his statement that the "Oxford 'Greats' course had its mundane uses, as a direct training for the more solemn forms of journalism" (9) which enabled him to become a leader writer on the Morning Post (a conservative newspaper) from 1906 to 1908, when he entered the Civil Service. (10) He also had another dictum that "mere accumulation of facts is not science". (11) We also need to remind ourselves that LSE produced a total of 21 Diploma for Journalism graduates between 1919 and 1931 - a very insignificant number which "would not affect the School financially," (12) should King's College become the centre for journalism.

11.b. The Newspaper Industry

(i) The Employers' Organisations

The course never achieved the success necessary to persuade the press barons of the 1920's and 1930's of its value, even though one of them, Lord Beaverbrook,⁴ at one time had six former students working on his newspapers. As his Lordship had strong views about "schools of journalism" former students were always advised (by those already working on his newspapers) not to enlighten him about their attendance on the London course. This attitude has dogged later generations of journalists, who have hidden their attendance at schools of journalism. (13) There is a thread of continuity to this embarrassing silence on the part of former students wishing to dissociate themselves from attendance on the course. (14) The occupational myth is obviously stronger than individual experience and would attempt to thwart any moves to disprove its strongly-held belief that journalism cannot be taught.

One organisation that contributed financially to the support of students on the course was the Newspaper Society, representing provincial newspapers who jointly subscribed to the Society's Exhibitions. (15) Included among the donors of such Exhibitions were Sir Edward Hulton (1869-1925), Sir Roderick Jones (1877-1962), chairman of Reuters news agency,⁴ and United Newspapers Ltd., as proprietors of the Daily Chronicle. The instigator of this scheme was Valentine Knapp who also arranged for the Newspaper Society to initiate vacation employment for students with its members, usually in the students' home towns.

11.b. (ii) The Institute of Journalists and the National Union of Journalists.

That the Diploma for Journalism started at London University in 1919 was due in no small measure to the groundwork done by the I.O.J. and its early founder members. The apparent disregard extended to the Institute by the University's axing, in 1919, of the Technical Instruction element was never wholly re-instated, but the actions of the Journalism Committee, on which the Institute was represented, went some way to filling the gap in practical instruction in journalism. The N.U.J., which played no part in the inauguration of the Diploma, was invited to send representatives - which it did throughout the existence of the course. While the influence of the Institute seemed to wane, with the outflow of its members to the Union, that of the Union seemed to increase. The mere existence of the course caused the Union to seriously consider its policy about education and training and, indeed, to institute an Education Committee. Its attempts at instituting serious proposals for journalism education superficially appear as of no consequence, with few results. Yet the author contends that Committee really initiated the idea of a national body for overseeing journalism education, early in 1930; but the failure of another round of 'fusion' talks with the Institute caused the usual fision, with the result that co-operation was delayed until the post-war years, after 1945. Both organisations were represented on the Journalists' Advisory Committee to the Advisory Committee to the Appointments Department of the Ministry of Labour and National Service and

both supported the idea of the University of London Diploma for Journalism as well as suggesting that other Universities might be encouraged to offer similar courses. This was reported to the Interdepartmental Committee on Further Education and Training, under Lord Hankey, but not included in that Committee's report, in 1944.

Individual members of the Institute of Journalists and the National Union of Journalists contributed substantially to the practical journalism component of the syllabus: Mr. F.J. Mansfield, of the N.U.J., and Mr. E.G. Hawke, of the Institute, taught the first and second year students on a part-time basis until Mr. Tom Clarke's appointment as full-time director in 1935. Many others contributed their expertise in specialist areas, often without remuneration, although payments were offered (at 3 guineas a session) during Clarke's directorship. However it was the N.U.J.'s The Journalist and not the Institute's Journal which attempted to meet the needs of members with educational articles (see Appendix XXV). The Union even asked the London University Journalism committee to try and extend the full-time Diploma into one which non-resident Union members might follow on a part-time basis, indicating at least an interest in the subject among Union members. But, like Dr. Harrison's later proposals, for non-examinable lecture courses in "Great Discoveries of Our Time", this too was in advance of its time, at least as far as London University was concerned, and was never introduced.

11.c. The Students.

Throughout the Diploma's twenty-year existence 413 students were awarded the Diploma, of whom 219 were women (see Table III). Total student numbers throughout that period are estimated at approximately 625, excluding those, in the second year of their course from 1939 to 1940, who never completed the course, because it was disbanded at the start of the Second World War in 1939. Less than 100 students graduated during Clarke's directorship with their Diplomas and, of these, at least twelve were killed during the War. Those graduating in the summer of 1939 had little opportunity to establish themselves in newspaper offices and had to wait until the end of the War in 1945.

Even though no established career pattern exists within journalism the products of the course appear to have held their own, scaling the heights, so to speak, in such special correspondent or specialist roles as arts, film, drama, labour, industrial relations and politics. Others, like Stella Gibbons (on the 1920-22 course) and Kathleen Nott (1923-25), and several others, like Morna Mactaggart, branched out as novelists. Lord Jacobson (1926-28) attests to the advantages of having attended the course, as do many others who occupied positions as varied as home news editor of The Times (Frank Roberts, 1926-28), editor of Power Laundry (for nearly fifty years) as was Ancliffe Prince (1925-27), or work in Reuters, as did Marice Lovell (1926-28) and Howard Whitten (1935-37).

It is more difficult to discover the social and educational background of the majority of students who undertook the course although former students usually refer to it as middle-class from the upper ranges (vide references in the files to those unable to return to the course because of injuries incurred on skiing holidays) with few from working class backgrounds. But there are indications that there was more than a sprinkling of secondary, and high, school pupils, especially among the winners of Exhibitions. Of the five awarded Exhibitions in 1924 and 1925 four already worked on newspapers (two from grammar schools and two from high schools), two others were grammar school products and three were from high schools or county secondary schools, and one from a public school whose father was an editor.

Because the English version of university schools of journalism did not have a forum, like the American Journalism Quarterly, it is difficult to uncover definite evidence of the progress of the course. The Newspaper Society Monthly Circular does, however, provide some clues and prints comments from members of the interviewing panel for awarding Exhibitions, such as: "There was not a dullard among them. If candidates of their calibre are common, the efficient staffing of newspapers is assured." (16) There were also reports that the students were "readily finding employment." (17) While one of the comments often made about the course is that it had too many women students it is interesting to note that Mr Valentine Knapp drew attention to one editor of

a daily newspaper "who had expected the student (a lady) to be a 'nuisance' in the office; an opinion he recanted handsomely before the end of the pupil's six weeks presence there." (18)

Throughout the existence of the course quite a few students were persuaded, by newspaper editors, to leave the course and join their newspapers - often those on which they spent vacation work attachments - after only one year's attendance at the university. This would indicate that, however critical they might be of journalism courses, editors were only too eager to secure "efficient staffing of newspapers", even if only half-trained.

One striking fact about former students the author has met, or corresponded with, is the way they treasure memories of their former lecturers, especially Clarke and Harrison, and, indeed, can recite large chunks of critical texts they were called upon to study.

11.d. The London University Staff Involved

(i) Journalism Staff (see Appendix XXVI)

The benign neglect inflicted upon London University's journalism students meant that members of the "journalistic profession (had to give) gratuitously... to practical teaching in the methods of reporting public functions" (19) and direct reference is made to "Mr Fred Miller, M.A.,

Assistant Editor of the Daily Telegraph." It would appear that Miller then persuaded Mr. Edward G. Hawke, one of his leader writers (also on the staff of The Spectator), to undertake the course on "The General Principles of Writing for the Press" to second year students. Hawke and Mr. R.A. Scott-James were lecturers between 1921 and 1924. From 1925 Mr. F.J. Mansfield, of The Times sub-editorial staff, undertook second year lectures and Mr. Hawke those for the first year students and this lasted until the appointment, in 1935, of Mr. Tom Clarke as director of practical journalism. From 1927 practical journalism examinations were mandatory, having been optional in 1926.

One result of Mansfield's connection with the course was his publishing his lectures as "The Complete Journalist" in 1935 (which remained in print for over thirty years) and another on "Sub-editing". It is the author's belief that these two books had a more marked effect on the self-education necessarily undertaken by journalists, and aspiring journalists, for as long as they remained in print, and beyond. Far more than a mere manual the first book illustrates Mansfield's attitude that one had to

"find the roots of the present in the story of the past. Journalism has a history which cannot be avoided by one who sets out to describe the activities of today." (20)

Mansfield mentions the Diploma course (as the originator of his book) in the preface and writes "Many of my old students are doing good work on newspaper staffs" (21) but he still believed that "The provinces are the natural training ground for all-round journalism." (22)

Clarke's book based on his lectures, published in 1945, devotes a chapter to the subject of "Education for Journalism" optimistically declaring that there seemed good reason to believe the Diploma for Journalism would be "revived... with a new curriculum based on lessons of the past and the new needs of the future.'(23)

Somehow it seems entirely fitting that it is the Northcliffe protege, Clarke, and not The Times's journalist, Mansfield, who favours education for journalism. In essence it would appear as if the roles had been reversed between the New Journalist, Clarke, and the Old Journalist, Mansfield, when it comes to discussing education for journalism. Yet it is Clarke who sees the necessity for "trained thought" needed to produce news as stories which had to be told economically, vividly, and with meaning. For Clarke, popularisation meant having to attract the reader's attention, retain it and maintain interest to the not-far-distant end of story. The juxtaposition of "trained thought" with "popularisation" is often a stumbling block to the non-journalist and the relevance is mentioned here to illustrate what difference can exist between "serious" and "popular" writing. R.H.S. Crossman, himself both editor and politician, talked of an article for the New Stateman "tripping off the typewriter" whereas one for the Daily Mirror "required far more thought". For the latter he had continually to ask himself: "Have I communicated my meaning correctly? Will the reader follow it, or are there lines of argument missing? Can I simplify without distorting?" (24)

The relationship to Clarke's teaching method can be seen when listening to one of his former students speaking about Clarke's lectures: "I think it helped with my thinking, and thinking is what journalism is all about in the long run." (25) In this respect it would appear that the hope of the Haldane Commission enquiry into London University (1909-13), that a proposed teaching, as opposed to the then examining, University of London, would engender among its students "an enquiring spirit... and reflective thought" (26) received confirmation from a most unexpected quarter.

