Chapter 1. The origin, functions and challenges of student journalism

Student journalism cannot be defined simply as journalism done by students. Although it shares many aspects with corporate journalism\(^1\), student journalism is an informative genre with its own origin, nature and characteristics. One country can have a great variety of student media: different formats, types of content and structure. This diversity becomes greater when they are observed from an international perspective.

The oldest and most developed student media in the world comes from the U.S. This is probably why most of the literature on student journalism and college student press refers to the American model. However, it is necessary to understand the nature of student journalism from other countries and detect their differences and similarities to create a truly international organization of student journalists. Having an international perspective of student journalism, will avoid the imposition of a specific media model in countries with different social, cultural and political aspects.

This chapter presents the aspects that are necessary to understand student journalism. The first part explains historical events that led to the creation of student journalism: the transformation of universities in Europe, the usage of media in student movements in Europe, Asia and the Americas and the origin of journalism education in the U.S. Finally, it briefly explains the development of college student press in the U.S.

The second part provides the definition of student journalism and explains the types and functions of student news outlets, as well as their differences with corporate news media. Then it explains the challenges of student journalism making emphasis on censorship. To illustrate the causes and effects of censorship to student press, this chapter presents seven cases from six countries.

1.1 The origin of student journalism

The history of student journalism has not been documented as a whole. Thus, the origin and

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\(^1\) This thesis uses the term “corporate journalism” to define commercial news media: newspapers, broadcast news, news radio and news web sites.
evolution of student journalism in the world remains uncertain. Only a few countries, such as the U.S. and Colombia, have historical references of their student press, but most of them seldom explain the social context of their origin and transformation. However, a timeline of events within the history of universities, student movements and journalism education can explain the consolidation of student press as it is known today.

This chapter explains how university's reformed model of 19th century Europe led to the empowerment of students in campus and their involvement in politics. Then, it provides examples of media usage in student movements and explains their relation with student journalism. It also explains the origin of journalism education and the development of student press U.S. and its coverage of hard news.

1.1a The transformation of universities from the Middle Ages to the 19th Century

The first university was founded in Bologna in 1119 and the second was founded in Paris in 1150. The growth and development of both institutions led to the creation of two opposite archetypes of universities during the medieval times (Avila, 1997).

The Bologna model, followed by most Southern European universities, such as Salamanca in Spain, was born from the intellectuals' desire to learn (Avila, 1997; Universita di Bologna, 2008). Students in the Bologna model were independent groups that chose their teachers and subjects and participated in the university's administration and governance (Rempel, 2008; Avila, 1997).

Rempel (2008) explains:

At Bologna, student associations were the first to receive recognition under the term universitas. They negotiated with the teachers gilds concerning fees and set up the rules for teaching. Many of the southern universities followed the Bologna pattern of student rule with respect to fees and classroom methods. Related to this no doubt was the fact that they were, more than the northern universities, centers for higher professional training: in law, in
medicine, in theology (par. 3).

The Paris model was followed by Northern European universities (Avila, 1997). Professors or "Masters" governed these universities (Rempel, 2008; Avila, 1997). Maccracken (1948) states that later the Paris model "came to be the accepted pattern" in most universities (p. 413). Although at first the University of Paris had academic freedom, the Catholic Church thought this practice could compromise their interests (Avila, 1997). Thus, the university became strictly supervised by ecclesiastical authorities, as it became the fortress of faith and Catholic Orthodoxy (Avila, 1997).

The Renaissance and Reformation movements and the discovery of new continents were influential phenomena in the transformation of European universities during the 16th century (Ridder-Symoens & Rüegg, 2003). Renaissance humanist scholars rediscovered Ancient Greek-Roman dialectic methods (Ridder-Symoens & Rüegg, 2003).

The Ciceronian form of dialogue, "in which various points of view are represented by various speakers and are made concrete through reference to personal experiences and... reflections," was implemented in Italian universities (Ridder-Symoens & Rüegg, 2003, p.24). This form of dialogue “was revived by the Italian humanists in a conscious effort to return to the ideal freedoms of Roman discussion and to break out the confines of medieval thought” (Marsh in Quillen, 1998, p. 188).

In the tradition of Greek-Roman dialectic, scholars started to question human and divine laws. During the conquest of America, universities in Spain discussed “humanistic ideas regarding toleration” toward aboriginals and civilizations of the New World (Ridder-Symoens & Rüegg, 2003, p. 22). They discussed whether natives had souls and therefore natural and human rights. These questions “led to fundamental reflections on the scope and validity of traditional law...the global application of divine and natural law and the autonomy and the educability of individuals” (Ridder-Symoens & Rüegg, 2003, p. 22).

Ridder-Symoens & Rüegg (2003) explain:

[T]he territorial extension of dialogical communication within and between
societies following the decay of ecclesiastical unity under papal authority, permitted the formation of res publica eruditorum social knowledge [rules, ideas and knowledge of the people]; this in turn led to the emergence of the ideals of civility, civilization, culture as objects of university education. It also stimulated universities to respond to concerns of their respective societies and led thereby to the formation of a national cultural self-consciousness (p. 24).

However, it was not until the 17th and 18th centuries that through the scientific revolution from Copernicus to Newton, the industrial revolution, and the political revolutions of the U.S. in 1776 and France 1789, “the political and ecclesiastical forms of authority...[and] the material and social conditions of life of largely rural populations” changed decisively (Ridder-Symoens & Rüegg, 2003, p. 13).

Also during this time, scholars across Europe created the first information network among universities through the exchange of letters (Ridder-Symoens & Rüegg, 2003). Ridder-Symoens & Rüegg (2003) explain, “The letter has been interpreted as evidence of the bourgeois discovery of the writers self consciousness as well as the discovery of his society....The letter brought together the emancipation of the individual self with a new sense of community...” (p. 27).

1.1b The origin of student political associations and their media

The children of the empowered bourgeoisie of the 18th and 19th century in Europe became the student body of reformed universities that followed the revolutionary thoughts and ideals of democracy (Fields, 1970). By analyzing various historical documents on student activism and politics in the world, it can be concluded that the late 18th and the early 19th centuries show for the first time, evidence of student power in the university since the Middle Ages.

During this period, students formed a more identifiable social and political group as they began to form political associations (Fields, 1970; Benn, 1979). Student unions, groups and syndicates
became the basis of student movements in Europe, Asia and America in support of social and political revolutions from the 19th to the 21st century² (Lipset & Altbach, 1969).

Since the 18th century, students began to raise their voices to demand social and political change in their universities and countries. C. Wright Mills “saw in the intellectuals and students a major potential mass base for new revolutionary movements. They have remained a source of new radical leadership and mass support, while other elements have not” (Lipset & Altbach, 1969, p. xvi).

The effects of student strikes, demonstrations and revolts in different eras and countries, support the idea that student activism have played a considerable role in the overthrow of oligarchies and totalitarian governments, civil rights’ reforms and peace agreements (Lipset & Altbach, 1969).

