Effects of Journalism Education on Student Engagement:

A Literature Review

Todd R. Vogts

University of Missouri

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Nelson Mandela said, "Education is the most powerful weapon which you can use to change the world" (as cited in Strauss, 2013). When it comes to learning, one type of education stands out — journalism education. For society to benefited and positive impacts to be made, students must understand how to navigate the media landscape and interact with the world around them. Participation in journalism programs provides unique opportunities to practice being a citizen before fully embarking into full societal contribution. Presidential elections might only happen every four years, but with each high school graduating class, newly minted adults enter society. These former students can continue to be students or simply enter the work force. With proper education and experiences, what they do with their rights and responsibilities as citizens and members of society can result in positive change, regardless of the scale to which the impact is imparted.

Students have First Amendment rights, despite what some administrators or other adults may believe (LoMonte, Goldstein, & Hiestand, 2013). It is the job of educators, at all levels, to teach skills and knowledge associated with journalism so that power is wielded properly. Instructors must be advocates for student journalists and practice sound advising techniques that protect those rights and allow student journalists to function as professional journalists, even if administration pays for a portion of the publication costs (Kopenhaver, 1984). Methods of instruction vary, but the same goal is held by all educators. This is particularly important in a world of ever-changing technology. Educators must adapt to give students the skills needed in the current employment marketplace (Briggs, 2007).

Journalism education is important for a democratic society (Bobkowski & Miller, 2016). This is proven by the fact students involved in scholastic journalism consistently perform higher

when judged against standard testing practices (Dvorak, Bowen, & Choi, 2009; Roschke, 2009). Social engagement, specifically relating to media literacy and understanding of messaging, is increased when students are involved in journalism programs (Marchi, 2012). However, if the students are part of a minority race and the income of their parents is low, this can be affected (Amster, 2006). Furthermore, students exposed to journalism education show more understanding and participation with politics at all levels (Bobkowski, Goodman, & Bowen, 2012).

Research in journalistic education is varied. Some studies look at pedagogy (Dailey, 2016; Tuggle, Sneed, & Wulfemeyer, 2000). Others look at the students' abilities to find jobs after graduation (Becker, Jeong Yeob, Wilcox, & Vlad, 2014). Also, studies look at how technology is playing an ever-increasing role in journalism education (Grabowski, 2014). Implications of journalism education on civics also show up (Clark & Monserrate, 2011; Clark & Monserrate, 2018). Continued research in the area of journalism education is important because of budgeting concerns at learning institutions and changes within the journalism industry that require journalists entering the field to have new and varied skills. This review of literature concerning topics of journalism education and student engagement seeks to explore such areas and build understanding of how each component works in conjunction to build upon each other to create well-rounded students. Furthermore, this paper will examine how, with focused instruction by knowledgable instructors and family support, student journalists are more likely to be engaged academically, socially, and civically, thus becoming more productive members of society.

Pedagogy and Application of Journalism Education

In developing a journalism program to achieve goals of engagement, several factors must be considered. For educational institutions to view the program favorably, there must be ways to

determine levels of student learning. Dailey (2016) discusses how the Common Core measures competency in a variety of subject matters by measuring skills in project-based learning, rather than being able to regurgitate information for a test in more traditional learning environments. Journalism education breaks away from traditional methods of instruction in which the teacher dictates all learning and expects students to remember facts to be recalled at test time and instead focuses on student-orientated learning where the pupils are in more control of their learning with the instructor acting in an advisory role to ensure the students gain knowledge without forcing upon them the path to gain such knowledge (Lowrey & Kim, 2009). Roschke (2009) builds on this idea by pointing out the technical skills required for success in the journalism field. Specifically, skills needed focus on writing (Dailey, 2016). Regardless of the medium content is produced for, writing plays a crucial role. Bloggers write posts, video production teams write scripts, photographers write cutlines, et cetera (Briggs, 2007). Therefore, in order to meet the standards put forth by the Common Core, which is becoming more prevalent in education, journalism rises as a great example of Common Core in practice (Dailey, 2016).