Although the evidence presented by Clarke's lecture notes (27) would suggest that his approach to teaching journalism was concentrated on the practical side, the examination questions he set always included at least one on an ethical, or related, topic, one being "It was said by Lord Bacon that every man owed a duty to the profession of journalism?" (28) Another question that same year asked "What do you understand by the ethics of journalism? Give half a dozen rules that would guide you in newspaper life." These indicated that Clarke saw the educational nature of including such questions in a Practical Journalism Examination paper, not in the Ethics and Social Philosophy paper. Clarke's own educational development had been

"some University Extension Studies in History and Literature... and a period of study under Dennis Hird and H.B. Lees-Smith at Ruskin Hall, Oxford (where) they drove me hard in history, economics, psychology, literature, sociology and logic. These studies... disciplined my mind." (29)

11.d. (ii) Academic Staff (see Appendix XXVI)

One of the problems facing the Diploma was that much of the knowledge expected of journalists demanded an awareness of things "he won't find... in the history books yet" (30) because they were really "Current Events and their Origins" (31) which Dr. G.B. Harrison had wanted to include in the Journalism Syllabus for 1939-40. Although this, and other, background studies on "Great Thinkers and Discoveries" and "Modern Literature and Drama", were never introduced the proposals indicate the way the Diploma's academic subjects were gradually changed to bring them more into line with journalistic requirements. It was seen, by one student at least, as

"very much nearer the thinking behind a lot of the universities today, and not the deep specialisation in a narrow beam... I found that sort of discipline, even at a relatively superficial level, was invaluable to me later; not to become a critic... but to know what critical thinking was about. And to know a little bit about logic. I think it helped with my thinking, and thinking is what it is all about in the long run." (32)

Apart from the feedback from the practical journalism staff it would appear that only Dr. Harrison saw the students on a regular basis, for his English Composition classes - more like tutorials when students had to read something they had written. The only feedback most students received from the other academic subjects was when they heard their

examination results, although some, obviously, had closer relationships. (33) The "intrinsic feature... of personal contact between teacher and the student" (34) was noticeably absent from the academic teaching on the Diploma for Journalism. The extent of personal involvement of University teaching staff can be judged from Dr. Hugh Dalton's single reference in his diaries to his tutorship of journalism students at the London School of Economics, when he records that the University Journalism Committee were "rather a ragged crowd." (35)

The academic teaching of the time led students then to make demands for "more discussion" and "*less irksome essay writing*" (36) and Clarke was, himself, critical of university-led school examinations which were, in his eyes, evidence of pupils' ability to pass examinations, (37) nothing more. Journalist students' comments on the academic teaching have described the lecturers' dismissive attitude towards them, as journalism students. Hugh Gaitskell, then lecturing at University College, was one who, in later life, described journalism students as not worth troubling oneself over. (38) Yet academics themselves are always ready to describe standards of journalism as "deplorable" (39)

One former student who subsequently became Clarke's assistant, and lectured on post-war journalism courses in technical colleges, declares there was little possibility of such radical developments as "teaching economics journalistically" by which she means treating contemporary

topics from the standpoint of exploring the problem, and how to write about it, journalistically. During this research the author has visited American university schools of journalism where politics lecturers have employed this method to advantage - as do lecturers in some areas in Britain. (40) This problem is one which the author has met in grappling with the difficult task of planning post-graduate courses in radio journalism and has had to seek colleagues' support to introduce team teaching, on contemporary issues and institutions, which involve academic and journalism lecturers relating teaching input to *practical radio journalism* requirements.

With the extension of academic standards of research into the polytechnics in England it is surprising how little importance was attached to overcoming this "lack of information" about the relationship of academic and journalism teaching in the Diploma of Journalism. (41) None of the polytechnics teaching communication or media studies thought it worth their while to take the "initiative in deciding the broad character of (journalism's) educational requirements" stating this was the role of the "profession itself and/or the industry" (42) yet they saw their courses as providing "career outlets into journalism." (43) The subject was not a priority for the fledging post-graduate course at University College, Cardiff, under Sir Tom Hopkinson, even though it sponsored a Journalism Studies Review.

11. e. The First Royal Commission on the Press, 1947-49

Considering how thoroughly this Commission examined the question of the education and training of journalists, and how it placed these second in the list of objects for the proposed General Council of the Press, (46) it might appear strange that the third Royal Commission nearly thirty years later had to repeat many of the same kind of comments concerning the need to raise educational and professional standards. (47) Even more surprising is the realisation, revealed by the third Commission, that the Proficiency Certificate of the National Council for the Training of Journalists, is still optional (48) for recruits into journalism, especially as the second Commission had been told it had been made obligatory. (49)

The second report reveals how feeble an institution that Press Council (as the general Council of the Press is called) was in its early years, ignoring most of its objects (such as education, research, and developments likely to restrict the supply of information of public interest) (50) and an interesting study could be made of the original aims the first Royal Commission saw for the Council and its performance since its foundation. Examination of the archive in the Public Records Office indicates that members were divided on the idea of a Press Council, preferring an 'Institute... an unalarming idea' (51) compared to a "Council - suggesting a body above the Press," (52) and fearful that they might create a "purely professional body, with only

professional functions." (53) Yet these papers - although obviously nowhere near a complete archive of the Commission's deliberations - do suggest that they did not look to the proposed Press Council to provide the impetus for the future professional education of journalists. (54)

The lack of progress in this area can be seen when we read the recommendations of the third Royal Commission, in 1977, that "advanced professional education for journalism should be made a major priority" (55) and stated it saw "merit in arranging courses in higher education establishments to provide a common foundation for all forms of journalism." (56) It also recommended "that an entrance test for all candidates... should be instituted." (57)

With that particular chord - entry test - reverberating down nearly a century of discussions on entry examinations, and the appropriate education for journalism, the author bows out, with the comment that none of the three Royal Commissions on the Press has ever seen fit to define what it means by the word "journalist" - something might have been achieved with just that.

11. f. Concluding Remarks

In trying to disentangle fact from fiction in the development of journalism education in Britain the author has concluded that - apart from the non-existence of a calibre of critical journalism texts which appear regularly from

American professors of journalism - certain elements have emerged which bear upon the question. One of these is the definite career pattern which emerged, through the late 19th and early 20th centuries, from university to Fleet Street. The death of nearly 5,000 Oxbridge graduates in the First World War had an effect hitherto unrecognised in relation to British journalism. But those who owed their own career progression to that calamity were well aware of why they were able to proceed to editorial chairs which had hitherto been the province of the graduate. (58) Percy Cudlipp and Arthur Christiansen were two examples. With them in editorial chairs recruitment and selection for Fleet Street was drawn mainly from provincial newspapers as, indeed, it had been both before, and since. The exclusion of graduates from national newspapers, without this experience, from 1965 onwards was one reason for the introduction of post-graduate courses in British universities. Entry into British newspapers, via the National Council for the Training of Journalists operations, has enshrined the "catch 'em young" basis of provincial journalism without extending the educational opportunities to journalists which, for instance, its own proposed Diploma was supposed to support but never implemented. One of the ironies of N.C.T.J. involvement in journalism training would appear to be undermining whatever standards it, presumably, is meant to foster when candidates who are working on newspapers and participating in its block release schemes fail to pass their examinations yet are still able to continue their newspaper careers. While passing the N.C.T.J. pre-entry course does not mandate a candidate to a

newspaper job, it would appear that failure, once he is working on a newspaper, does not rob him of his, job. (59) The exclusion from the N.C.T.J. syllabus of most of the educational aims of the National Union of Journalists (Appendix XIIa & b) is a possible indication how inadequate its aims are (and how poorly realised) compared to the activities across the Atlantic, of university-based Schools of Journalism.

Normally it would be very difficult to be able to point to another system where journalism education at university level has become the "key to professionalization..." (60) but there is the American example which provides us with an illustration of "what might have been." The Institute of Journalists was able to call upon American professors of journalism in 1908 and 1919 when they sought advice about setting up British university schools of journalism. The American journalist Walter Lippmann conveniently wrote about the subject in his book "Liberty and the News" which appeared originally in the Atlantic Monthly, in 1919. (61) He posed the rhetorical question about schools of journalism asking "how far can we go in turning newspaper enterprise from a haphazard trade into a disciplined profession?" That he posed such a question in the very year that the London University introduced the Diploma for Journalism makes his answer appear even more remarkable today, when the American Journalism Schools are firmly established: "Quite far, I imagine, for it is altogether unthinkable that a society like ours should remain forever dependent upon untrained accidental witnesses." (62) He saw such a university

connection contributing to the demise of "the cynicism of the trade" replaced by "patient and fearless men of science who have laboured to see what the world really is." While reminding ourselves of the time in which he spoke, and of the undercurrent of objectivity related to scientific endeavour raised in an earlier chapter, (63) it goes a long way to helping us understand the bewilderment some Americans, especially professors of journalism, express when they read what passes as fair comment in British newspapers. While lip-service is paid to "objective news facts" by British journalists they have rarely experienced real teaching of the "Objective News Fact Concept" as propounded by such American journalism educators as Frank Luther Mott. (64) In the author's opinion American journalists must feel what an English journalist described after he experienced "the carefully trained... standardised technique... taught in the Schools of Journalism," (65) that "competitive sensationalism" still rules in England when, in America, the "tendency is towards a more serious kind of journalism." (66) It is instructive to remind ourselves that the author, a respected British journalist, J.A. Spender, was writing in 1928 when the journalism education movement was well established in the American universities.

The News Study Group of the Political Sciences Department at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology has provided a useful explanation of what this difference, between English and American forms of journalism, means:

"... the notion of objective reporting took over American journalism in the early twentieth century and helped improve much of the news coverage. Reporters were to become professionals and stay sober; they were not to pay for stories; they were not to impersonate law officials or anyone else in the pursuit of news; they were to forsake sensationalism and cheap thrills. Above all they were not to take sides or slant their stories." (67)

The author, himself a former journalist, describes how the "objective journalism" took for its model the medical doctors and that "this model corrected many unsavoury practices in the press itself... not unlike (those) in the majority of countries in the world today." (68) For the author the reason for this different form of journalism is so obvious he does not state it, but Donald H. Johnston, of the Columbia University Graduate School of Journalism, does set this in context of increasing enrolments for university journalism education courses so that, in the 1970's, "70 per cent of the recruits hired by the news media directly from college were journalism graduates." (69) This contrasts with a British sociologist's projection that it would take until the year 2025 for British journalism to reach the point where 50 per cent of journalists were graduates. (70)

This example illustrates how sharing the same language can actually hinder understanding if what appear to be similar problems are actually culturally and ethnocentrically based in a different experience from that which the common language describes. This is certainly the case when discussing the British and American variants of journalism; without understanding the above figures, misconceptions can

too easily be propagated when discussing education for journalism.

11.g. Patterns for the Future

Certain aspects of the Diploma for Journalism experiment could well support further development. Clarke's idea that the reporter is the "modern historian" always adding "a few lines explaining the historical significance" (when writing, for instance, about the Abdication of Edward VIII) matches Wilbur Schramm's assessment of the achievements of American Schools of Journalism (up to 1947) when he highlighted their demand for journalists "to contribute to the fact he observes." (71) The relationship is not so far-fetched as might at first appear: Arthur Marwick, in The Nature of History describes some modern historians search for "objective empiricism... (where) facts should be established as they really are." (72) Laurence Stone describes the "new historians" undertaking "story-telling... based on the evidence of eyewitnesses and participants" in an attempt to recapture something of the outward manifestations of the mentelite of the past. (73) Contrasting that with our examination of the evolution of the modern journalist, in Chapter Three, leads to the conclusion that this is a description some modern journalists might find it difficult to reject as a description of how they attempt to report contemporary events. Even more relevant is Stone's plaudits for those historians' efforts to "speak to the popular audience (instead) of talking to themselves and no-one else." (74)

If it is allowed for academic scholars to believe that they "can acquire the skills to investigate any question which arouses (their) curiosity" (75) it should be possible to extend the approval to a system which allows journalists to acquire similar educational expertise. Just as Beveridge could propagandise for "Economics as a Liberal Education" in the first issue of Economica, in 1921, then American experiments of viewing "Journalism as Liberal Education" in which students have to

"organise knowledge from a number of different fields, relate his own opinions and values to this, and produce a well-thought-out statement ...is a kind of experience which... is... consonant with the aims of liberal education..." (76) which could well be seen to demolish the British belief that it is "fruitless to attempt to create good journalists by teaching journalism." (77)

Chapter Eleven

References

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2. KCA Harrison, G.B. 1935. Memorandum on the Journalism Course.
3. Harrison to the author, December, 1979.
4. London School of Economics Minute Book, Professorial Council Meeting 27.2.29, referring to a letter from Dr Halliday, Principal of King's College, dated February 21, 1929.
5. Dalton, *ibid.*
6. Beveridge, W. 1933. The Social Sciences as a Means of General Education. Oxford Magazine, February 2. (in L.S.E. Beveridge Archive).
7. Beveridge, W. 1921. Economics as a Liberal Education. Economica, January, No. 1., p.7.
8. Dalton Diary, *ibid.*, 4/6/20. Salary increased from £400 to £700.
9. L.S.E. Beveridge Archive, Box II b 33 (11) gives details of one such approach, 17/4/37.
10. Beveridge, 1921, *ibid*, p.3.
11. *ibid*, p.7.
12. L.S.E. Minutes, Professorial Council, May 1, 1929 Minutes.
13. Smith, Roger. 1980. Images and Inequality: Women and the National Press, in Christian, H (Ed.) The Sociological Review Monograph No. 29: The Sociology of Journalism and the Press. Smith mentioned in conversation (July, 1983) that Mary Stott admitted she kept hidden her attendance on a commercial sub-editing course.
14. One former student, now on the Daily Telegraph, does not wish her attendance on the course to be publicised. She was there 1937-39.
15. See Appendix XX
16. Newspaper Society Monthly Circular, October, 1924, p.179.
17. *ibid.* February, 1929, p. 150, Valentine Knapp's report on "University of London Journalism Exhibitions, 1924-1928."
18. *ibid*, October, 1929.