One chapter would not be enough to present the entire history of student activism. Thus, this thesis will only present examples in which the use of publications or other media strategies played an important part in student movements.

_Burschenschaften_ and “The Hessian Courier”

The monarchy's abuse of power, the emergence of the Republic in France and the development of capitalism initiated a common sentiment of nationalism, unification and popular sovereignty in the German states during the 19th century. This common sentiment initiated the German revolutionary movement of workers and intellectuals in 1848 (Flyn, 2004).

German university students formed the _Burschenschaften:_ associations that demanded a free democratic and unified Germany (Deutschen Burschenschaft, 2008; Burschenschaft, 2009). In his student years, dramatist and writer Georg Büchner joined a Strasburg _Burschenschaften_ and later

2 The world’s oldest student movement that is registered didn’t happen in Europe but in the U.S. Cartwright (1995) explains, “The first recorded student protest was organized at Harvard University in 1766 to express disdain for the quality of butter being served on campus. In fact, most student activism [in the U.S.] during the late 18th and 19th centuries involved neither politics nor any particular ideology, but more often than not was prompted by a specific dispute with other students, faculty, or administrators, or by town-gown issues” (par. 2). College student’s concerns on university issues led to the creation of Yale Daily News, one of the first college newspapers in the world.
helped to found the political association “Society of Human Rights” (Benn, 1979). In 1834, Büchner and liberal propagandist Friedrich Ludwig Weidig wrote and distributed “The Hessian Courier” a pamphlet that urged German people to overthrow the monarchy and claim their freedom and rights as citizens (Benn, 1979). It could be said that Büchner was not only an activist but also a reporter. He did not only use persuasive writing but also reported facts about government abuse of power, especially on taxes:

> In the Grand Duchy of Hesse there are 718,373 inhabitants who yearly give to the state some 6,363,436 guilders...This money is the blood-tithe being taken from the body of the people. Now see what the Grand Duchy has made of the state; see what they call it: maintaining order in the state! Seven hundred thousand human beings pay 6,000,000 guilders for it; that is, they are made into farm-horses and plow oxen so that they may live in order. To live in order means to starve and be exploited (Büchner, 1834/1963, p. 170).

“The Hessian Courier” was a crucial motivator of the German revolution movement of 1848 (International Institute, 2008; Benn, 1979). Although it is not considered a student publication, it's probably the world's most prominent periodical ever written by a student. “[T]he pamphlet remains one of the most impressive political documents ever written, mainly by virtue of the passion and bitter sarcasm which are so much a part of it” (Mueller, 1963, xxviii).

“The Hessian Courier” became the pioneer of a series of left and right-wing student publications, pamphlets and manifestos during WWI and WWII in Eastern Europe. The content of this publications reflected the student's desire of social change and expose their ideals to the people (Eyck, 1955). Von Muller & Sand (1923) explain, "This idealistic-minded youth had focused its whole attention upon the mental development, the spiritual renewal. It did not think as yet of a forcible upheaval. Therefore the tremendous overestimation of papers and pamphlets" (Eyck, 1955, p. 28).

The *Burschenschaften* remained in Germany and Austria until the Nazi state dissolved all student associations (Deutschen Burschenschaft, 2008; Burschenschaft, 2009). They reemerged in the
50's and 60's but they were misidentified as Neo-Nazi groups. Although their membership decreased greatly by the 90's, *Burschenschafts* created a tradition of student politics that is still practiced in Germany and Austria (Deutschen Burschenschaft, 2008; Burschenschaft, 2009).

**Zola's effect: student's letters and petitions as forms of protests**

Although student syndicates were the foundations of student politics and activism in Europe, the first French students to associate did this as a form of amusement and rebelliousness rather than to follow political or social ideals (Fields, 1970). Fields (1970) explains that "students...including those active in AGE [Association Generale des Etudiants] chapters, are convinced of as having been to interested in maximizing their own hedonistic delights to have concerned with questions of polity and society" (p. 16).

The first signs of student involvement in French politics happened 14 years after the foundation of AGE during the Dreyfus Affair3 (Fields, 1970). In 1884, the leaders of AGE “entered the fray in the side of the anti-Dreyfusards” (Fields, 1970, p. 17). *L’Aurore* (Dreyfusard newspaper) published Emile Zola's *J'Accuse*, in Dreyfus's defense (Fields, 1970). Two days later, the AGE committee made a reply that was published in the same newspaper:

> [AGE governing committee] decided to express to you its sad astonishment with the same frankness expressed in your appeal to the youth [of the country].

> We respect every political or religious opinion and we are fervently attached to freedom of thought and expression. But we place the Army, which is the noblest expression of the homeland, and its chiefs, who are the guardians of our national honor, beyond all suspicion.

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3 Dreyfus Affair: The imprisonment of Alfred Dreyfus, a Jewish artillerist of the French Army, for treason (accusation that was later proven wrong) divided opinions on French identity and anti-Semitism in France during the end of the 19th century. The intellectuals were divided in Dreyfusards and anti-Dreyfusards. (Fulcher, 1999).
Our conscience is profoundly troubled to find such attacks delivered from the pen of a great writer who...brought us such noble encouraging words (AGE, 1884, translated in Fields, 1970, p.17).

Zola failed in his attempt to convince youth to support to Dreyfus, most of them remained anti-Dreyfusard. However, J'Accusse inspired students to send petitions and letters to newspapers as way of protest, this method was commonly used by intellectuals at that time (Anyie, 2007). Anyie (2007) states, “[T]hese ways show the internal split of the student youth at the turn of the century and the discrepancy among the representations of youth between various generations” (par. 1, English translation).

In 1907, AGE local chapters formed the Union National des Etudiants de France, which is probably “the oldest student union in existence” (Fields, 1970, p. 16). UNEF is now the official student syndicate of France. It publishes Etudiants de France magazine, which presents current national and international affairs and their relations with student life (UNEF, 2008).

**Cuban student revolts and their media**

The first clandestine radio station in Cuba (and one of the world’s first) was aired in 1933 and was sponsored by student revolutionary alliance Directorio Estudiantil Universitario (Mastrapa, 2000). The students presented anti-government propaganda and called the Cuban people to action. (Bethel, 1993; Mastrapa, 2000).

Cuban President Gerardo Machado had led the country to an economical crisis and self re-elected, acting over the democratic election process. A series of strikes and protests erupted in an attempt to overthrow Machado (Kapcia, 2002; Soley & Nichols, 1987). On August 4, 1933, “a minor strike of bus drivers developed into a general strike which paralyzed Havana. Machado reached a compromise with Communist leaders to help him break the strike” (Bethel, 1993, p. 53).