Unlike other academic areas at the high school level, though, journalism educators do not inherently have specialized training in the field. Dvorak, Lain, & Dickson (1994) point out less than 30 percent of high school journalism teachers have any certification in journalism, with less than 10 percent having majored in a journalism-related area of study while in college. Despite this, limited survey data shows of 834 schools 93 percent had yearbooks, 79 percent had student newspapers, and 13 percent had student broadcasts (Bobkowski, Goodman, & Bowen, 2012). The journalism advisers involved with such student-produced media are generally married females with at least two children (Dvorak, Lain, & Dickson,1994). Though fads such as Common Core may cycle through, as some educators believe, the focus of the instruction remains relevant due to the fact journalism will remain and the skills derived provide non-

journalists valuable skills applicable outside of the industry (Dailey, 2016). Using online and

other technologies as the vehicle for journalism education is becoming more appealing due to its

low cost, which is important due to the fact scholastic journalism programs are not established to

generate profits, even though making profits via yearbook and advertising sales do help keep the

organization isolated from outside influences (Dvorak, Lain, & Dickson, 1994). However,

socioeconomic disparities can result in even the relatively inexpensive access to such digital

tools from being evenly distributed among school districts (Bobkowski, Goodman, & Bowen,

2012). In such instances low-socioeconomic and minority populations, Amster (2006) finds

family support, of not only the students but also of the educator and program, is crucial for

success. Regardless of obstacles concerning educator training or economic status of students,

journalism education continues to provide a valuable experience because it allows students of all

types to learn specific skills and gain understanding of how the news works (Roschke, 2009).

   The foundation of journalistic education builds upon the First Amendment. Journalism

educator Bobby Hawthorne argues it is the role of the journalism adviser to defend the rights of

the students, even if the students don't have a firm grasp on what those rights entail (as cited in

"Experienced educators reaffirm that all voices matter," 2015). The First Amendment must be

promoted and sustained not only for journalism, but basic civil liberties, to survive (Haynes,

Chaltain, Ferguson, Hudson, & Thomas, 2003). The high school level is where the understanding

of the importance of the First Amendment's rights and responsibilities begins to form, but some

adults do not believe students should be allowed to exercise such rights to the same extent adults

are allowed (Click & Kopenhaver, 1988). The adviser has to understand that if a student

publication is a designated forum of free speech, the students have rights that cannot be infringed

upon (LoMonte, Goldstein, & Hiestand, 2013). Based upon survey data out of Florida,

administrators largely believe they have the right to control what is printed in a student

publication by prior review or express censorship of articles they deem unfit for print (Click & Kopenhaver, 1988). Such a view of student journalism isn't isolated to Florida, and its prevalence can be attributed the United State Supreme Court decision in Hazelwood v. Kulhmeier, which granted administrators the right to dictate what types of speech students were permitted to express as long as any censorship addressed "legitimate pedagogical concerns" ("Hazelwood School District v. Kuhlmeier," n.d.). This contradicted the United State Supreme Court decision in Tinker v. Des Moines, which granted students First Amendment rights and made clear students did not lose such rights when at school unless the speech prevented the normal operation of the school day ("Tinker v. Des Moines Independent Community School District," n.d.). Based upon the court cases being at odds with one another, it is vital for advisers to understand the rights of students (Kopenhaver, 1984). Furthermore, to be effective, advisers must also understand their role in student expression, including what their own rights are. LoMonte, Goldstein, & Hiestand (2013) explain advisers can support students in instances of opposition to the free expression of their rights, but those advisers do not have the same legal recourse as the students, who must challenge the decision of the school in the courts because it is their rights, not the advisers, that are damaged. Advisers must do what is necessary to create curricula and atmosphere supporting the First Amendment and what journalism stands for (Haynes, Chaltain, Ferguson, Hudson, & Thomas, 2003).

As Dailey (2016) points out, despite the core goal of journalism education being relatively universal, the method of teaching journalism is not standardized. The Internet provides numerous avenues for journalistic production (Briggs, 2007; Snee, 2015). This could mean producing a news website, maintaining a coverage via social media platforms, producing a yearbook, or reviving a school newspaper (Smith & Baden, 2016). It could also mean doing specialized projects with precise planning (Wofford, 2016). Romero (2016) discusses a project in

which students were paired with elder adults to create multimedia pieces telling the life stories of those adults as an example of community-orientated journalism. Likewise, a radio project in India allows students the opportunity to serve their community and practice journalism at the same time (Singh, 2010). If embarking upon such methods of journalism instruction are not possible due to budgetary or other restrictions, Tuggle, Sneed, & Wulfemeyer (2000) suggest concepts of journalism and media literacy could be incorporated into social science classes to bolster students' critical thinking skills. Doing so would provide the opportunity for students to learn about diversity and how media messaging affects perceptions of groups in a way to combat stereotypes and other societal ills (Squires & Schriner, 2009). In short, journalism programs help students find their voice and contribute to the knowledge base of the society (Clark & Monserrate, 2008).