19. SMM Report of University Journalism Committee, 1921/22
20. Mansfield, F.J. 1935. The Complete Journalist, p. xi.
21. ibid.
22. op. cit. p.95.
23. Clarke, T. 1945. Journalism. p.60.
24. I am grateful to Wynford Hicks for this report of a meeting at Oxford University Labour Party, 1961/2.
25. Pinnington, G., interview with the author, 1978.
26. Royal Commission on University Education in London, 1909-13. (The Haldane Commission). Cmd. 6717.
27. ULC PC 11/1-39, University of London archives, and author's personal collection of notes in manuscript.
28. London University Examination Papers. 62. Journalism Diploma, 1927-39. 1936: Practical Journalism Paper question six.
29. Clarke, ibid. 11/12
30. ibid. p.61
31. SMM University Journalism Committee Minutes, November 4, 1938
32. Pinnington, ibid. He retired in 1982 as Editor of The Sunday People.
33. One example, Robert Stephens and Hugh Gaitkell.
34. Green, V.H.H. The Universities, p.337
35. Dalton Archive, London School of Economics, Diary, Vol.5, 27/5/20.
36. Truscott, Bruce (Allison Peers). 1951. Red Brick University, originally published in 1942.
37. Clarke, T. 1936. Brian. This book records the illness and death of Clarke's younger son.
38. Pinnington, ibid, referring to his days on the Daily Herald when he raised the subject of having been on the Diploma for Journalism. Howard Whitten quotes Gaitskell's favourable reference.
- 39.a. Collins, J.C. 1908. The Universities and Journalism. Nineteenth Century, 372, February, 327-40.
- b. Tunstall, J. 1973 Journalism as an Occupation. Medico - Legal Journal, 41 (3), 87-101.

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40. Vide Miss Skipsey's plea to "teach economics journalistically." For other, more recent methods, see Broadbent in bibliography. Mr John Turner's "Contemporary Affairs" Syllabus in the Diploma in Radio Journalism (CNAA) London College of Printing is one example.
41. Council for National Academic Awards, Communication Studies Panel (n.d) Memorandum to the Royal Commission on the Press, 1975-77).
42. C.N.A.A. *ibid.*, p.2.
43. C.N.A.A. *ibid.*, p.1.
44. Scott-James, R.A. 1913. The Influence of the Press.
45. Scott-James, *ibid.*
46. Royal Commission on the Press, 1947-49, Cmnd. 7700, para. 663, PRO HO 251/101, paper 256.
47. Royal Commission on the Press, 1975-77, Cmnd. 6810, ch. 18. (compare Cmnd 7700 para. 623 and Cmnd. 6810, 18.27)
48. Cmnd. 6810, 18.37 Compare Royal Commission on the Press, 1960-2, Cmnd.1812. Vol. 1. Minutes of Oral Evidence, question 2108.
49. Cmnd. 1812, q. 2108
50. Cmnd. 1812, question 1260 (Press Council evidence, 769-956.)
51. PRO HO 251/101 & 213, plus letter of G.M. Young's to Sir David Ross, chairman, Royal Commission on the Press, October 12, 1948, in the author's possession.
52. Young, *ibid.*
53. Lady Bonham-Carter to chairman, October 10, 1948: "I would prefer not to see support for a Press Council... a purely professional body."
54. Cmnd. 1812. questions 769-956. Young, HO 251/213, dated Dec., 1947.
55. Cmnd. 6810.18.42
56. Cmnd. 6810.18.22
57. Cmnd. 6810.18.32
58. Cudlipp, Percy, 1948. Promotion Prospects or Getting on, in Kenyon, A. Entry into Journalism, p.45:
"Arthur Christiansen, Editor of the Daily Express, and I were discussing the other day the conditions in which we came to

Fleet Street. "We benefited," he said, "from the fact that many clever men had been killed in the first Great War. There were gaps to be filled, and so fellows like you and me, who had been too young to fight, had an early chance to show what we could do."

59. See Cmnd. 6810, 18.37 - Proficiency Certificate is talked of as being optional for those working on newspapers.

60. Birkhead, D. 1982. Presenting the Press: Journalism and the Professional Project. Ph.D dissertation, University of Iowa, p. 236.

61. Lippmann, Walter. 1919. Liberty and the News, Atlantic Monthly, Vol. 124, December, 779-87. Published in book form in 1920.

62. Lippmann, *ibid.* H.T. Hamson's evidence to the first Royal Commission on the Press indicated how far untrained witnesses were undertaking journalistic work in England.

63. See. Ch. Three, and Schudson, M. 1978. Discovering News.

64. Mott, Frank Luther. 1942. The Development of News Concepts in American Journalism. Thirteenth Address delivered under the Don R. Mellett Memorial Fund.

65. Spender, J.A. 1928. The America of Today, includes two chapters on American journalism, p.175.

66. Spender, *ibid.* Compare Smith, Anthony, 1979. The Newspaper. An International History, referring to the two different forms of British, and American, journalism: "A steady gulf has grown between American and British practice, the former dedicated to a journalism of neutral 'factual' information, untainted by party, unblemished by influence..."

67. Diamond, Edwin. 1978. Good News. Bad News, p. 235

68. *ibid.*

69. Johnston, Donald. 1979. Journalism and the Media. An Introduction to Mass Communications p. 119.

70. Tunstall, Jeremy. 1977. Studies in the Press, 335. This projection assumes a 50 per cent graduate intake from 1985 onwards. In the 1970's the proportion of graduates in American journalism was 58 per cent (Johnston, 113).

71. Schramm,[‡] Wilbur. 1947. Education for Journalism: Vocational,[‡] General, or Professional? Journalism Quarterly[‡] 24,[‡] 9-18.

72. Marwick, Arthur. 1970. The Nature of History.

73. Stone, Laurence. 1979. The Revival of Narrative: Reflections on a New Old History. Past & Present, No. 85.

74. Stone, *ibid.*

75. Gombrich, Sir Ernst. 1973. Research in the Humanities: Ideals and Idols. *Daedalus*, Spring, 102(2). Tunstall, *ibid.*, attacks journalists for making similar assumptions.

76.a. Dressell, Paul L. 1960, 1963. Liberal Education and Journalism. Published by Teachers College, Columbia University, U.S.A. p.86f

b. Phillips, E. Barbara. 1975. The Artists of Everyday Life: Journalists, their craft, & their consciousness. Ph. D. dissertation, Syracuse University, U.S.A. p. 169:

"Journalism may be the last of the liberal professions or trades, demanding a generalist's breadth of understanding and a creative imagination combined with a technical competence in the manipulation of symbols... The skills and talents needed for journalism (include) a healthy scepticism, curiosity, an ability to tolerate ambiguity, incomplete data, perseverance and a broad knowledge of many life situations which a journalist might face... these qualities resemble the ideal of the liberal educated person as defined by Cardinal Newman... (such a) person not only possesses facts but uses his or her mind efficiently, incisively, and imaginatively. The generalist - the well-informed citizen rather than the 'expert' has been the model for most journalists..." (this was a study of American newsmen.)"

77. P.E.P. 1938. Report on the British Press, p.281

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Uncatalogued papers including:

- (i) University and College Journalism Committee Meeting Minutes 1935-39.
- (ii) Memoranda between T. Clarke, Dr Harrison, Miss Skipsey, The Principal, Dr Halliday and general correspondence.
- (iii) Miss Skipsey's records of student marks and examples of students' practical journalism assignments.

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APPENDICES

APPENDICES

APPENDIX 'I

First thoughts on Examinations
in the
National Association of Journalists
1887 - 88

1. Candidates to under go a viva voce examination in English literature and general knowledge;
2. Condense a column speech into two or three sticks;
3. Write a short essay on some selected subject;
4. Make paragraphs of three incidents narrated by examiner;
5. Correct twenty-four incorrectly constructed sentences;
6. Summarise a balance sheet.¹
7. Shorthand test;
8. Test descriptive writing;
9. Test candidates grammatical construction of language. (2)

SOURCES:

Note 1: Items 1-6, The Journalist, November, 1887 and February, 1888.

Note 2: Items 7 - 9, Journalism, February, 1888.

APPENDIX II

INSTITUTE OF JOURNALISTS

1889

Scheme for an Elementary Examination

Paper 1: ENGLISH

Time: Two hours. Maximum: 100 marks

1. Original composition on any two of the following subjects:

- (a) Essay on a given theme of a general and familiar character
- (b) Condensation of a supplied newspaper report
- (c) Comment on a given subject
- (d) Short essay on a standard book and its author

(Time: One hour)

2. Elements of English History

3. Outlines of Geography, political and commercial

(Time: One hour)

Paper 2: LANGUAGES

Time: Two hours. Maximum: 75 marks

- 1. Latin Essay translation paper, based upon Dr Smith's Principia Latina, Part 1.
- 2. French, German, or any one modern language: elementary translation paper.

Paper 3: MATHEMATICS

Time: 1½ hours. Maximum: 50 marks

- 1. Simple and compound arithmetic, proportion, vulgar and decimal fractions, percentages, interest, and balance-sheets.
- 2. One of the following subjects:
 - (a) Algebra to Simple Equations, or
 - (b) Euclid, Book 1.

ORAL EXAMINATION

Time: not to exceed half an hour. Maximum: 50 marks

It will be the option of the Examiner to put test-questions in any or all of the following subjects:

- | | |
|---------------------------|---|
| 1. Spelling | 5. Grammar |
| 2. History | 6. Main facts in English Literature |
| 3. Elementary Mathematics | 7. Current Events and Notable Personalities |
| 4. Geography | |
| | 8. Foreign words and phrases in common use |

SOURCE: Institute of Journalists Proceedings, 1899

APPENDIX III
INSTITUTE OF JOURNALISTS
Revised Scheme for Examinations

1893

1. Division 1: For the Pupil-associateship

2. The examination of candidates for admission to the class of Pupil-associates shall be as follows:

- (a) English History
- (b) English Literature
- (c) Arithmetic, up to and including vulgar and decimal fractions; with easy questions in algebra and the First Book of Euclid
- (d) Geography, especially of England and the British Empire
- (e) Latin, or French, or German, at the choice of the candidate, by translation of an easy passage into English
- (f) A paper of not less than 500 words on one of six general topics
- (g) Correction of 12 inaccurately constructed sentences
- (h) To condense a report of 1,000 words into a report of from 200 to 300 words; and to write paragraphs upon three incidents briefly narrated by the examiner
- (i) General knowledge

The examiners may test, and take into consideration, any candidate's knowledge of shorthand. But examination in the subject shall be optional.