However, before Machado could accomplish his goal, the clandestine radio station announced his resignation (Bethel, 1993; Kapcia, 2002). Jubilant crowds instantly filled the streets of Havana. The
celebration turned into a bloody confrontation between the police and the protesters. Eight days later, Machado inevitably resigned and left the island (Bethel, 1993; Kapcia, 2002).

Students were an influential group during the Cuban revolution of 1958. Fidel Castro was a member of a political student association. Moore (1993) explains, “He built up a following as a student leader, and then jumping from student politics, began working with the mainstream opposition to Batista” (Sergeant Fulgencio Batista, then dictator of Cuba) (par. 5).

Since its establishment in 1841, the Students Federation of Cuba (FEU) published pamphlets such as “Palenque Universitario” (1881) to report on student causalities during revolts (FEU Web, 2002). Cuban student groups continued used press and radio to spread their ideas, recruit members and call for action throughout the island (FEU Web, 2002; Bethel, 1993).

One of the oldest Cuban student magazines, “Alma Mater”, was founded in 1922 by FEU. (Alma Mater, 2008). The founders of “Alma Mater” wrote the in their mission they will represent the nationalist voice of Cuban students:

Through this organ, Cuban student will communicate spiritually with all their colleagues that speak the language of Cervantes in both hemispheres and that way we will spread the culture and values of the intellectual youth of Cuba. And this is a beneficial action to the nation. For her we work, for her we were born [Alma Mater, 2008, par. 1, (English translation)].

“Alma mater” and other current Cuban media, such as newspaper “Juventud Rebelde”, were established as student media. (Juventud Rebelde, 2008).

**Burmese student journal Oway**

Since its first manifestations, Burmese student activism in the first decades of the 20th century was motivated by the desire to protect Burmese culture from Western ideas and values imposed by the British colonialists (Silverstein in Lipset & Altbach, 1969).

One of the most important Burmese student movements was the Rangoon University Student
Union (RUSU) strike in 1936. RUSU was a forum of political debate. The prospective self-governance of India and Burma was one of the recurrent subjects. RUSU also published the Oway student journal (Silverstein in Lipset & Altbach, 1969).

In that year, Oway’s editor Aung San ran an inflammatory anonymous editorial attacking the university's bursar. San believe that his journalistic principals prevented him from revealing the identity of the author (Silverstein in Lipset & Altbach, 1969; Fay, 1995).

The university authorities in response to the article expelled San and RUSU's president Thakin Nu, who had made a public attack on the bursar before the publication (Silverstein in Lipset & Altbach, 1969; Fay, 1995). The expulsions provoked the students to go on a strike. The strike quickly spread to other schools in urban areas. The student leaders established the strike headquarters in Shwedagon Pagoda. They called for popular and political support (Silverstein in Lipset & Altbach, 1969).

Silverstein (1969) explains:

In the face of the widespread sympathy given to students and the interest in the strike down by both Burmese government officials and responsible political leaders, the university administration and the government made concessions that included the representation on the university council. Following their victory, the student leaders became national heroes in the struggles against foreign rule and for student rights (in Lipset & Altbach, 1969, p. 339).

The RUSU Oway case exemplifies the struggles of the student journalist's dichotomy: their obligations as students, such as obedience and good conduct, usually come in conflict with their obligations as journalists; the search for truth, protection of their sources and the exposure of government corruption (see Chapter 3).

Propria Cures student magazine

Dutch student associations, unlike most student associations in Europe, showed more "political
flexibility” since its beginnings. They showed "a matter-of-fact acceptance of democratic processes and a certain tolerance for the idea of opponents" (Lipset & Altbach, 1969, p. 68). Student weekly magazine Propria Cures ("Mind your own business" in Latin) embraced freedom of thought and offered a critical perspective of the European status quo since its first issue in 1890. For that reason, the magazine suffered a series of censorship attempts throughout its history (Lipset & Altbach, 1969).

Propria Cures is one of the few Dutch publications that have been accused of blasphemy by the Netherlands government. The 'Extra Jesus Issue' published in 1964 caused great controversy. The issue featured a satirical interview with Jesus Christ (Persmuseum, 2008).

University of Amsterdam Social Science Professor Abram de Swaan was a political science student and Propria Cures's editor in chief at the time. He had to pay a hundred-guilder fine "because of 'mocking blasphemy, hurtful to the religious feelings of those who hold a different view to the accused'" (Persmuseum, 2008, par. 1).

In March 1966, the front page of Propria Cures "included a comic...in which a German soldier says, 'Schweinhunde' (a German insult: 'pig-dog'). Also on the cover was a photograph of Queen Wilhelmina, under which was the text 'Sla de mot op de kop' freely translated as 'Hit the Kraut in the face....'The entire print run of this issue was kept out of the bookshops by the publisher" (The File Room, 2008, par. 2-3).

Propria Cures published the first works of controversial cartoonist Gregorius Nekshcot, who said almost all media has rejected his work. Nekshcot was arrested for incitement of hate and crime after HP/De Tijd magazine published his cartoon on Islam (Rosenberg, 2008).

Propria Cures is still edited by students and has kept its original satirical style. The founders and editors of Propria Cures formed a student association that prioritizes discussion and dissemination of ideas rather than support of a political cause (Propria Cures, 2008). These same objectives are the foundation of most of today's student press.
Student Movement: Mexico City 1968

In October 2, 1968, more than 6,000 people, most of them students, were killed by soldiers and police officers during a demonstration in Tlatelolco, Mexico City. The Mexican government was determined to end the student revolt that was raising dissenting voices and affecting the Olympics celebration, hosted in Mexico that year (Vazquez, 2007; Ramirez, 1998).

That date is known as the Tlatelolco Massacre, but at that time, Mexican audiences were completely unaware of the magnitude of the event. The news media lessened the relevance of the student protest and stigmatize their motivations (Vazquez, 2007; Ramirez, 1998).

Before the October 2, police officers had kidnapped, threaten and tortured student leaders during protests. Students were the enemies of peace and public order and President Gustavo Díaz Ordaz was willing to anything to stop their arrogant actions (Anguiano, 2008).

Students published leaflets, newspapers and magazines to give their own perspective on the movement and the reasons behind it as well as denouncing the inhumane methods authorities used on student protesters (Vazquez, 2007; Ramirez, 1998; Anguiano, 2008).

The student movement tried to break with the dominant politics and their concept of culture. To accomplish that goal, the movement developed its own media in an attempt to counteract the information flux of the great network monopoly and the Secretary of Government control over the written press (Jimenez, 2007).

The 1968 movement gave the first steps in the creation of independent media for the dissemination of ideas in the second half of the 20th century in Mexico (Jimenez, 2007). Student media in Mexico flourished during the “68” movement, they offered an alternative perspective of student, indigenous and worker movements and facts that main stream media usually ignored or distorted (Vazquez, 2007; Ramirez, 1998).