Academic Engagement

One positive benefit afforded students participating in journalism programs results in better academic performance. Dvorak, Lain, & Dickson (1994) illustrate this by showing high school journalism staff members earned higher grade point averages than non-staffers overall and in specific academic areas of English, social studies, math, and science, with the most significant differences being found in English and social studies. Looking at national data collected by the ACT, research shows a correlation between participation in journalism and higher scores on the standardized test (Dvorak, Bowen, & Choi, 2009). Composite scores of journalism students fall into the 76th percentile, while non-journalism students fall into the 74th percentile (Dvorak, Lain, & Dickson, 1994). Bruschke & George (1999) point out, though, the study does not predict English grades during the first year of college. However, the study of ACT data goes on to show journalism students score in the 81st and 74th percentiles in English and

social studies respectively, while non-journalism students score in the 69th and 70th percentiles respectively (Dvorak, Lain, & Dickson, 1994).

Academic success shows up more clearly with minority and socioeconomically disadvantaged students. For example, media exposure has been attributed to better performance in school by Mexican-American children because it helps with improved communication skills to overcome language barriers (Tan & Gunter, 1979). Such an example is indicative of how all minority students benefit from journalism education. Amster (2006) sheds some light on these benefits by describing journalism education as providing opportunity for students to overcome socioeconomic disadvantages by learning a trade. In terms of grades, minority students in journalism programs earn better grades than non-journalism students in nearly all academic areas, and they go on to have higher grades in their first college English courses (Dvorak, Bowen, & Choi, 2009). Making it clearer why involvement in journalism programs is crucial to student success, Tan & Gunter (1979) point out when minority students read newspaper articles concerning government and politics, it helps those students perform better in school.

Research shows participation in academic extracurricular activities, such as student media and journalism, have positive effects on academic standings (Becker, Jeong Yeob, Wilcox, & Vlad, 2014). Besides grades, though, academic performance can also be gauged by skills learned and jobs earned following graduation. A variety of skills are taught in journalism programs, focusing on basics of news judgement, writing, reporting, and technology (Finucane, 2006; King, 2008; Poindexter, 2013; Thurlow & Bell, 2009). High-order skills such as self-direction, problem-solving, critical thinking, cooperation, confidence, and responsibility, which are desirable traits of employers, are taught in journalism programs (Grow, 1991). Hudson (1987) supports this by enumerating skills deemed desirable by broadcast news employers and expressing the need for experience for individuals to earn positions within journalism

organizations, and such experience can be most adequately be gained by participating in student media. Furthermore, journalism education can counter the negative effects technology has on communication by instructing students how to effectively use the tools and express themselves professionally and coherently without allowing text messaging slang and abbreviations to pervade messages when such methods of communication are not deemed appropriate or fitting (Thurlow & Bell, 2009).

Social Engagement

Along with positive academic experiences comes learning how to engage socially, so it must be understood that such interactions occur by way of communication. This communication involves both intrapersonal and interpersonal communication (Lowrey & Kim, 2009). Media programs allow journalism students to become socialized because their education influences how the world is seen by them (Carpenter, Hoag, Grant, & Bowe, 2015). Journalism programs support the needs of individuals within communication (Gardiner, 2013). Research shows all communication can be attributed to either acquiring information or sharing information, regardless if the information being sent or received is more broad-based or personal in nature (Oates, 1985). Understanding such communication is media literacy, which entails acquiring skills to navigate the news media by being able to evaluate and use information critically (Guo-Ming, 2007; Kahne, Lee, & Feezell, 2012).