3. Division 2: For The Membership

Candidates for admission to the class of Members shall show a proficiency in the following subjects:-

- (a) The English Language
 - (b) English Literature
 - (c) English Constitutional and Political History
 - (d) Political and Physical Geography
- a sufficient knowledge of:-

- (e) Latin
- (f) either French or German, at the choice of the candidate
- (g) Natural Science or Mathematics; and an acquaintance with
- (h) General History
- (i) Political Economy

NOTES:

1. Candidates had to satisfy examiners of mastery in précis writing, composition, and aptitude at condensation to be regarded as proficient.
2. Papers were to be prepared up to the standard of Oxford or Cambridge Senior Local Examinations, or equivalents.

/continued

APPENDIX IV
INSTITUTE OF JOURNALISTS

Pupil-associates Entry Examination Proposals

1908

SYLLABUS

For the Pupil-associateship

The Examination shall be in the following subjects:-

- (a) ENGLISH LANGUAGE:: including:
- (i) an English Essay of not more than two pages of foolscap
 - (ii) Précis writing
 - (iii) Paraphrasing
 - (iv) Correction of faulty sentences
- (b) MATHEMATICS: including:
- (i) Arithmetic
 - (ii) Elementary Algebra
 - (iii) Euclid I and III., 1 - 20 inclusive, or the subjects thereof
- N.B. Candidates will be allowed to pass in Mathematics, provided they show excellence in any two parts
- (c) GEOGRAPHY, especially of the British Empire
- (d) HISTORY: general outlines
- (e) LATIN or FRENCH or GERMAN at the option of the candidate. Every candidate must show an elementary knowledge of the grammar of the language which he selects. Questions in translation from English will also be set.
- (f) GENERAL ELEMENTARY SCIENCE: Questions will be set on the Text Book published by Messrs Clive & Co., Drury Lane, London

N.B. The subjects marked (a), (b) (c), (d), (e) are compulsory. Should a candidate be weak in one only of the compulsory subjects, he will be allowed to pass the Examination for the Pupil-associateship, provided that he satisfies the Examiner in General Elementary Science.

SOURCE: Institute of Journalists PROCEEDINGS, July, 1908

APPENDIX V

Professor Churton Collins Record of Work, October 15 -20,
1906

MONDAY At 10.30, 11.30, 12.30 to 1.30, Lectured at the University at three different periods; at 5.30 held Essay Class.

TUESDAY At University, 11.30 to 12.30, and 12.30 to 1.30; at 5.30, Interpretative Recitals from De Quincey; at 8.30 lectured on Shakespeare at Tamworth, getting back at 12 midnight.

WEDNESDAY: 9.30 to 10.30, 11.30 to 12.30, at University; at 7.30, lectured on "Romeo and Juliet" at Wolverhampton.

THURSDAY: 10.30 to 11.30, at University; left for London by 11.45 train; lectured at Forest Hill on Tennyson, & at Polytechnic, Regent - Street, on Shakespeare **

FRIDAY From 9 a.m. to 10 a.m., lectured on Lord Melbourne's Administration & on Aristotle's Ethics at Levens, Wimbledon; on the Iliad at 12,, at South Kensington; on Spenser at Bolton Gardens, at 2.30; on Beowulf, at Gunnersbury Lodge; at 4.45; on Ruskin at Kingston, at 8.15 - six lectures in one day.

SATURDAY: Lectured at 11.45 a.m. on Victorian History at Brondesbury.

That I do for ten weeks, except that Tamworth, Wolverhampton, and Forest Hill on alternate weeks.

** all the London lectures were given as part of the University Extension lecturing scheme of which Collins as a life-long supporter.

SOURCE: Collins, L.C(ed) Life and Memoirs of John Churton Collins, 1912, appendix III.

APPENDIX VI

Professor Churton Collins Syllabus for a Postgraduate Course

1908

1. MODERN ENGLISH HISTORY, since the Reform Bill of 1832 with special reference to the development of democratic social legislation, and history of British Institutions
2. MODERN EUROPEAN HISTORY, during the last 50 years... still chiefly occupying the attention of the leading countries, politically, socially, economically... leading facts about institutions, territory, population.
3. COLONIAL AFFAIRS, modern history; practical information about their present state, geography etc.
4. POLITICAL PHILOSOPHY, Burke, de Tocqueville, Bentham, Mill, Bagehot, and modern authors... such works as treat of the practical duties of citizenship, as in series edited by Sir Henry Craik.
5. POLITICAL ECONOMY, English industrial development and economic problems of current interest.
6. FINANCE, national and municipal, taxation, public debts, tariffs, and budget.
7. ENGLISH LITERATURE, especially modern English Literature and Principles of Criticism.
8. TWO MODERN LANGUAGES, French and German, studied not critically but practically... for conversation and reading.

Four, or five of these eight subjects to be taken if post-graduate, with the possibility of substituting one, or more, of the following for the arts subjects:

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1) Natural philosophy, elements
of physics or mechanics | (5) Elemental Biology |
| 2) Physiology | (6) Geology and Geography |
| 3) Chemistry | (7) Metallurgy |
| 4) Bacteriology | (8) The fundamentals of
Principles of Engineering. |

SPECIFIC TRAINING IN TECHNIQUES OF JOURNALISM:

1. Descriptive article writing: encouragement to acquire miscellaneous information gained from visits to galleries, University, scientific and technical departments
2. Leading article writing: leaderettes and notes
3. Shorthand: not compulsory, encouraged to acquire
4. Practical instruction: in make-up of a newspaper, the management of paragraphs, deciphering and presenting telegrams, and the law of copyright and libel.

SOURCE: Nineteenth Century, February, 1908, article by Collins

APPENDIX VII

Proposed Curriculum for Journalism Students at the University of Birmingham

1908

I. MODERN HISTORY. With special reference to:-

Political and Social Development:

- (a) Development of Europe from the 10th century, tracing the rise and progress of the forces which have made modern Europe,
- (b) History of Modern Europe since the French Revolution, with special reference to the forces which have moulded the Modern World.
- (c) Political and social development of England since 1832.

II. ECONOMICS

- (a) Industrial History. Prof. Ashley. 1 term, 10 lectures
- (b) Public Finance. Prof. Kirkaldy, ditto
- (c) Current Economic Topics, Profs Ashley, Kirkaldy, ditto

III. ENGLISH LITERATURE

- (a) History of English Literature from the breaking out of the French Revolution to the Reform Bill of 1832 alternating with lectures on particular works, including instructions on the Principles of Criticism. I term, 10 lectures
- (b) The same subject continued to the Victorian Era...
- (c) Victorian Literature dealt with in the same way.

FEES: £3.13.6., minimum of 12 students.

SOURCE: University of Birmingham, Senate Minutes, dated July 27, 1908.

APPENDIX VIII

Professor Sadler's Proposed Syllabus, September,

1908

A new type of Honours School in a University to amalgamate into one course of academic training a number of studies, usually kept separate:

1. ENGLISH LANGUAGE: training in the power of expression of the mother tongue
2. PSYCHOLOGY: for insight into the working of the mind
3. LITERATURE: English, French, German
4. HISTORY: European, American, Oriental, as well as British and Irish
5. SCIENCE: some training in scientific method
6. LAW: basic elements for journalists
7. ECONOMICS: with special reference to problems of social organisation, such as, poor-relief, invalidity and old-age pensions, solutions for unemployment, the question of military service, and of education. Awareness of foreign experience in these areas.
8. GOVERNMENT: knowledge of the working of the political, educational and government authorities, local and national.
9. PRACTICAL EXPERIENCE: possibly by apprenticeship, or, training newspaper.**

** Sadler infers this implicitly when he states that journalism students needing the equivalent of the Manchester University's "demonstration" schools for trainee-teachers.

SOURCE: Paper presented to the Institute of Journalists Annual Conference, Manchester, 1st September, 1908.

APPENDIX IX

A Course of Lectures by Eminent Journalists held at

Trinity College, Dublin,

1908 - 9

1. "The London Correspondent" by (Sir) Alfred Robbins
2. "Some First Principles of the Drama" by Mr A H Walkley
3. "The Duty of the Press to the People" by Mr H W Masingham
4. "The Political Cartoon in Journalism" by Sir Francis Carruthers Gould
5. "The Education of a Journalist" by Mr J A Spender
6. "The Special Correspondent" by Mr John Foster Fraser
7. "The Financial Editor" by Mr Charles Duguid

(Note: All, except Mr Walkley, were Fellows of the Institute of Journalists.)

SOURCE:

Supplement 'B' to the Official Proceedings of the Institute of Journalists, No. 69, July, 1909

APPENDIX X a

LONDON UNIVERSITY PROPOSED SYLLABUS

1910

ACADEMIC SUBJECTS INCLUDED IN THE SCHEME

SUBJECT.	FACULTIES.
Botany	Arts, Science.
British Constitution	Economics.
Chemistry	Arts, Science.
Economics	Economics.
English	Arts.
English Constitutional Law	Laws.
French	Arts.
Geography	Arts, Economics.
Geology	Arts, Science.
German	Arts.
Greek	Arts.
Hebrew	Arts.
History	Arts.
Italiana	Arts.
Jurisprudence	Laws.
Latin	Arts.
Logic	Arts, Economics.
Mathematics, Pure	Arts, Science, Economics.
Mathematics, Applied	Arts, Science.
Physics	Arts, Science.
Roman Law, History of	Laws.
Russian	Arts.
Spanish	Arts.
Zoology	Arts, Science.

APPENDIX XI

UNIVERSITY OF LONDON DIPLOMA FOR JOURNALISM EXAMINATION SCHEME, 1920

COMPULSORY SUBJECTS:

1. English Composition, including Essay-Writing and Writing for the Press (one paper)
[Graduate candidates shall take two of the subjects, 2a, 2b, 2c]
- 2a. General History and Development of Science (one paper)
- 2b. History of Political Ideas (one paper)
- 2c. Principles of Criticism (one paper)

OPTIONAL SUBJECTS;

Graduate candidates shall take two (and candidates not being graduates three) of the following eight branches of knowledge:

1. English (two papers) Literature and Criticism, including:
 - (a) Historical development of English Literature
 - (b) Textual Study of works of Chief writers
 - (c) Shakespeare's Plays
 - (d) History of Journalism
2. History (two papers) including:
 - (a) World History... 19th century
 - (b) English Constitutional History
 - (c) History of British Empire after 1832
 - (d) Actual Working of the British Constitution
 - (e) The Geographical Factor in the Political & Economic Development of Western & Central Europe.
3. Modern Languages: (two papers in any language) French, German, Italian, Spanish, Russian; including:
 - (a) Composition
 - (b) Textual Study
 - (c) History
4. Political Science (two papers)
 - (a) Central Government of the United Kingdom
 - (b) Public Administration
 - (c) Psychology of Modern Society
 - (d) Study of Society
 - (e) Social History from 1760
- (5) Economics (two papers)
 - (a) Elements of Economics
 - (b) Methods & Applications of Statistics
 - (c) Principles of Public Finance
 - (d) Economic History
- (6) Biological Science (two papers)
Zoology or Botany
- (7) Physico-Chemical Science (two papers)
Physics or Chemistry
- (8) Philosophy & Psychology (two papers)
 - (a) Philosophy
 - (b) Psychology
 - (c) Logic
 - (d) Ethics

SOURCE: Senate Minutes
2474, July 1920
University of London

APPENDIX XII a

National Union of Journalists

Proposed Syllabus

1946

First Year

Visits of instruction to large newspaper offices, and, with a senior reporter, to courts, meetings of local government authorities, local ceremonies, inquests, etc. In the early stages the pupil should write a story of each visit. Later he should do some actual reporting. His reports should be compared with what the paper prints, and should be examined by the editor or chief reporter, who should point out their weaknesses. Close attention should be given to grammar and the need for a simple style.