Student Cyber-dissidents in China and Singapore

Reporters Without Borders, a nonprofit organization that defends journalists from censorship
and human right violations, have created a new category of censorship victims; cyber-dissidents (RSF, 2005). Cyber-dissidents use Internet to inform and express ideas that their countries' governments ban and mainstream media censor (RFS, 2005).

Pain (2005) explains:

Blogs get people excited. Or else they disturb and worry them. Some people distrust them. Others see them as the vanguard of a new information revolution. Because they allow and encourage ordinary people to speak up, they're tremendous tools of freedom of expression. Bloggers are often the only real journalists in countries where the mainstream media is censored or under pressure. Only they provide independent news, at the risk of displeasing the government and sometimes courting arrest (RFS, 2005, p. 5).

RWB have reported that seven students from China and one from Singapore were punished for the content of their blogs. In October 2000, University students and Tsinghua residents Lin Yang, Ma Yan, Li Chunyang, Jiang Yuxia, Li Yanfang and Huang Kui were imprisoned for posting information online about the [spiritual Falun Gong] movement, considered 'diabolic' by the Chinese government (RSF, 2008a).

Singapore student Jiahao Chen wrote a blog under the pseudonym of "AcidFlask" where he criticized policies on Singapore Agency for Science, Technology and Research (A*STAR) and its chairman Philip Yeo. In April 2005, Chen shut down his site and replaced it with a retraction after Yeo threaten him of libel action. Chen currently studies in the U.S. His blog has not been updated since the retraction (RSF, 2008b).

RWB wrote on its website: "Threatening a libel suit is an effective way to silence criticism and this case highlights the lack of free expression in Singapore, which is among the 20 lowest-scoring countries in our worldwide press freedom index" (RSF, 2008b par. 2).
The examples of media usage in student movements presented in this thesis were neither consecutive nor directly related with each other. However, they should not be considered independent or spontaneous events. Student movements have always been influenced by the global political context of their time, as well as by student movements happening in other countries.

The establishment of European model universities in Asia and the American continent also contributed in the development of the student body as a politically powerful entity (Lipset & Altbach, 1969).

Lipset & Altbach (1969) explain:

The attitudes of intellectuals and of students toward the national status quo are, moreover, not simply a function of their position within the society. More than any other group, intellectuals tend to have an international reference group... As such, they will be aware of the shortcomings of their nation compared with the standards of the leading countries. The intellectuals and academics of the underdeveloped countries generally realize that they are at the summits of nations or university systems that are considered "backward." This awareness heightens their desire to foster change within their own society and increases their resentment against local or foreign groups that inhibit modernization (p. xxix).

The student movements mentioned in this chapter had different motivations, ideals and objectives, but they all coincide in their attempt of social change through the dissemination of ideas and information. This is one of the ultimate goals of journalism in a democratic society (see Chapter 2). Although the media in student movements could have molded the ideals of current student journalism, journalism schools helped transformed leaflets, letters and clandestine radio stations into news outlets.
The origins of journalism education and College Press in the U.S.

The economic and industrial prosperity in Great Britain and the U.S. during the mid 19th century helped publishers lower the price of newspapers to make them affordable to more people (Chalaby, 1998). The economic competition changed the press from being written by and for a specific public sphere, either bourgeois or proletarian, to an "autonomous field of discursive production" (Chalaby, 1998, p.33).

Chalaby (1998) states, "the 19th century commercialization of the press led to the commodification of its discourse" (p.33). Newspapers competed for the recognition, legitimacy and prestige among the general audience. To achieve these goals, they assumed a series of discursive rules such as objectivity, accuracy, factuality and completeness, "which circumscribe the news format and defines the news report as a journalistic genre" (Chalaby, 1998, p.130).

In the U.S., journalism schools emerged as a need to train future journalists within the paradigm of these discursive norms, in order to defy the old customs and conceptions of politically-biased press (Carey, 1996).

Carey (1996) explains:

"[Before journalism schools, journalists were an] unlikely collection of itinerant scribblers, aspiring-or more often failed-novelists, with an inherited rather than an educated gift of language, without much education and certainly without much refinement. They were often radical in their politics and unpredictable in their conduct. In fact, their behavior forms much of the folklore of the craft. They lived in and romanced the low life of the city and had no aversion to socialism or trade unions and little illusion about the motives of the people for whom they worked (par. 10).

Newspaper publisher Joseph Pulitzer believed that through education, journalists would become disciplined workers that would "align more closely with the aims of business enterprise" and distant
themselves from socialism and unions (Carey, 2008, par. 11). Pulitzer proclaimed in 1904 "[b]efore the century closes schools of journalism will generally be accepted as a feature of specialized higher education like schools of law and medicine" (Adam, 2001, p. 2).

By the end of the 19th century, former Confederate General Robert E. Lee, president of the Washington College (now Washington and Lee University), established the first university journalism courses (De Forest, 2008). However, it was the strong initiative of Pulitzer that led to the creation of the world's first journalism schools: the Missouri School of Journalism, founded in 1908 by Columbia Herald editor Walter Williams, and the Pulitzer School of Journalism in Columbia, founded in 1912, a year after Pulitzer's death (De Forest, 2008).

The first student newspaper in the Missouri School of Journalism was The University Missourian (University Missourian) and was established along with the school. (MSJ Centennial, 2008). Johnson (2008) writes, “The students who produced the very first issue of what is now called the Columbia Missourian were literally pioneers in the world of journalism. They were part of a revolutionary experiment in reporting..." (par. 1-2).

Since its first issue, "University students faced the same pressures as working reporters, from tight deadlines to rushed editors" (MSJ Centennial, 2008, par.2). The University Missourian featured editorial cartoons, local new stories and advertisements, following the notions of the American free press (MSJ Centennial, 2008).

The practice of journalism through student-run media outlets became one of the primary learning tools in journalism schools in the U.S. (Altschull, 1983). Mencher (1978) explains, "For the student newspaper brings out the best of each student, and the journalism curriculum that is without this consummate teaching device is handicapped" (p.1).

However, not all the student press in the U.S. is run by journalism schools, some "have been founded directly with college or university funds and are run by the Student Government or a student organization" (Duscha & Fischer, 1973, p. 10). The types of student news outlets are explained later in
this chapter.

1.1d The development and roles of Student Newspapers in the U.S.

By the end of the 19th century, "most colleges and universities had at least weekly newspapers, and many already had dailies. As higher education expanded in the U.S. during the 20th century, so did the number, size and frequency of issue of student newspapers" (Duscha & Fischer, 1973, p. 9-10).

By 1973, more than 1,200 college and university newspapers were being published, and many of them ran from Monday to Friday during the school year (Duscha & Fischer, 1973).

Dartmouth College established its campus weekly newspaper in 1839, the Harvard Crimson was founded in 1856 and the Yale Daily News was first published in 1878, which is considered the world's first student daily periodical (Yale Daily, 2008; Duscha & Fischer, 1973).