According to research, journalism participation is not necessarily attributed to motivations or technology use (Carpenter, Hoag, Grant, & Bowe, 2015). However, with technology pervading society, the avenues for social engagement by way of communication are ever expanding (Briggs, 2007). Research shows Americans spend more than 80 minutes each day consuming media, and the use of the Internet and smartphones for streaming content continues to increase by significant amounts each year (Schmidt, 2013). Pew Research shows

younger individuals, such as students, differ from their elder counterparts by preferring to read the news digitally rather than watch it on television or read it in print (Mitchell, 2016). The importance for students to understand communication and how it affects social interactions relates to media literacy, which is key for an informed and active citizenry (Garcia-Ruiz, Ramirez-Garcia, & Rodriguez-Rosell, 2014). A component of interaction is motivation to develop a sense of self, and journalism classes afford students the opportunity to gain understanding of their basic needs — such as autonomy, competence, and camaraderie – within the social context to become better citizens as supported by the self-determination theory (Gardiner, 2013). Within journalism programs, this socialization takes place by providing a setting in which culture can be developed through the negotiation of values in a visible sphere (Carpenter, Hoag, Grant, & Bowe, 2015).

Media literacy standards exist for high school education, and those have been implemented in all 50 states to some extent (Schmidt, 2013). However, some researchers believe media literacy is nothing more than a buzzword with no clear definition (Gray, 2005). Mihailidis (2006) disagrees and presents a concise definition of the term and expresses how journalism education presents a prime opportunity for students to learn media literacy, as both allow students hands-on engagement with journalism. By taking part in journalism programs, students are afforded the opportunity to read and write media texts and analyze the works (Emery & Rother, 2002). Considering journalism programs as a vehicle for media literacy, students emerge as more engaged in their societies (Babad, Peer, & Hobbs, 2009; Mihailidis, 2006). One danger of this concept is the effect the perceptions educators have in relation to how students' perceptions are developed because it can prevent the students from developing a clear definition of self without influence (Carpenter, Hoag, Grant, & Bowe, 2015).

Understanding how news decisions are made feeds into media literacy by providing context for the human aspect of the process, thus providing students the opportunity to relate to the subject matter on different levels. Ethics must be considered here because they are a core tenet of journalism and news that relate to values, attitudes, and philosophies (Cuillier, 2009). This is important because news decision making is a complex process drawing on psychology (Donsbach, 2003). Social influences in the way of cultural norms and the law impact this process (Cuillier, 2009). Research suggests certain groups are presented in the media in ways influential to thoughts and behaviors of consumers which can affirm or negate stereotypes (Arendt, 2013). Some studies find stereotypes are relied upon by individuals who have a more morbid personality and think about death more, which can change the effectiveness of media messages based upon preconceived beliefs and attitudes (Cuillier, 2009). Cojocariu (2013) makes the case that for any news coverage or piece of communication to be effective, it must have influence, which isn't to be taken as a negative attribute but rather an avenue for growth via learning and understanding one's place in the world.

Such influence can lead to the development of important social skills such as empathy, which the human mind supports and becomes more powerful as knowledge of others grows through consumption of various communications or journalistic products (Bech Sillesen, Ip, & Uberti, 2015). This goes against beliefs that emotions do not allow for rationality, even though research suggests journalism presented in personal fashions can actually foster the development of social engagement by building emotional knowledge of and investment in news events (Bas & Grabe, 2015). These social skills prevent audience members from being powerless or exploitable when it comes to observing the media and the world in which they exist (Cojocariu, 2013). Whether enforcing stereotypes, developing empathy, or affecting the consumer in any other way, the process of news reporting and communication impacting individuals can be viewed as the

media priming effect, of which research on cognitive implications is not widespread (Arendt, 2013). However, based upon agenda setting, it is clear media priming results in the ability of audience members to remember facts about a particular topic based upon how heavily and in what light the event is discussed in news reports (Valenzuela, 2009). Donsbach (2003) suggests social validation and predispositions drive decisions, which is important for social engagement through media literacy because it outlines ways for individuals to develop the sense of self and arrive at a truth. Understanding how these driving forces and media priming work allows media effects to be uncovered, understood, and handled, especially in settings where stereotypes are challenged and attempted to be reduced by making the individuals more informed about the realities of any given situation (Arendt, 2013). Personal values that are guiding principles of life are created, which research suggests is impacted by journalism involvement and lead to understanding humans in terms of a cultural society (Carpenter, Hoag, Grant, & Bowe, 2015). Part of this culture is technology being used for communication and social purposes (Thurlow & Bell, 2009).