Instruction in making calls, telephoning copy, making inquiries, looking up reference books, checking facts.

From the beginning he should be taught journalistic etiquette and the Union's Code of Professional Conduct should invariably be observed.

First Year Study

Shorthand and typewriting (intensive); students should qualify for a certificate of 100 words a minute at the end of the year.

English.

The structure and powers of local government authorities.

Geography and modern history.

Continuing with a second language begun at school.

Second Year

Pupils should be marked for suitable engagements at the discretion of the editor or chief reporter.

They should start studying the work of other departments, e.g., sub-editing, proof-reading, case and machine rooms.

Second Year Study

Shorthand speed practice.

More detailed study of local government.

English.

Elementary economics.

Law as it affects journalists.

Finance and statistics for journalists.

Second language.

Third Year

Reporting on a more varied and responsible scale (interviewing, local government, law courts, specials, and preparing press digests).

During the last six months, junior sub-editing, including working at the stone.

Third Year Study

The structure and functions of Parliament; political ideas and political parties.

Industrial history and industrial relations.

Law as it affects journalists.

Sport or a cultural subject, or domestic science.

During the whole period pupils should read selectively, on a basis laid down by the National Council, to widen and deepen their knowledge of the Press and of the Society it serves.

APPENDIX XII: b
National Union of Journalists 1946

Proposed Syllabus
in
Finance and Statistics for Journalists

Appendix XII suggests a three years' course which the National Council might wish to adopt. The subjects, with one exception, are sufficiently indicated by their titles. The exception is:

Finance and Statistics for Journalists. The profession attracts men and women with a literary bias and many of them meet difficulties (which they do not always overcome) in handling figures. Statistical work and accountancy can be left to specialists, but a civilisation which increasingly measures its growth and diversity, estimates its achievements, and discusses its problems in terms of figures cannot be reported by journalists who do not understand figures. "Number is the language of size," and the modern journalist must understand that language.

It is therefore proposed that a course in finance and statistics for journalists should include:—

(i) **Elementary Mathematics**, with special reference to comparisons, proportions, approximations, and the quick and easy methods of checking calculations. The approach to the subject is important. It needs to be nearer the style of Herbert McKay's "Odd Numbers" and W. W. Sawyer's "Mathematician's Delight" than that of the older textbooks.

(ii) **Simple Balance Sheets** (e.g., local societies); the finance of slate, tontine, and similar thrift clubs.

(iii) **Municipal Finance.** Principles of valuation; principles of rating (local expenditure, precepts from other authorities); Exchequer assistance and the way it works; the Block Grant; municipal trading and profits (explain that the capital of a municipal trading concern is classed as debt which has to be extinguished in a period of years); public works loans boards; sinking fund charges; the Small Dwellings Acquisition Act.

(iv) **National Finance.**—Departmental Estimates and the Budget; the Finance Bill (House of Lords has no power to veto financial measures); forms of taxation, direct and indirect, and main sources of revenue; long-term and short-term borrowing, Treasury Bills, Treasury deposits, advance payment of taxation on account, borrowing from statutory funds such as Road Fund and Unemployment Insurance Fund, War Loan and other Government issues; votes of credit, the Consolidated Fund; National Debt (internal and external); Exchequer returns (weekly, quarterly, and yearly); White Papers, Blue Books, and the "London Gazette" in relation to national finance.

(v) **Currency.**—Note-issuing banks, the gold reserve, fiduciary issue, and legal tender.

(vi) **Commerce.**—Relationship of Bank of England to joint-stock banks; the bank rate; merchant bankers, trustee savings banks, Post Office Savings Bank; bankers' clearing house; trade returns, imports exports, re-exports, "invisible" exports; international rates of exchange (Bretton Woods, etc.); bills of exchange.

(vii) **Insurance and Other Financial Transactions.**—Types of insurance and assurance; "industrial" insurance, insurance as an investment, endowments, "with profits" and "without profits," quinquennial valuations, educational policies, annuities, Government annuities; superannuation funds; finance of building societies and house mortgages; collection of tithe and Queen Anne's Bounty.

(viii) **Social and Economic Statistics.**—The census of population; the census of production; employment and unemployment statistics; statistics of health and housing; wages and earnings; money wages and real wages; the cost-of-living index; the national income.

APPENDIX XIII

London University

Colleges Involved in the Course

- 1919: East London(now Queen Mary College) Bedford
College, King's College, London School of
Economics, University College.
- 1922/3 East London College announced withdrawal.
- 1930/31 London School of Economics announced withdrawal
- 1935/36 Bedford College withdrew
- 1936/37 University College announced its withdrawal
- 1937/39 Diploma for Journalism course centred at
King's College.

APPENDIX XIV

London University Diploma for Journalism

1937 - 39

Compulsory Subjects

Practical Journalism:

First Year: Introduction to newspaper work. Theory and practice of reporting(elementary). Presentation of "copy" Writing for the Press. Sources of news. Collection and transmission of news. Libel. Lectures are supplemented by simple practical assignments, practice at telephone, and the writing of news and articles for the Press generally.

Second Year: Practice(indoor and outdoor)reporting; police work, interviewing, local government and descriptive writing. Assignments are related to actual news or topics of the day. Elementary news-editing and sub-editing; the use of reference books; avoidance of libel; typography and make-up...

While the basis of instruction is newspaper reporting and writing and sub-editing, the students learning these by doing them...

English Composition: (a tutorial course)

Principles of Criticism: Students will be expected to have read Aristotle's Poetics; Lessing's Laocoon; English Critical Essays(XVI-XVII century) and English Critical Essays(XIX century). Importance will be attached to an understanding of present-day movements in art and literature.

Social and Economic Structure of Today: to include: Elementary principles of Economic Science and the theory of Money, Banking, and International Trade. The economic structure of Great Britain, the distribution of its population, the organisation of its industry and finance. The social structure of Great Britain, the organisation of social services both national and local, and of professional and occupational organisations, to include Trade Unions... methods of social enquiry, royal commissions and departmental committees...sources of social and economic information.

History of the Modern World from 1789:

- (i) Revolutionary and Napoleonic Era, 1789-1815 :its legacy...
- (ii) Europe, 1815-45: Reaction and Reconstruction; 1838 and 1848 revolutionary movements
- (iii) The Era of the Triumphs of Nationality, 1848-71
- (iv) Europe, 1871- present day

Modern English Literature from 1850: No particular authors or works are prescribed. One lecture course entitled: A Reading Course in Modern English Literature.

I. 1850-1900: Tennyson, Browning, Arnold, Carlyle, Morris, Ruskin, the Pre-Raphaelites Francis Thompson, Mrs Meynell, the historians and theologians, Meredith, Hardy, Bridges, Kipling, Conrad

APPENDIX XIV

(continued)

London University Diploma for Journalism

Compulsory Subjects:

6. Modern English Literature from 1850:

II. 1900 and after.

- (a) The situation in 1900; the post-war period;...
- (b) Poetry: Georgian Poets: Imagists: Post-War poetry: with special attention to W B Yeats, Walter De la Mare: T S Eliot: Edith Sitwell.
- (c) The novel: George Moore; the novel of discussion, H G Wells, the Proustians; Dorothy Richardson, James Joyce, Virginia Woolf, D H Lawrence, the Americans, the short story; miscellanea.
- (d) The Drama: Ibsen and Shaw; the Irish theatre: Synge and O'Casey; Experiments, O'Neill, the Cinema
- (e) Miscellanea: essay, biography, criticism, the periodical press

ONE of the following subjects: (Two papers in each)

A Modern Language, including in each case (a) composition
(b) Textual study, (c) Literary History: Dutch, French, German, Italian, Russian, Spanish

Military Studies

Philosophy

Psychology

History of Art

The Harmsworth Gold Medal

Awarded annually to the best student of the year. The medal endowed by the late Sir Leicester Harmsworth, and first awarded in 1936. The following awards have been made:

1936. Basil Dean

1937. J C Clarke

(The medal was also awarded in later years to:

1938. Eunice K Holland

1939. G C Pinnington.)

SOURCE: King's College pamphlet on the course.

APPENDIX XV

Proposed New Syllabus, Diploma for Journalism

1938(for 1940 start)

1. The Course shall consist of the following subjects:

- a. Practical Journalism
- b. English Composition
- c. Modern World
 - i. History of the Modern World
 - ii. Social and Economic Structures of Today
 - iii. Discoveries, Ideas and Thinkers that have influenced modern Thought
 - iv. Literature and Drama(mainly English) 1850 to the present time, but particularly since 1900
- d. an optional subject taken from the Inter.Arts Group:
 - 1. Outline of English Literature, with set books
 - 2. A Modern Language
 - 3. Psychology
 - 4. Philosophy
 - 5. Military Studies
 - 6. History of Art

NOTE(c)iii, above) had, as the basis for discussion the following syllabus:

PROGRAMME

- i. Scientific Discovery in the Natural World, e.g. Darwin and the physical universe. 10 lectures.
 - ii. Scientific invention, e.g. aeroplane, wireless etc, ditto
 - iii. Religious Ideas of Today 5 lectures
 - iv. Political theories from 1789 to present time. 10 lectures
 - v. Critical and Artistic Ideas 10 lectures.
- (This paper would not be examined).

SOURCE: Journalism Committee document of November 25, 1938.

APPENDIX XVI

Dr G B Harrison's "ideal education for a journalist"

1. ACADEMIC:

- (a) knowledge of history; European from legendary Greek and Roman - naturally in outline - and personalities (the good old stories rather than "social tendencies")
 - (b) Great Books - a selection of what an educated man should know - and would include the Bible and the Christian religion, with some (instances) of other faiths
 - (c) Notions of how the sciences function - including modern theories
 - (d) Modern questions, and events, in politics, economics and the like
2. Contact with social institutions, e.g. visits to law courts, Parliament, Local government, hospitals, prisons. By visits, or even working a while in some of them
 3. Contact with personalities who count. After a while intelligent people would welcome an invitation to mingle with journalism students
 4. Instructors in the School should be chosen for their liveliness and ability to communicate rather than for their academic achievements - but not quacks
 5. PRACTICAL TRAINING: Writing of all kinds - descriptive, reporting, analysis, criticism of current books, plays, films. A period on a real paper each year to learn the routine drudgery of the job.

A book needed is a good anthology of reporting through the ages.

My feeling is that practical journalism, like everything else, is only learned on the job but given good all-round training, a young journalist would learn the job quickly and be saved much tedious muddling. His employer also.

All rather idealistic - but positive. You want an excellent team to start it off.

SOURCE:

Letter to the author, 22 September, 1979.