After comparing the first issue of the University Missourian and the first issue of Yale Daily News, it can be argued that University Missourian presented a more journalistic approach in comparison to the first issue of Yale Daily News that featured mainly students' opinions.

For example, the first issue of the University Missourian has newspaper-styled headlines, while the Yale Daily News issue used book-like titles. The Yale Daily News was written in first person plural and the University Missourian had an impersonal style. These and other characteristics, such as the template design, illustrate the attempt of the University Missourian to imitate corporate newspapers.

The first article in the first issue of Yale Daily News explains that the initiative of its creation was the lack of effective news outlets for Yale students: "The innovation which we begin by this morning's

4 Students of the William Penn Charter School in Philadelphia put out a neatly handwritten "publication" dated June 1777. During the rest of 1777 and 1778, approximately 60 copies of The Student's Gazette were written out in neat longhand by the pupils as the Revolutionary War swirled around them....these junior journalists covered news wherever they found it. (Arnold, 1976, p. 9)

issue is justified by the dullness of the times and by the demand for news among us" (Yale Daily, 1878, par 1).

However, by looking at Yale Daily News issues from 1878 to 1918 it is noticeable that this publication adapted a journalistic structure, similar to the University Missourian, several years later after its establishment.

The flourishing of student newspapers in the U.S. was not necessary caused by journalism education as university student media developed various functions in campus. Student press grew its circulation mainly due to its business potential (Duscha & Fischer, 1973).

Duscha & Fischer (1973) explain:

The earliest college and university newspapers were generally independent publications depending for their money on advertising and circulation revenues. Theses papers were small, had small staff, and...did not need much money to survive. As publicly-supported institutions of higher learning were founded and developed into large enterprises...the campus publications started to rely more and more on college and university funds (p. 10).

The university funding helped student newspapers to increase their circulation. The large number of student newspapers became more appealing to advertisers "seeking to reach student market" and "proprietors of local business in campus" (Duscha & Fischer, 1973, p. 10).

In 2009, more than 510 newspapers are registered in the Internet. The development of student newspapers in the U.S. have gave them an important role in campus life, university and even political and social issues at a local and national level. The next four cases of U.S. student newspapers as key players in their campus and local community will support this argument.

The Daily O'Collegian and Abbie Kauffman's visit to Oklahoma State University

In 1970, Oklahoma State University students proposed political activist Abbie Hoffman as a
campus speaker. Hoffman, known as a promoter of disruption for the purpose of defying laws and conventions, was not well seen by OSU administrators (Johnson, 2006).

OSU adopted a speaker policy that restricted a speaker who "by word of mouth..advocated, affirmatively suggested or taught actions that included sabotage, syndicalism, acts of violence and damage of property" (Johnson, 2006, p. 326). Under this policy, Hoffman was forbidden to speak on campus. Students, in response, filed a lawsuit to challenge the policy as it violated constitutional rights of free speech (Johnson, 2006).

While the state and local press presented the case through the university's administration perspective and defended its position, OSU's student newspaper, The Daily O'Collegian, presented the viewpoints of the student plaintiffs and "kept OSU students current on Hoffman's activities, reported on the developments in the court case, and suggested what needed to happened" (Johnson, 2006, p.330).

Before the case was presented in court, the regents revised the policy and let Hoffman speak on campus. "OSU students fought the infringement on their constitutional rights. To the students, rights preserved made the fight worth all of the anger, money, and time" (Johnson, 2006, p. 326, 333).

The role of the Daily O'Collegian in this event exemplifies the function of the student newspaper as a representative and informer of the student body. Just like the previous examples of media in student movements, The Daily O'Collegian offered a different perspective of local issues from institutional media and corporate or commercial press.

BU Exposure and John Silber

After the project failure of BU News as a student newspaper at Boston University, BU Exposure emerged in 1975. The student press at BU in the 70's was characterized for having leftist ideologies and promoting anti-war movements (Zinn, 2001; Ready, 1999).

During that time, BU president John Silber was persona non grata among students and faculty members because of his questionable governance that included intimidation, unfair labor practices
and continuous budget cuts that led to the resignation of several faculty members (Zinn, 2001; Ready, 1999). Historian and BU Exposure faculty adviser Howard Zinn (2001) refers to BUE as "pitilessly anti-Silber...one of his headlines referred to him as: 'Mediocre Philosopher, Expert Chiseler'" (p.136).

Ready (1999) explains:

Taking direct aim at Silber, the [BU] published stories about BU's investments in South Africa and its unfettered acquisition of Kenmore Square real estate. The administration fired back. BU told the paper that its adviser...Zinn, was unacceptable because he refused to censor what the students wrote. Therefore, the university said, the paper no longer qualified as a student organization, and was no longer allowed to use BU buildings or funds. The 'exposure' sued BU, but the case languished. Soon after the suit was filed, BU adopted its official "publications policy," which states: "All student journals of opinion must operate independently of the University and without University support." Years after the 'exposure' sued, a financial settlement was finally reached, but the paper had folded and the staff had long since graduated (par. 31).

Silber's actions toward the student newspaper brought national media attention. CBS's 60 Minutes presented the case included in a profile story on John Silber and his controversial presidency (Hopwood, 2006).

Hunt, Miller, Piven, et al. (1980) explain:

The Civil Liberties Union of Massachusetts issued a report criticizing the Administration of Boston University for repeated violations of civil liberties—including censorship of programs on the university radio station, prior-review rules for student newspapers, the deletion of statements critical of the administration from student publications, and the dismissal of a news
director at the radio station who protested the censorship there (par. 4).

BU Exposure served as a watchdog of the administration's actions and presented a critical viewpoint that reflected the opinions of members of the community at the time (Zinn, 2001, Ready 1999). BU Exposure didn't follow the norms of objectivity that student newspapers should follow when functioning as journalism workshops. The dilemma of objectivity norms versus student-sided content is another challenge of student press that will be explained later in this thesis.

BU Students followed the steps of BU Exposure staff and created the independent newspaper Student Underground in the 90's. It continues today (Student Underground, 2008).

**Daily Nebraskan and the Governor's tour guide**

The Daily Nebraskan, the student newspaper at University of Nebraska at Lincoln, was the first to report that Timothy Haverkamp, the tour guide of the Nebraska Governor's mansion, had been convicted of second-degree murder and sentenced to 10 years to life in prison (Garcia, 2008). He got the job at the mansion because of good behavior and as part of a rehabilitation program, but his history was kept secret from tourists (Garcia, 2008; Albin, 2008).

The story was published by USA Today, the Associated Press and the Chronicle of Higher Education. They credited the Daily Nebraskan of being the first to get the story (AP, 2008; SNSB, 2008).

The Student Newspaper Survival Blog (SNSB) reported that “the governor's office wanted to cut ties with the student newspaper because staff there felt they were not given an opportunity to comment on the story before it was published” (par. 4).