Civic Engagement

Though media literacy education and new media technologies present the opportunity for youth to lead active civic and political lives, studies show the engagement by these young people is not happening at high rates (Kahne, Lee, & Feezell, 2012). High school journalism programs teach civics with a focus on the process of civic engagement to train students to see the benefit of keeping the societal whole in mind rather than only being concerned with themselves (Clark & Monserrate, 2008). Research suggests journalism programs support this type of civic engagement by students (Bobkowski & Miller, 2016). Successful civic engagement involves critical thinking skills, communication, organization, and decision-making (Clark & Monserrate, 2011). The best way to build such skills with students who are digital natives is to reach them

where they are, which is with technology (Garcia-Ruiz, Ramirez-Garcia, & Rodriguez-Rosell, 2014). Access to new media, such as social media, blogging, and video games, via smart phones presents educators with ways to increase this civic engagement (Kahne, Lee, & Feezell, 2012). Other studies support this by pointing out such participative forms of media provide avenues for students to engage civically in creative fashions demonstrating responsibility and critical thinking (Garcia-Ruiz, Ramirez-Garcia, & Rodriguez-Rosell, 2014). However, it takes more than access to technology to develop this type of participation. Students must learn civic engagement means contributing to society by, at minimum, voting in elections, discussing public issues, and volunteering with organizations dedicated to social causes (Bobkowski & Miller, 2016). Kennamer (1987) adds to this by suggesting journalism programs provide a phase of education in which political activity is initiated. Clark & Monserrate (2011) argue, though, that there is danger in allowing students to believe volunteering is enough, which means civic participation education must include dealing with government and politics. Volunteering can coincide with journalism, though, when the volunteering means donating one's time to a community journalism project (Bressers, Smethers, & Mwangi, 2015).

Journalism is one of several civic activities students can take part in while in high school, and research suggests student participation in such activities supports civic engagement in adulthood by laying a foundation in which such engagement is valued and respected due to developed knowledge and identity (Bobkowski & Miller, 2016). However, such self-awareness leading to civic-minded actions comes over time as most students initially view participation in journalism as an avenue for personal goal achievement and future career success (Clark & Monserrate, 2011). The skills and knowledge gained through journalism implants an understanding of how to exist within society (Garcia-Ruiz, Ramirez-Garcia, & Rodriguez-Rosell, 2014). Participation in journalism programs shows students the importance of consuming and

disseminating information by way of communication in order to be informed, which is paramount to being a citizen within a democracy (Clark & Monserrate, 2011). Bobkowski & Miller (2016) expand upon this notion by saying, "communication is central within the process of civic development, when young people hone communication-oriented civic skills and identity characteristics, they are developing their civic communication competence, which is a suite of proficiencies and habits that sustain their civic engagement into adulthood" (p. 532).

Knowing one's self is important for effective civic engagement in order to be able to weigh in on important matters of all sizes with core a belief and understanding. Producing journalism via a media program gives students the opportunity to find their unique voices and develop appreciation for diverse individuals within their school (Clark & Monserrate, 2011). This leads to journalism students understanding how events and issues at local, national, and global levels affect their peers and communities, which perpetuates further civic engagement by not only those students but consumers of the media they produce (Bobkowski & Miller, 2016). Tied closely to the journalism created is the right to do so as afforded by the First Amendment, and journalism programs give students hands-on experience with the law (Haynes, Chaltain, Ferguson, Hudson, & Thomas, 2003; LoMonte, Goldstein, & Hiestand, 2013). Some journalism programs may face disheartening challenges in the way of censorship and other First Amendment issues, but research suggests this builds civic engagement by inspiring further investigation of individual rights and responsibilities (Bobkowski & Miller, 2016). More than simply teaching journalism skills or basic politics, journalism programs serve students by providing a way to learn how they fit within the world around them (Clark & Monserrate, 2011).