APPENDIX XVII

Biographical Details

Tom CLARKE (6 June 1884 - 18 June 1957)

1935-39, Director of Practical Journalism, King's College

Career

1900-1 contributor Northern Weekly

Attended Ruskin College, Oxford(?)

1902 Reporter Lewisham Journal as £1 per week

1903 Reporter South China Morning Post, Hong Kong

1903-6 Daily Mail & Chicago Tribune Special Correspondent in the Far East

1907 Special writer Daily Disp & Manchester Evening Chronicle in Manchester. Article on a flying meeting at Blackpool won him his next job:

1909 London news editor Daily Sketch

1911 Joined foreign staff Daily Mail

1914-16 Night news editor Daily Mail

1919 News editor Daily Mail. Sent by Northcliffe to USA & Canada to study newspaper methods (salary £250 p.a.)

1920 Planned and organised Dame Nellie Melba's first wireless concert

1923-6 Assistant editor, Melbourne Herald for his old friend and Northcliffe protege, Keith Murdoch

1926 Managing editor Daily News, which merged with Rival to Daily Chronicle to form News Chronicle of which he became Editor and Director

1934 Adviser to Berlingske Tidende, Copenhagen. Also with Australian Test Team for Daily Mail

1935 Director of Practical Journalism at King's College, to London University (at a salary of £1,000 p.a.)

1936 Visited Keith Murdoch to advise on Sidney Sun

1939-40 Columnist, Reynolds News

1939-40 Deputy Director, News Division, Ministry of Information

1941-2 Special Representative, Hulton Press, in South America with Britanov. (News Agency) a Foreign Office subsidised operation promoting British propaganda

1942-8 Broadcast regularly for BBC Latin America Service London Letter

BOOKS:

1931 My Northcliffe Diary

APPENDIX XVII
Biographical Details

CLARKE(continued)

BOOKS:

- 1934 Marriage at 6 a.m. impressions of Australia
- 1937 Around the World with Tom Clarke
- 1939 My Lloyd George Diary
- 1934 The Word of an Englishman
- 1936 Brian - a book about his youngest son who died aged 9
- 1944 The Devonshire Club
- 1945 Journalism - based on his London University lecture notes, 1935-39
- 1950 Northcliffe in History
- 1954 Living Happily with a 'heart'

Dr G B HARRISON (14 July 1894 -)

1929-39 Academic Tutor to Journalism Students, Kings College

Career

- 1914-19 War service in India and Mesopotamia
- 1920-22 Assistant master Felsted School
- 1922-24 Senior Lecturer in English, St Paul's Training College, Cheltenham
- 1924-27 Assistant lecturer, English Literature, King's College
- 1927-29 Lecturer at King's College
- 1929 Visiting Professor of English, Chicago University
- 1929-43 Reader in English Literature, London University
- 1940-43 War service with RASC and Intelligence Corps
- 1943-49 Professor of English, Queen's College, Ontario
- *1949-64 Professor of English, University of Michigan

*Dr Harrison mentions 1947 as the year he was invited to Michigan University, but Who's Who states 1949 as the year.

BOOKS:

12 books on Shakespeare and Elizabethan England and two with co-authors; Editor, Penguin Shakespeares 1937-59. Three volumes of Elizabethan Journals, 1928-33, were followed by The Day Before Yesterday (1936), 1938, for which he used newspapers, commenting that "I conceived an enormous respect for The Times because of the historic sense of its writers." The Profession of English, 1962 (U.S.A.) gives marvellous flavour of what it must have been like to be taught by him.

APPENDIX XVII

Biographical details

Sir Sidney Lee (5 December 1859 - 3 March 1926)

First Chairman of the Journalism Committee, London University

- 882 Sub-editor to Sir Leslie Stephen on Dictionary of National Biography
- 883 Appointed assistant editor at £300 p.a.
- 890 Joint Editor DNB
- 891 Editor DNB
- 906 Founded English Association (President 1917)
- 913-924 Chairman of English Language and Literature at East London College
- 911 Knighted
- Also lectured at Working Men's College, Mile End Road

BOOKS:

- 898 Life of William Shakespeare

Valentine Knapp (? 1860 - 24 April 1935)

Chairman, Journalism Committee, London University, 1922-1932

Educated at Christ's Hospital and first worked as a Parliamentary agent.

- 882 Joined Surrey Comet which his mother had managed for 15 years following the death of his father
- 887-917 Editor, Surrey Comet
- 919-20) President of reconstituted Newspaper Society
- 920-21)
- 923-34 Treasurer, Newspaper Society
- 922-32 As Chairman of the Journalism Committee Mr Knapp raised £6,000 for Exhibitions to students attending the course and also instituted the practice of students getting work during vacations on newspapers. He also printed, and provided paper for, the LUJS Gazette, the student newspaper of the course. He is also credited with helping to find students jobs at the end of the course.

APPENDIX XVII
Biographical Details

Miss Joan SKIPSEY(now Mrs Galwey) (21 August,1915 -)
Assistant to the Director of Practical Journalism,1937-9

In childhood Miss Skipsey attended Wanstead School,in
east London,and failed Matriculation twice

1932 Worked on The Caxton for three months before
 joining Amalgamated Press on Home Fashions and
 Childrens Dress

1934-6 Attended the Diploma for Journalism at King's
 College,with Clarke joining as Director in her
 second year.

1936 Invited to work as Dr G B Harrison's secretary
 when he first started work on the Penguin
 Shakespeare series.
 Then went to work for Allen Lane at Penguins,
 and is surprised the biographer of Allen Lane
 describes her as his first woman hired(Her name
 is also misspelt as 'Skipsie.')

1937-9 Appointed Clarke's assistant at King's College

1939 ^{to} Worked in British Press Service,which became
1941 British Information Services, under Rene McColl

1941-2 Worked on the Daily Telegraph

1942 At Ministry of Information,American Division,
 dealing with U.S. correspondents

1945 Lecture tour of Mid-Western States,USA for
 British Information Services

1947 Staff Writer,Illustrated

1948 Invited to be reporter on Oscar Stauffer's(d.1982)
 Topeka State Journal;returned home to care for
 parents

1949 Attended short teacher training course at Royston
 Taught at Shelley and Ongar primary schools and
 involved in teaching day-release students on the
 National Council for the Training of Journalists
 course at West Ham College of Further Education
 (nodates given,but after 1951)

1951 Married Geoffrey Galwey

1966-77 Worked for the Citizen's Advice Bureau,Notting
 Hill,London

APPENDIX XVIII

JOURNALISM AND ENGLISH by Fred Hunter

(An article for Media Reporter 6(3) September 1982)

A look at early examination proposals for entrants to journalism, 1887 - 1939

There is an interesting sense of continuity and development as you study the various plans of the early National Association of Journalists and its successor, the Institute of Journalists, regarding entry examination proposals. As far as is known only one such entry examination ever took place, but the columns of the Journalist, Journalism, and the IOJ's Proceedings, reverberated to the sound of battle over the thorny subject of examinations for journalists.

The early N.A.J. ideas of 1887/8 contained an intriguing plan for a viva voce examination in English literature and general knowledge. You have to remember that, at that time, English, as a subject, had not entered the portals of Oxbridge as a subject in its own right. If it was anything, it came under philology. Journalists actually led the academics here, as in other areas of educational innovation of "learning-by-doing." Those early proposals also included tests on grammatical construction of language as well as testing the ability to condense a column speech into two or three sticks. Shorthand was included, and you were also expected to know how to summarise a balance sheet. The latter, incidentally, reflects that innovatory journalist T.P. O'Connor's - "Tay-Pay" to all, even when an M.P. - experience of his first reporting stint. He had to cover a company meeting and his university Greek (the Irish journalist often sported a degree) was not much use to him there. Greek is how the balance sheet looked to him, to coin a phrase.

Similar ideas were in the next exam syllabus of 1889.

This was the work of the Birmingham District of the I.O.J.,

APPENDIX XVIII
(continued)

but was not published,nationally, until 1899, when it was adopted as a national proposal. Languages,like Latin, French,German, caused a stir,as did the proposal to use Book I of Euclid. "Who ever heard of using Euclid in journalism?" scoffed one correspondent. But the idea of an Oral Examination in grammar,current events and notable personalities, plus spelling and history, was retained.

The next scheme was in 1893 and was heavily academic, emphasising book learning as well as practical things like libel and copyright. Another scheme,in 1908,introduced the pupil-associate entrant examination,and it,too, carried an English Language paper.

The first known university syllabus for journalists was produced the same year in July,1908,but it never got off the ground because of the mysterious death of its main protagonist,Professor John Churton Collins,a work-aholic of his day.

1908 was the vintage year in ideas on journalism education. That year Professor (later Sir)Michael Sadler,of Manchester University, prepared a paper for the annual conference of the I.O.J. and he led with "English Language.. as training in the power of expression of the mother tongue" as the basis for journalists.He followed this with psychology: "for insight into the working of the mind." and Economics,looking at "poor-relief...solutions for unemployment and problems of social organisation." He also favoured the idea of a "training newspaper" for students of journalism,like the "demonstration" schools Manchester University provided for its trainee teachers. His letters,however, indicate he thought these a load of "clap-trap"(it always surprises me how modern the Victorians were in their slang.) In 1935 the Director of Practical Journalism at London University,Mr Tom Clarke,former news editor of the Daily

APPENDIX XVIII

(continued)

Mail and ex-editor of the News Chronicle, bemoaned the policy of some London colleges in selecting students for the journalism course who could not write English. Yet, between 1935-38, his colleague the academic tutor for journalism students at King's College, spent half an hour every fortnight going over English Composition work students had prepared, on any subject they chose. Dr G. B. Harrison edited the Penguin Shakespeare series from the mid-1930's until the 1950's. But this feedback from this tutor was the only feedback students received on their academic work. The journalism they undertook - covering events of the day - was usually returned, marked, the next day by Clarke's Assistant, Miss Joan Skipsey (now Mrs Galwey).

Tom Clarke had a phrase for what he taught - which former students still emphasise - and that was "trained thought" as the basis for good reporting. The course closed on the outbreak of the 2nd World War and never re-opened. How effective this university-based education for journalism might have become, if it had developed after 1945, is difficult to establish, but that it did work for some former students can be judged when hearing Geoffrey Pinnington, recently-retired editor of the Sunday People, describing his days on the London course, from 1937-39, "...it stayed with me a lot of it...it helped with my thinking; and thinking is what (journalism) is all about, in the long run."

At the London College of Printing - in our fifth year of running a course in radio journalism - we find that the "power of expression of the mother tongue" is what counts, and that was said nearly 80 years ago now, and we're still having to learn just how important it is. Of course, there is much more, but it's the nucleus of what journalism teaching has been concerned with - for nearly 100 years have passed since David Anderson opened his London School of Journalism in 1887.

UNIVERSITY OF LONDON JOURNALISM EXHIBITIONS 1924—1928.

DONORS OF EXHIBITIONS.

(Each of the value of £200).

The Newspaper Society (Three Exhibitions)	The United Newspapers (1918) Limited
The Liverpool Post and Echo (Two Exhibitions)	(Proprietors of the Daily Chronicle)
Sir Edward Hulton, Bart. (the late)	The Eastern Daily Press
Sir Roderick Jones (Reuters Limited)	National Union of Journalists
Colonel Sir Joseph Reed	Western Mail and South Wales News

SUBSCRIBERS.

London Newspapers and News Agencies.

The Daily Telegraph	Reuters Limited	The Exchange Telegraph
The Daily Sketch and Sunday Graphic	Mr. W. Lints Smith	Limited
	The Press Association Limited	Lord Hambleden

Provincial Dailies.