The Student Press Law Center and Ian Russell, a legislative aide to Nebraska Sen. Tom White of Omaha, supported the student newspaper. Russell told the Daily Nebraskan: "I hope every journalist and every editorial board in the state and every taxpayer realizes the freedom of speech violations here. When the governor's office goes and beats up on a college newspaper because they're doing their job, it's unbelievable" (Daily Nebraskan, 2008; SNSB, 2008, par. 10).
This example shows how student newspapers can get stories of the same relevance as corporate newspapers and even published them before experienced journalists do. For this reason, student journalists require the same protection from censorship as corporate journalists as they deal with the challenges of real reporting, editing and publishing in a news outlet.

**Northern Star and The Collegiate Times reporting their campus tragedies**

Four days after the shootings at Northern Illinois University, the New York Times published a story titled: "First on the Scene, Again, Is the College Newspaper" (Stelter, 2008).

The story describes how the staff at the NIU student newspaper Northern Star, prepared, reported and published the story on the gunman who killed five students in campus. Its editor-in-chief had spoken to the editor-in-chief of the Collegiate Times, the student newspaper at Virginia Tech, about the coverage of the shootings on that campus (Stelter, 2008).

Stelter (2008) wrote, "There, the student newspaper staff became immediate sources for information: their Web site dispatches drove the early reporting, their voices filled the live coverage on television news, and their photographs appeared on the front pages of next day’s newspapers nationwide" (par. 5).

The Northern Star staff followed the steps of the Collegiate Times and covered the incident faster than any other local and national media outlet. Both newspapers got international attention.

Stelter (2008) wrote, "For both newspapers, Web sites proved important to an audience that needed immediate updates. On a normal day, The Northern Star’s Web site records roughly 15,000 page views, Mr. [Jim] Killam (Northern Star faculty adviser) said. In the 24 hours after the shootings, it had about 600,000." (par.10).

When breaking news happen in universities, student newspapers have an advantage over other media outlets because of its proximity and familiarity with the campus and the university community. Collegiate Times editor-in-chief Amie Steele told the New York Times, “We had to cover the story, yet we were clearly attached to what we were reporting about....We weren’t outsiders looking in like most of
the national media; the victims were just like us — they walked past the same buildings, ate in the same dining halls — and there is absolutely no way you can remove yourself from that” (Stelter, 2008, par. 9).

The next part presents an overview of student journalism and will further explain the functions and challenges of student news outlets described in the examples above.

1.2 Types, functions and challenges of Student Journalism

This chapter presents categories of student news outlets based mainly on criteria used by the Student Press Law Center, a nonprofit organization that offers legal advice to student journalists in the U.S. Chapter 5 presents the results of a content analysis of student media outlets worldwide that provides more specific types, structures and functions of student journalism.

1.2a Definition of Student Journalism

To explain the types, functions and challenges of student journalism, first, it is necessary to define it. For the purposes of its research, this thesis defines student journalism as news outlets—printed, published or aired online—in which students are responsible of the production and editing of their content.

The project proposal in this thesis is designed for university students using the Internet and the press as their media platforms. Elementary or high school scholastic press, training schools for corporate journalists and broadcast media that require government regulations will not be taken in consideration for this project.

1.2b Types of student news outlets

The Student Press Law Center identifies two types of student news outlets in regard to its relationship with the university: school-sponsored and underground media (SPLC, 2008a). This part also recognizes online media as a type of student news outlet.

School-sponsored student media: student news outlets that are sponsored by their university; their main income comes from university funding. They can be run by the student government, a
publications’ board or the journalism faculty or department (Duscha & Fisher, 1973). These student news outlets can be considered the official student media of the university (SPLC, 2008b). However, some student news outlets, such as the Daily Californian at UCLA-Berkley, are considered official but they are economically independent of the university (Daily Californian, 2008).

**Independent and Underground student media:** student news outlets that are not sponsored by the university. “An underground newspaper can be any type of student publication not affiliated with a school. They can take the form of anything from a one-time flier photocopied by an elementary school student to a regularly and professionally printed independent college newspaper” (SPLC, 2008c, par 1). Some independent student news outlets run off campus, and some are distributed inside campus, not necessary with the university official’s consent.

The Student Press Law Center also distinguishes student online media from student printed media and student broadcast media from private and public universities as each require different approaches when dealing with legal issues and censorship in the U.S. (SPLC, 2008a).

The First Amendment to the U.S. Constitution prohibits the government from suppressing freedom of speech, press, religion, assembly and petition to the redress of grievances (U.S. Const. amend. I, § 1). Under the First Amendment, public schools are not allowed to control or censor student press. In addition, some states have laws and regulations that can protect students free expression rights (SPLC, 2008a).

However, press freedom is not absolute. Also, private schools are not obliged to respect student expression as the First Amendment and state constitutional provisions and statutes are intended for government authorities and public schools (SPLC, 2008a; Senat, 2008). “Student press law can vary significantly, depending on [the] school and the type of [student] publication” (SPLC 2008a, par. 1).

**Online student media**

Online student news outlets can be considered a third type of student media. Bouzaglou (2005) explains, “Because students who have access to the Internet may have a good understanding of
technology and the Internet, it’s possible that the news sites run by them will be successful, imaginative and daring and may even perhaps pave the way for mainstream online journalism” (p. 6).

Examples of online student news outlets are news web sites, blogs, podcasts and online PDF versions of printed issues. The Internet is becoming an important platform for student journalism because of its economical and exposure advantages (Bouzaglou, 2008).

An editor of the South African student newspaper *Vuvuzelaonline* explains:

We tried to emulate what was good about global sites, and to take advantage of the unique opportunity that the Internet presents in terms of interactivity. We went along with the idea that online journalism has the breadth and depth of print, the immediacy of broadcast, but something very special and extra –interactivity (as cited in Bouzaglou, 2008, p. 26).

Bouzaglou (2008) explains, “Interactivity on student sites was also found to help in educating both readers and student journalists. It often occurs that a reader knows more about a topic than a journalist...” (p. 26).

However, the Student Press Law Center (2008d) notes:

[T]he emergence of the Internet as a powerful publishing and research tool for journalists has also led to a number of legal problems, both real and imagined. Deservedly and not, ‘old' legal questions (obscenity, decency, slander and libel) have found new life on the Internet (par. 1).

Online student publications in particular will also have to deal with censorship of content that the university administration considers incentive of disruption or discrimination. This last aspect is crucial in the analysis of censorship of online and printed student publications.

**12.c Functions of student journalism**

Student news outlets have several roles. They are training labs for journalism students, news outlets mainly for the local community and expression forums for students. In a broader perspective,
student journalism is also a place where students can develop their sense of citizenship and social responsibility. Because of the nature of their audiences and content, student news outlets can also be considered alternative and citizen media.