Increased civic engagement due to journalism participation is more evident in students with minority or low socioeconomic status (Bobkowski & Miller, 2016). Low socioeconomic status can be attributed to lower levels of education, and this leads researchers to conclude

people with lower levels of education do not have the same ability to process news information effectively as individuals with higher levels of education (Bas & Grabe, 2015). Research suggests this is due to low-income and minority students and school districts have fewer resources allowing for participation, so when they are able to practice journalism, the increases are more noticeable (Marchi, 2012). By not being exposed to journalism, students fail to acquire needed skills and knowledge in being able to ascertain information, which could be due to lack a lack of cognitive ability one would get from journalism education if the school provided such opportunities (Bas & Grabe, 2015). The lack of engagement could also be attributed to parents who are disengaged and pass that disengagement down to their children by way of example (Bobkowski & Miller, 2016). Also, a distrust of the media could lead to less civic engagement because of ways minorities are represented, or under-represented, in news coverage and on journalism staffs (Amster, 2006; Marchi, 2012). Creation of journalistic products brings with it inherent positive or negative feedback by consumers, which combats disengagement because it creates a sense of belonging to society as a whole due to it being clear the product being produced is being viewed just like other media products (Clark & Monserrate, 2011).

Though civic engagement can take many forms, the most recognizable method of involvement consists of taking part in politics. Research shows media messaging and how it is presented in any of a variety of formats can impact on how an individual views politics, whether positively or negatively (Faulkner, 2011; Lowrey & Kim, 2009). Regardless of political views, being active in the process allows individuals to develop friendships and bring communities together as social capital is built, which research suggests is important for a democracy to succeed because it allows people to interact and solve problems affecting the community in which they exist (Bressers, Smethers, & Mwangi, 2015). This involvement can be as simple as taking part in comment threads in online news publications, which provides new avenues for

individuals to interact with the news and fellow consumers (Ksiazek, 2015). Studies suggest an understanding of this type of interactivity derived from journalism education allows for participatory journalism on a larger and more impactful scale (Bressers, Smethers, & Mwangi, 2015). Students exposed to journalism education also have a greater understanding of what journalists should be be doing, and, therefore, can be more critical in making civic decisions due to a desire to work in a public sphere where attention can be paid to politics and social issues (Andersson & Wadbring, 2015). Civil discourse is important in this discussion because it sheds light on how informed the populace is, and the level of knowledge individuals have can be determined by how well discussions can take place with respect and understanding and without becoming hostile (Ksiazek, 2015). Views of journalism and how it plays into civic life can be generational by nature (Andersson & Wadbring, 2015).

However, it is not simply a matter of consuming and understanding the news because individuals face numerous choices from where news can be received in a personalized fashion leading the consumer to feel an emotional response that causes sometimes visceral reactions, such as condemning a politician for prior behavior because the news outlet of choices makes the event seem to be the most important aspect of his or her identity as a political figure (Bas & Grabe, 2015). Different generations view sources of news differently, and research shows younger generations have more of a desire to be included by way of participation and interactivity (Andersson & Wadbring, 2015). Citizen journalism provides an opportunity for such engagement to take place as participation in such a venture can act as a platform for the growth of civic engagement virtues (Bressers, Smethers, & Mwangi, 2015). With journalism being a key part in how citizens can take part in governance as prescribed by the founding fathers, journalism education can help generations close gaps in knowledge and be more involved in the democratic process (Bas & Grabe, 2015). Supporting this notion, Andersson &

Wadbring (2015) propose journalism students hold journalism in high regard due to professional values, unlike previous generations who viewed the media with more commercial interests leading to personal wealth growth. Due to this preference, journalism students are more likely to judge various news outlets more critically, differentiating between sensational and infotainment journalism, often viewed as not supporting the democracy by providing pertinent information, and hard news journalism (Bas & Grabe, 2015).

Part of civic development in youth is actively gaining knowledge by way of journalism programs (Clark & Monserrate, 2008). People most likely to vote tend to be well-informed and regularly consume news (Kennamer, 1987). When it comes to political elections, the media plays a large role by altering how voters differentiate and judge political candidates and parties (Valenzuela, 2009). Research shows, though, media does not dictate what individuals should think but rather what they should be thinking about (Golan, Banning, & Lundy, 2005). Based upon third-person effects, however, research shows individuals believe they are not susceptible to media influence when it comes to making decisions, such as in casting a ballot, but others likely become swayed one way or the other (Banning, 2006). Golan, Banning, & Lundy (2005) conducted an experiment with college students and arrived at results pointing to increased participation in voting correlating with exposure to media messages that respondents felt were not affecting their decision but would have large impacts upon others viewing the same messages; however, respondents who indicated they were less likely to vote did not believe the messaging was affecting them less or more than anyone else, leading a conclusion to be drawn that voting when experiencing the third-person effect is an effort to balance the election by offsetting the vote of the more impressionable viewers influenced by the messaging. Media messaging impacts young voter turnout, especially as forms of media being used by political entities and consumers alike change (Kennamer, 1987). Online communication, such as social