Manchester Guardian	Birmingham Gazette, Sheffield Independent, Nottingham Journal, Northern Echo and other newspapers associated in the "Starmer" group	Staffordshire Sentinel
Bolton Evening News		Sussex Daily News
East Anglian Daily Times		Western Mail
Express and Echo, Exeter		Yorkshire Observer and associated newspapers
Huddersfield Examiner		

Yorkshire Newspaper Society.

Yorkshire Post	Hull Daily Mail	Cleckheaton Guardian
Yorkshire Observer	Armley and Wortley News	Rotherham Advertiser
Yorkshire Evening News	Heckmondwike Herald	Scarborough Mercury
Sheffield Telegraph	Huddersfield Examiner	Harrogate Herald
Sheffield Independent	North Eastern Daily Gazette	Colne Valley Guardian
Yorkshire Herald	Batley News	

Surrey Newspapers' Association.

Croydon Advertiser	Surrey County Herald (Sutton).	Surrey Mirror
South London Press	Surrey Comet	Surrey Times
South Western Star	Surrey Herald (Chertsey)	Wimbledon Boro' News
Surrey Advertiser		

Kent Newspaper Proprietors' Association.

Chatham, Rochester and Gillingham Observer	Folkestone Herald	Kentish Independent
Chatham, Rochester and Gillingham News	Isle of Thanet Gazette	Kentish Mercury
	Kentish District Times	Lewisham Borough News
	Kentish Express	

Lancashire, Cheshire, and Derbyshire Newspaper Proprietors.

Bolton Evening News	Blackpool Gazette	Southport Guardian
Lancashire Daily Post	Bury Times	Stockport Advertiser
Northern Daily Telegraph	Lancaster Guardian	Warrington Examiner
Ashton-under-Lyne Herald	Oldham Chronicle	Warrington Guardian
Ashton-under-Lyne Reporter		

Midland Federation of Newspaper Owners.

Three Shires (Worcester, Gloucester and Hereford).	Staffordshire.	Warwickshire.
Dursley Gazette	Burton-on-Trent Observer	Birmingham News
Evesham Journal	Dudley Herald	Birmingham Gazette
Evesham Standard	Express & Star, Wolverhampton	Coventry Herald
Gloucester Citizen and Journal	Lichfield Mercury	Coventry Standard
Gloucester Echo	Oldbury Weekly News	Leamington Chronicle
Hereford Times	Smethwick Telephone	Leamington Spa Courier
Kidderminster Shuttle	Stourbridge County Express	Midland Daily Tribune
Leominster Times	Tamworth Herald	Nuneaton Chronicle
Ross Gazette	Walsall Observer	Nuneaton Observer
Stroud News		Rugby Advertiser
Three Forest Newspapers	Shropshire & North Wales.	Warwick Advertiser
Wilts & Gloucestershire Standard	Oswestry, Border Counties Advertiser	Stratford-on-Avon Herald
Worcester Advertiser	Wellington Journal	
Worcester Times	Welshpool, County Times	
Worcester Journal	Wrexham Leader	
Worcester Echo		

EXHIBITIONS FOR JOURNALISM.

Application for particulars of Exhibitions, if any, to be offered in 1938 should be made early in that year. The Regulations for the Examination in June 1937 may be obtained from the Academic Registrar, University of London, Bloomsbury, W.C.1.

The Exhibitions are of the value of £120 to £200, i.e. £60 to £100 per annum and tenable for two years.

Donors of exhibitions offered in 1938:—

- 1.
- 2.

Donors of Exhibitions awarded in 1937:—

1. Newspaper Society (Seventh Exhibition) (value £150).
2. Newspaper Proprietors' Association (Fourth Exhibition) (value £150).

No Exhibitions were awarded in 1936:

Donors of Exhibitions awarded in 1935:

1. Newspaper Society (Sixth Exhibition) (value £150).
2. Newspaper Proprietors' Association (Third Exhibition) (value £150).

Donors of Exhibitions awarded in 1934:

1. Provincial Newspaper Proprietors (value £150).
2. Stationers' and Newspaper Makers' Company (value £150).

Donors of Exhibitions awarded in 1933:

1. Newspaper Proprietors' Association (Second Exhibition) (value £150).
2. Newspaper Society (Fifth Exhibition) (value £150).

No Exhibitions were awarded in 1932.

Donors of Exhibitions awarded in 1931:

1. Newspaper Proprietors' Association (value £150).
2. Proprietors of various Newspapers (Two Exhibitions) (value £140 3s. 6d. and £120).

Donors of Exhibitions awarded in 1930:

1. London Newspapers and News Agencies (Two Exhibitions) (value £150 each).
2. Institute of Journalists (value £160).
3. Newspaper Society (Fourth Exhibition) (value £200).
4. The National Union of Journalists (Second Exhibition) (value £200).

Donors of Exhibitions awarded in 1929:

1. General Exhibitions Fund, subscribed by Newspaper Proprietors (value £160).
2. The Yorkshire Newspaper Society (Second Exhibition) (value £160).
3. Lancashire, Cheshire and Derbyshire Newspaper Proprietors (Second Exhibition) (value £200).
4. Members of the Midland Federation of Newspaper Owners (Second Exhibition) (value £160).

Donors of Exhibitions awarded in 1928:

1. The Newspaper Society (Third Exhibition) (value £200).
2. London Newspapers and News Agencies (Two Exhibitions, value £100 each).
3. Members of the Surrey Newspapers' Association and of the Kent Newspapers' Association (jointly, Second Exhibition) (value £200).
4. Proprietors of Provincial Daily Newspapers (Second Exhibition) (value £200).

Donors of Exhibitions (each of the value of £200) awarded in 1927:

1. The proprietors of the *Liverpool Post and Echo* (Second Exhibition, per Mr. Allan Jeans).
2. Members of the Midland Federation of Newspaper Owners.

Donors of Exhibitions (each of the value of £200) awarded in 1926:

1. The Newspaper Society (Second Exhibition).
2. The Press Association, Ltd., and the Exchange Telegraph Co., Ltd. (jointly).
3. The Proprietors of the *South Wales News*, Cardiff, and the Proprietors of the *Western Mail*, Cardiff (jointly).
4. Lancashire, Cheshire and Derbyshire Newspaper Proprietors.
5. Members of the Surrey Newspapers' Association and of the Kent Newspapers' Association (jointly).
6. Proprietors of Provincial Daily Newspapers.

Donors of Exhibitions (each of the value of £200) awarded in 1925:

1. Sir Edward Hulton, Bart. (the late).
2. The Proprietors of the *Liverpool Post and Echo* (per Mr. Allan Jeans).
3. The United Newspapers (1918) Limited, proprietors of the *Daily Chronicle* (per The Rt. Hon. Charles A. McCurdy).
4. The National Union of Journalists.
5. The Yorkshire Newspaper Society.

Donors of Exhibitions (each of the value of £200) awarded in 1924:

1. The Newspaper Society.
2. Sir Roderick Jones (*Reuters*).
3. Col. Sir Joseph Reed (*Newcastle Chronicle*).
4. The Norfolk News Co., Ltd. (per Mr. A. Cozens-Hardy).
5. The Surrey Newspapers Association.

Source: Syllabus of Courses, Diploma for Journalism, 1938 - 1939.

APPENDIX XXI

National Union of Journalists

Extract from a letter to Education Committee Members from H.S. Toynbee

22nd August, 1944.

(1) UNIVERSITY OF LONDON DIPLOMA FOR JOURNALISTS (Confidential)

The Journalism Course is estimated to cost an initial outlay of £2,000 and, if the University can provide floor space, £1,000 a year (after allowing for fees) or if the floor space cannot be given, £2,000 a year.

(Figures based on 120 students - i.e. 60 doing the first year, 60 doing the second - "the maximum number which it is thought that the profession can absorb").

Before going to the Senate with estimates, the Journalism Committee is asking us - and other interested bodies - whether the project has our full support and if so how much we are prepared to contribute.

The scheme to be submitted to the Senate will be available at the meeting. Its heads are:

Conditions of Admission. These include proven intention to pursue a journalistic career, and a knowledge of shorthand and typewriting.

Syllabus.

Courses. Practical work is to take up one day a week.

Staff. - (1) Director (2) Secretary and Assistant (3) and (4) two part-time lecturers in Practical Journalism (5) Provision for 12 lectures on special subjects in practical journalism (6) Tutor to journalism students (7) part-time lecturers in various subjects. Cost - £5,000 per annum

Accommodation. Cost £1,000 a year if University cannot provide it free.

Furniture and Equipment. Cost £2,000 initial outlay (of which £500 for books of reference).

Administration. Cost £1,000 per annum.

Income and Expenditure. Proposed fee is 40 guineas per annum, plus one guinea registration. This yields £5,000 per annum. The expenditure is £7,000 per annum - deficit £2,000 p.a.

The Journalism Committee of the University "particularly asks" that we treat this information as confidential until the Senate has come to a decision.

Yours sincerely,

H.S. TOYNBEE.

Education Officer.

APPENDIX XXII

Tom Clarke's Letter to The Times, Saturday, August 18, 1945

STUDENT JOURNALISTS

Sir, The reference to journalism in Mr. A. L. Rowse's letter on university students emboldens me to offer some observations on the present state of university education for journalism in this country. It is, of course, in no state at all. I mean in the specialized sense. The University of London diploma course for journalism was a sudden war-time casualty, just as it was getting into its stride. There is no sign of its early revival, and I think I am right in saying that no other university in Great Britain has any authentic links with the profession of journalism.

Is this as it should be? Because of my association with the pioneer London University course I am receiving many inquiries from home and abroad about its future. Is it to go forth that neither in London nor anywhere else in Great Britain will there be a university offering studies for would-be journalists? I am aware of the serious difficulties of accommodation, staff, multiplicity of students, and so on. I am also aware of the distinction between "education for journalism" and "training for journalism." I deeply appreciate the jealousy of academic bodies regarding their standards and their fears of endangering them by the merging of academic and practical studies which is essential in any journalism course worthy the name. But surely that stumbling-block can be overcome by goodwill and understanding. It has been overcome in the United States. The alternative to journalism at the universities might be a journalism society - such as the Law Society - providing its own programme of studies, its professional code, and its avenues of recruitment; but this seems something afar off.

This second world war has brought about changes in our education system which must affect journalism. The standard of education for routine newspaper work will need to rise above the common level. No field of human endeavour will call for a wider variety of powers of intellect and character than that of the men and women who report and write for the Press. News will travel faster and get sooner out of hand. It will need to be presented as never before in this bewildered world with knowledge, with truth, with balance, and with decency. It will no longer

do if it has not the power of knowledge behind it.
Journalism and the universities should get together.

Yours sincerely,

TOM CLARKE

APPENDIX XXIII
Press Studies at Sussex

1. The University of Sussex has been interested for the last two years in the idea of setting up a Centre for the study of communication in modern society.
2. The Centre would be concerned with
 - (a) an examination of the relationship between the techniques and arts of communication.
 - (b) an analysis of content and performance.
 - (c) problems related to the impact of one medium of communication on another.
 - (d) problems connected with recruitment, training and education of people engaged in this field.
 - (e) conferences, refresher course and workshop activities designed to bring together people engaged in the field and people inside the university.
3. It has always been recognised that the setting up of such a Centre requires careful planning and the fullest possible co-operation of interested bodies and organisations outside the university. It has also been recognised that the best way of proceeding is to move step by step rather than to seek to set up a large institutional complex at once.
4. Work is already beginning on television in the university with the help of outside funds, and it is now suggested that pilot work could begin concerning the Press. The difficulty in relation to this latter development has always been that of finding the right kind of person who would be able to explore possibilities and initiate plans.
5. It is now understood that Mr Tom Hopkinson would be interested in a Senior Research Fellowship at the university to carry out for two years a pilot survey:
 - (a) of questions relating to the recruitment, training and education of journalists and
 - (b) examining the changing role of the Press in the communications network.