**Similarities and differences with commercial or corporate Journalism**

Although student news outlets often attempt to imitate corporate news media, the structure and dynamics seen in student news outlets mark clear differences between both. Arnold & Kriegbaum (1976) explain, “In many ways, a school publication--its operations, its appeals to an audience, and its staff organization—is similar to a community daily or a nationally circulated magazine. The relationship may be described as ‘the same but different.’ Guiding concepts and general principles are rather close but details can vary widely” (p. 10).

Just like the corporate media, student news outlets have a well-defined community as their target audience, in their case, students, faculty, university employees, alumni, administrators and local community. They also have a specific distribution; the campus. However, these two elements are changing with online student media as their audiences and exposure could expand outside their universities and even their countries (see e.g. *Northern Star*).

Other similarities between corporate and student news outlets is content variety and the diversity of audiences. Editors in both fields know their audiences don't read the whole publication. Some may be interested in politics and social issues, while others only read the sports section.

Student news outlets also sell advertising space, but usually they are not as dependent of advertisement as commercial media because they also receive university funding (Duscha & Fisher, 1973). This economic dependence could become a challenge for the news outlets' content and role, which will be explained later in this chapter.

A clear difference between corporate and student media is their size and circulation (Duscha & Fisher, 1973; Kanigel, 2006). By the nature of campus publications, their coverage is usually restricted to the university and local events and their audience are mainly students of their university (Duscha &
However, student journalists can also compete with local news outlets by widening their coverage. The examples presented in part 1.1d exemplify how student news outlets can present ground-breaking information before local and national media do.

**Specific roles**

Kanigel (2006) identifies four functions of student press in universities. The first function is to be the chronicle of campus life. Mencher (2006) explains, “One of the responsibilities of a newspaper is to reflect the nature of the community it serves. A student newspaper should be able to understand and display all dimensions of a campus community...the concerns of the university employees, faculty, administrators and staff” (as cited in Kanigel, 2006, p. 5).

The second role of student press is to be a forum in which the members of the university community, especially students, can share their viewpoint on campus, local, national and international issues (Kanigel, 2006). Through student news outlets, the university administration and the board of regents can know and understand the perspectives of the university community on their decisions (Duscha & Fisher, 1973; Kanigel, 2006).

Just like corporate news media working in a city, student news outlets have the duty to be the watchdog of society. Kanigel (2006) explains, “[C]olleges and universities may be institutions of learning, but they can also be hotbeds of corruption and scandal...and on many campuses, the student newspaper is the only institution able to investigate and report such matters” (p.7).

The last function of student media is to be training grounds for future journalists, advertisers and media managers. The experience of working in a student news outlet can help future journalists understand the responsibilities and challenges of working in this field that cannot be easily transmitted through exercises and theory (Kanigel, 2006; Mencher, 1978).

After analyzing the examples of censorship cases of student newspapers presented in part 1.1d, it can be concluded that unlike an internship in a corporate news outlet, where students are usually
asked to do small stories, copy edit and assist reporters, student news outlets offer them a chance to make crucial editorial and management decisions and resolve ethical dilemmas.

**Student journalists as active citizens**

Student news outlets can not only train future journalists but also make students aware of their civic responsibilities in a democracy. By being informed and informing their peers about issues that concern them, student journalists play an essential role in the university's democratic model (Leary, 2005; Goldberg, 1945). For example, McAndless (1946) explains that scholastic newspapers have the responsibility of cultivating the duties of citizenship in students:

> Among the major objectives of scholastic journalism, citizenship has always ranked high... Pronouncements on the basic elements of character have been made for decades in every staffroom across the continent. Boys and girls have come to know the importance of...social competency (p. 242).

Goldberg (1945) explains:

> The valuable experiences which the student newspaper affords...there is the experience so important in a democratic society of effective organization, and of creative cooperation. Perhaps most important, there is the unparalleled opportunity which membership on the staff of a publication affords growth in the essential democratic function of social leadership (p. 253).

Leary (2005) explains that student journalists assume a role of social responsibility through their media: “[Student journalists] will be expected to produce work that benefits the communities in which they are located. They will identify problems and through writing, make meaning and develop solutions to address the problems they have identified. In some instances, they may even participate in community projects” (p.5).

Leary (2005) states:
Student writers become the citizens in...public journalism. Writing classrooms are well positioned to engage their communities and to consider how those communities are framed in the mainstream media, particularly in newspapers. By reading and responding to newspaper stories both on the local and national fronts, writing students can join the public conversation and enact the ideas of liberatory learning and student citizenship envisioned by Paulo Freire and John Dewey (p.6).

Once graduated, people who participated in student newspapers, radio and magazines will become aware of their power to resolve the issues in their society and will be more aware of journalists' responsibility toward their community and less vulnerable and susceptible to corruption, intimidation and censorship (Kanigel, 2006; Goldberg, 1945, McAndless, 1946).

**Student news outlets as alternative and citizen media**

Student news outlets are media produced outside news corporations or government agencies. Thus, they offer a different, and in most cases, a most honest perspective of issues and events than mainstream media. Merrill, Gade & Blevens (2001) explain "Journalism's contribution to citizen apathy and alienation is the rationale for changing the way journalism is practiced" (p.130).

Following the concepts of public journalism of Dewey and Habermas (see Chapter 2), citizens' media theory proposes the transformation of passive audiences into active participants in the creation and production of news media. Citizens' media is both produced and consumed by the people of a specific social group (Downing, 2001; Rodriguez in Wilkins, 2000).

Harcup (2005) explains "alternative forms of journalism...are produced within the more open, more participatory, and more democratic structures" (p. 3). This form of media breaks the norms, methods and practices of corporate journalism not only to present information from the perspective of their authors (who belong to a group usually misrepresented or ignored by mainstream media) but to give them a sense of empowerment and control over their social development (Rodriguez in Wilkins,
Downing (2001) believes that Habermas' and Dewey's theory of public journalism fail to "address the messy world of actuality. They do not engage closely with tiresome and daunting problems actually existing in mainstream media" (p.42). While the efforts of transforming corporate media to be more social conscious are still important, in the mean time, alternative media play an important part in democratic processes.

Downing (2001) defines radical alternative media, as communication movements and activities of both mass and oppositional cultures. Audiences, rather than marketing targets are active consumers that use media products to satisfy their specific needs. Examples of radical media can be "all the way from interpreting mainstream media texts in liberating ways...through writing graffiti on billboards and culture jamming, to occasional fliers and posters, up to systematically organized and autonomous media production over extended periods of time" (Downing, 2001, p.9).

Downing (2001) states that alternative media can expand the democratic process in a community by engaging dialogue and participation, as well as offering a space of artistic expression that goes beyond simple transmission of information:

Dance, cartoon, posters, parody, satire, only some of the most obvious forms of radical media whose communicative thirst depends not on closely argued logic but on their aesthetically conceived and concentrated force....Tremendous weight has often been placed on their role in transmitting to the public information that has been systematically censored, distorted, or dismissed in mainstream media (p. 53).