media, impacts public perception of political issues at different levels of government or community (Snee, 2015). Use of social media, such as Facebook or Twitter, has been pointed out in research as being an excellent outlet for political dialogue because of its openness for communication between candidates and voters or simply among voters themselves, most of which are generally younger individuals who have gone through life with social media being a part of daily life (Fernandes, Giurcanu, Bowers, & Neely, 2010). Effective contributions to such public discourse exist as part of what journalism education teaches students (Roschke, 2009). Fernandes et al., (2010) conducted research concerning the use of Facebook in battle ground states as it related to the typically apathetic group of younger voters and the 2008 United States Presidential Election contested between Republican John McCain and Democrat Barack Obama and found more than half of participation within the selected Facebook groups of the candidates consisted of political and civic discussions, of which mentions of the candidates themselves were generally positive in the respective Facebook groups. Such studies do not mention participation in journalism programs, but they make a strong case for journalism education due to what is involved in such learning (Golan, Banning, & Lundy, 2005; Fernandes et al., 2010). They make the case for students to become informed citizens who have knowledge of political issues, candidates, voting, rights and responsibilities, social issues, volunteering, and human rights, among other descriptors of being civically engaged (Clark & Monserrate, 2008).

Conclusions and Directions for Future Research

With focused instruction by knowledgable instructors and family support, student journalists are more likely to be engaged academically, socially, and civically, thus becoming more productive members of society. Literature concerning effects of journalism education supports this. Dvorak, Lain, & Dickson (1994) present the most compelling research to this point, but, as with all the literature reviewed, there seems to be missing elements in need of

further study. Most studies used quantitative research methods to determine an average of numerous factors. This proves beneficial when looking at journalism programs as a whole; however, individual program and student attributes end up being ignored. A more qualitative approach is called for wherein programs and students could be looked at with more attention and scrutiny to determine if current research is applicable to them rather than getting lumped into the statistical averages. This would allow for new hypotheses to be developed, which would prove to be important as the journalism industry changes and journalism programs attempt to adapt to the different shapes media is taking. Furthermore, current research fails to focus on small-town, rural settings. If, as Dvorak, Lain, & Dickson (1994) suggest, most schools have some form of journalism program, focused attention must be given to rural schools because they will undoubtedly defy the averages and could present new areas of investigation.

Journalism programs serve as effective career training, giving students necessary skills and knowledge to be successful following completion of their education (Becker, Jeong Yeob, Wilcox, & Vlad, 2014; Bruschke & George, 1999; Dailey, 2016; Finucane, 2006; Grow, 1991). With technology becoming more important in the work journalists do, proper training is key (Briggs, 2007; Grabowski, 2014; Hudson, 1987; Oates, 1985; Poindexter, 2013; Roschke, 2009). Part of this means helping students understand how to best use the Internet, including how to determine the reliability of information presented online by considering the source (Hargittai, Fullerton, Menchen-Trevino, & Thomas, 2010). In this day and age, most journalism students will become online journalists upon entering the work force, so they must understand how they will fit into news organizations transitioning away from traditional, print-orientated focuses (Hartley, 2013). This creates the need to investigate how journalism programs are presenting online journalism and giving students practice in the area rather than focusing on the legacy products of yearbooks, newspapers, and news magazines. Specifically, this would prove

important for small-town, rural journalism programs. Such schools operate in more remote locations, so technology plays a larger role in how students communicate with society outside of their communities (Thurlow & Bell, 2009).

This field of study presents many opportunities for investigation. As quickly as the journalism industry changes, so does the education of the practice. By looking at specific aspects of journalism education — such as yearbook production, newspaper production, media literacy, photography, or any other of a number of pieces to the journalism education puzzle — research can highlight the good and innovative work done by journalism students. Even when pundits cry the demise of journalism, school programs exhibit how the craft will live on and prosper, despite ongoing evolutions in the field.

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