If funds are available, such pilot work could begin in October, 1966 and continue until October, 1968. It could be decided during this period what long-term pattern of organisation and activities would be desirable.

6. To make a Senior Research Fellowship of this kind possible - and the university has a similar Fellowships already in existence - a sum of £5,000 a year would be necessary for each of the two years. This would pay for the Senior Research Fellow and secretarial help, allowing a margin for necessary costs of travel and administration.

March, 1966.

Asa Briggs
Dean
School of Social Studies

APPENDIX XXIV

National Council for the Training of Journalists

6 Carmelite Street,
London E.C.4

SUSSEX UNIVERSITY APPEAL

LIST OF DONORS

	£
Westminster Press	1000
United Newspapers	1000
Thomson Organisation	1000
International Publishing Corporation	1000
Birmingham Post & Mail, Coventry Evening Telegraph, Cambridge News	800
National Union of Journalists and National Training Council (royalties from a jointly produced book)	500
Kent and Sussex Courier, Tunbridge Wells	500
East Midland Allied Press, Peterborough	500
Yorkshire Conservative Newspaper Co., Leeds	500
Bristol United Press	500
Portsmouth and Sunderland Newspapers	500
Eastern Counties Newspapers, Norwich	300-
Tillotsons Newspapers, Bolton	210
F.J. Parsons Ltd., Sussex	200
Barrow's Newspapers, Worcester	105
Express & Star, Wolverhampton	100
Worthing Herald	100
Kent Messenger, Maidstone	100
Oldham Evening Chronicle	50
Evening Argus, Newport	50
Halifax Courier	50
Croydon Advertiser Group	50
Home Counties Newspapers, Luton	50
Surrey Comet, Kingston	50
Merritt and Hatcher Ltd.	50
Barnet Press Series	50
London Counties Newspapers	50
Kentish Times Series, Sidcup	50
Chronicle Advertiser, Mansfield	50
Surrey Advertiser Group, Guildford	50
Parliamentary Press Gallery	50
Guild of British Newspaper Editors	50
Institute of Journalists	50
Private donation	50

10.10.66

Articles in the National Union of Journalists

The Journalist

- 1923: April The Education of the Journalist (Stanley J Bond)
- 1925: July Education for Journalists (1) Existing Facilities
- August Education for Journalists (II) Organised Reading Scheme
(both articles by H.T. Hamson)
- October Journalists' Education Problem. An Appeal to British
Universities (Education Committee letter to Universities)
- September Education for Journalists. N.U.J. Reading Course
- November Literature and Journalism (1) Origins-17th Century
(by J. Isaacs, Assistant Lecturer in English Language
and Literature, King's College, London University)
- December Journalism and French History. The History of Modern
France. (By A Elizabeth Levett, Lecturer in History,
King's College)
- 1926 January Journalism and Literature - II - Progress and Politics -
18th Century. (by J. Isaacs)
- March Journalism and Literature in the Age of Johnson.
(by Kathleen C. Nott, University of London Diploma
for Journalism 1925, Exhibitioner of Somerville
College, Oxford, 1926)
- April Journalism and Literature - 1800-1830 (by G.B. Harrison,
Assistant Lecturer in English Literature, King's College)
- May Education: The Lasting Ferment (from 'A Correspondent')
Journalists' University Courses (Southampton)
- December On Learning and Earning. A Journalist's Best Education.
(by R.L. Megroz. Author of Walter de la Mare: a
Biographical and Critical Study. 'The Sitwells', 'Joseph
Conrad', 'Personal Poems')
- October Power and Functions of Local Government. (by John J.
Clarke, author of 'The Local Government of the United
Kingdom.')
- 1927 February Industrial History of England. The Progress of Man-
ufacture and Commerce (by Professor A.W. Kirkcaldy, MA
B.Litt., M.Commerce, of the Economics and Commerce
Section of University College, Nottingham.)
- Pertinent Tips for Reporters. Made in America, But
Useful Elsewhere (Oregon University School of Journalism.)
- March A Great Chance for Union Members. Educational Courses
by Post. Pitman's School Makes a Splendid Offer.
What is Psychology? (by F.A.P. Aveling, MC, PhD, D.Sc,
University Reader in Psychology, King's College, London.)
- April Books about Journalism.
- May Books about Journalism.
- June Lectures for Journalists. Interesting Experiment at
Liverpool. How the Scheme was Worked. (by J.G. Gregson.)
- September International Training for Journalists. (by A. Goodhead.)
- November Useful Lectures for Working Journalists. Liverpool's
Good Example (by J.G. Gregson, N.E.C)
- Training and Tests for Journalists. Should the N.U.J.
become the Pioneer? (by T. Cox Meech, Education Committee.)

- 1929 January Lectures to Liverpool Pressmen
- March Journalism at London University. Report on Exhibitions.
- April Books for Journalists (includes Francis Gribble's sub-titled 'The First School of Journalism.')
- February The Art of Leader-writing (by H.M. Richardson)
- March The Art of Sub-editing (by F.J. Mansfield)
- January Descriptive Reporting in Newspapers. How it is, and Might Be, Done. (by Edith Shackleton.)
- April What an Editor Expects of a Reporter (by Valentine Knapp, Ex-President of the Newspaper Society.)
- July Book Reviews. Including "Barrie as Journalist and Author. Training for Literature, by F.J. Harvey Darnton.)
- 1930 January Liverpool Lecture Circle Subjects
- February The Teaching of Journalism in America (University of Missouri)
- March The Question of Status. The New Journalists' Views.
- April The Question of Status. Examinations thought to be a First Step. (by James Fieldhouse, Chairman, Burton branch.)
- July(?) A Code for Journalists. International Federation of Journalists proposed Court of Honour.
- August N.U.J Exhibition. "Tommy" Winter Wins It.
- 1931 February Don't Close the Ranks - Stop the Failures. Make Membership Conditional on Ability. (by James Fieldhouse)
- March Members' Rostrum - Readers Letters on Subject of Entry Examination and University training raised above.
- 1932 June Education Committee Article - No 1.
- " The Struggle for the Freedom of the Press (J.G. Gregson)
- July (continued)
- August/September (continued)
- October Education Committee Article - No 2. Journalism Came Before Newspapers. Elizabethan News Pamphlets (J.S. Dean.)
- December - No 3 (though not so titled): Are Journalists Born or Made? Which is Better 'Flair' or Education? (J.W.T. Ley)
- 1933 January Education Committee Article - No 4. Journalists and Education. What Young Men Have To Face (T. Cox Meech)
- February Education Committee Articles - No 5. Can Journalism Be Saved From The Gutter? An Optimistic Appeal to Young Journalists. (W.J. Chamberlain)
- March Education Committee Articles - No 6. Great Stuff This Education. From Cynical Sophistication to Economic Right and Cultural Ideals. (Harold Downs)
- May/June Journalists and Education. A Word to Hannen Swaffer. (by J.S. Dean, Secretary, Education Committee.)
- July Journalists and Education (by Semper Fidelis)
- 1934 September Book Review. 12,000 Learning Journalism in U.S.A. (by F.J.M.)

- October, 1935 Training and Education. Why Should the Journalist be Exempt?
(by H. T. Hamson)
- November, 1935 Training and Education. Is H.T.H. on the Wrong Bus?
(by Joseph Whittaker)
- January, 1936 Education for Journalists. A Straight Talk to Branches.
(by J. .G. Gregson, Chairman, N.U.J. Education Committee)
- February, 1936 Education for Journalists. Advantages of a Correspondence Course.
(by H. T. Hamson.)
- March, 1936 Journalists and Education. What is the Attitude of Union Members?
(by J. W. T. Ley, Member, Education Committee.)
- April, 1936 (1) Things to Think About. (First of a series of articles on subjects of practical interest to journalists.)
(by F. J. Mansfield, Author of 'Sub-editing' and 'The Complete Journalist.')
- (2) Education and the Union. Journalists' Limitations.
(by B. D. Whiteaker). "...dreams of the Union running some kind of Academy of Journalism, regulating entry into the profession on the same lines as corresponding bodies in medicine, law, accountancy, or architecture... which he had raised 10 to 15 years earlier in an essay competition.."
- June, 1936 Education and the Union. The Great Importance of Experience.
(by Harry Prout.) Apparently an opposing view to the Whiteaker article)
- November, 1936 (Editorial): Journalists and Education..on the occasion of the re-constitution of the Education Committee.
- December, 1936 This Dangerous Thing....(....a Little Learning.)
(by the General Treasurer)
- January, 1937 Journalists and Education. Points which May Be Useful to Members.
(by J. W. T. Ley, Convenor to the Education Committee. This lists 'appropriate' Universities and courses throughout the country.
- April, 1937 Prizes for Essays. Awards in Education Committee Competition.
- October, 1937 Education Committee Notes.
(by J. W. T. Ley.)

APPENDIX XXVI

Academic Staff - Examiners

London University Diploma for Journalism

1927 - 1939

English Literature

J. Isaacs
A W Reed
G.B.Harrison

Political Science

Herman Finer
K. Smellie
N F Hall

Economics

Lionel Robbins
H L Beales
T H Marshall
J R Hicks
N P Hall

Psychology

F. Aveling
Cyril Burt

History of Political Ideas

H. Laski

English Composition

Edward G Hawke
Frederick S Boas
G B Harrison

Philosophy

John MacMurray
L S Stebbing

Principles of Criticism

Lascelles Abercrombie
Laurence Binyon
B Ifor Evans

English Literature & Criticism

U N Ellis-Fermor
G Tillotson

History

C H Williams
C H Driver
M A Thomson

Social and Economic Structure of Today(1937-9)

H T N Gaitskell

History of the Modern World(1937-9)

Norman Gash
Priscilla Boys-Smith

Modern English Literature from 1850(1937-9)

W P Barrett
Edith C Batho

Military Studies

E B Mathew-Lannowe
Lionel Robbins(Economic Problems of War Paper)

Journalism Educators

CLARKE, Tom (1884-1957) London, 1935-39
COLLINS, J.C. (1848-1908) Birmingham, 1907
DODGE, J (b.1930) N.C.T.J; Professor of Journalism, City University, 1983.
HAMSON, H.T. (1877-1951) NUJ Education Committee; 1903-6.
HARRISON, G.B. (1894-) London University;
MANSFIELD, F.J. (1879-1959) Practical Journalism lecturer, London University, 1925-35.
SCOTT-JAMES, R.A. (1878-1959) London University part-time lecturer, 1920-22.
HAWKE, E.G. (d.1942) London, part-time Lecturer (1919-35)
HILL, William (1871-1935) City of London School
KNAPP, V (1860-1935) London University, Journalism Ctee Chairman, 1922-32.
SKIPSEY, Joan (b.1915) Assistant to Clarke, Director of Practical Journalism, 1935-39, at London University.

Those involved setting up the London University syllabus:

Frederick Miller (1863-1924) T Lloyd Humberstone (d.1957)
A.J. Mundella

Others:

George Viner, NUJ Education Officer (d.1983).
David John ANDERSON (1837-1900) Founder of 1st London School of Journalism