Participation and production of alternative media can lead to individual emancipation and social improvement. Macpherson (2001) defines it as the "expansion of developmental power" (Downing, 2001, p. 52)

Rodriguez (2002) has studied the connection between citizens' media and peace movements
and social transformation. She states citizens’ media "can give voice to the voiceless" (p.150):

By gaining access to the media, previously silenced communities can break the culture of silence and regain their own voices. Second, citizens’ media can foster empowerment. Social structures of inequality and injustice result in entire communities feeling disempowered and paralyzed. Involvement in citizens’ media projects strengthens people’s sense of self and their confidence in their own potential to act in the world (in Wilkins, 2002, p. 150).

Applying Downing and Rodriguez definitions of alternative media, student journalism can act as alternative or citizens’ media in the campus community. By producing their own media and being involved in the democratic processes of their community, students can claim their place in society and be direct participants of social and political change.

Leary (2005) explains, "By ultimately developing and executing writing projects designed to benefit the communities where student writers are located, teachers and students can try to break through the pages of the paper and the walls of the classroom into more action-oriented environments" (p.161).

An international network of student journalists can also work as alternative media by offering students a platform to disseminate ideas and information through blogs, online forums, video galleries and podcasts. These forms of communication will be explained later in this chapter.

Rodriguez (2002) explains that "citizens’ media can connect isolated communities. Facilitating alternative communication networks, citizens’ media link communities and people who have much to gain from joining forces in projects of collective action" (p.150).

1.2c Challenges of student journalism

Because of their diverse functions, student news outlets are complex to produce. Student journalists face a series of challenges when producing their own media. Although challenges may vary according to factors such as the type of university, idiosyncrasies and legislation of their countries,
student news outlets have these challenges in common: conflicting roles and perceptions, conduct
codes in universities and censorship. This part analyses these challenges.

**Different audiences, different perceptions**

One of the main challenges of student journalism is that people--in and off-campus--have
different, and usually conflicting, perspectives of the role student media must fulfill. Members of the
university's board of regents or trustees usually believe the student newspaper should reflect and
embrace what they perceive as the values of society and education.

For university officials, reporting a university issue accurately and fair usually means they should
"speak well of the administration's good intentions" (Duscha & Fisher, 1973, p. 11). However, students,
especially those working at the student newspaper, believe the main role of their news outlet is to be
the university's watchdog and to be critical to the malpractices of the administration.

Students and faculty members read the student newspaper to be informed on university events
and important meetings. Faculty members and employees expect to know about administrative
decisions that could affect their jobs through the student newspaper (Duscha & Fisher, 1973; Kanigel,
2006). People outside the university, including government officials, alumni, parents of students and
media outlets, read student newspapers to get the scoop on the “mood of the university” (Duscha &

Education consultants use the information of student media as references to evaluate the quality
of the university and make more accurate reviews. “Competition” universities often use controversial
information published in the student newspaper to use it against the university's image and reputation
and enhance their own (Duscha & Fischer, 1973, p. 11).

**Dependency on university funding**

The dependency of student media on university funding can be a challenge to their objectivity.
The censorship case of Oral Otis student newspaper presented later in this chapter is an example of
how funding cuts can be a technique of censorship and content control of the university administration
The reliance of student media on university funding can compromise their editorial independence. The financial ties of student news outlets with universities are often an obstacle for them to be truly independent. The director or publisher of a news outlet will always have an inevitable influence on its content. In the case of school-sponsored student media outlets, the administration would have certain influence or control on their content (Duscha & Fisher, 1973).

**Student journalists' conflicting roles**

Most codes of ethics in media outlets and associations emphasize on conflicts of interest. Iggers (1995) explains that conflict of interest “means that a reporter must maintain independence from sources” (par. 9). Also, if reporters are directly involved in an issue or an event, code of ethics strongly recommend them not to do the coverage (Iggers, 1995).

The nature of student media makes it impossible for their members to produce content free of conflict of interest. Student reporters and editors can't always avoid being involved in the story they cover as the issues and events of the university will affect them as they are members of its community (Kanigel, 2006). Kanigel (2006) explains, “Even more than corporate journalists, student journalists face the challenge of covering the community in which they live. That sometimes means writing about...the melee after your friend's dorm party or the tenure battle of your favorite English professor” (p. 8).

**Dichotomy of student journalists**

Students are usually expected to follow rules and conduct codes and obey professors and follow their teachings. Student journalists find themselves in a constant dilemma when trying to fulfill both their role as students and as journalists at the same time.

This thesis defines this conflicting role as the dichotomy of student journalists: while as students they are expected to be obedient and respectful to authorities, as journalists they pursue to become watchdogs of the government, to be critical of unjust or corrupt actions and embrace free speech. The conflicting roles of student journalists are also reflected in the perception of their work. Usually,
students are underestimated because of their youth and lack of experience. Thus, their work would not be taken as seriously as it would be published in a corporate news outlet.

Unfortunately, student journalists are more likely to make mistakes than corporate journalists simply because they are in a learning process. Student journalists are amateurs, they are in the process of becoming journalists. Kanigel (2006) explains, “The lack of experience can lead to serious mistakes that are on display for the whole campus—or, in the case of an error picked up by the mass media, the whole world” (p.8).

Just like corporate media, mistakes in accuracy and journalism malpractices can make a student news outlet lose their trust and credibility with their sources and audiences. Although, student journalists can justify their mistakes as part of the learning process, they have to be aware that fact errors can have devastating and embarrassing consequences. (Duscha & Fischer, 1973; Arnold & Kriehbaum, 1976; Kanigel, 2006).

O’Neil (1997) explains, “the campus paper may directly and profoundly shape what occurs on the campus for some time. If the paper publishes a story that misleadingly disparages the academic performance and potential of minority students, trouble will not be far behind” (p. 126).

1.3 Censorship in student press

The challenges presented above can lead to the greatest issue in student journalism: censorship. To understand the causes and effects of censorship to student journalism, first, it is necessary to understand the general nature of censorship.

1.3a Overview of Press Censorship

Censorship can be defined as the restrictions of access to information and dissemination of ideas. White (1984) explains that censors justify their actions by claiming the expression of certain ideas are misleading, false or dangerous to society, but they fail to "convincingly demonstrate to others that the opinions" they find offensive are indeed dangerous or harmful (p. xiv).

White (1984) explains:
Censorship is usually defended as being necessary for the preservation of the moral order upon which and every citizen or subject depends for his or her safety and well being and upon which society as a whole depends for its very preservation. However, it is more to the point to say that censorship...serves to protect the predominant ideology from which those benefit most, who have attained power, wealth, status and control within society (p. xv).

Mass communication, especially the press, has been the target of censorship across the world since its origin. In 1830, for example, the government of England restricted pamphlets and newspapers that were massively distributed because they “promoted the creation of an informed population” (White, 1984, p. 29).

White (1894) explains, “censorship targets not content but communication...when determining illicit expression, it is not the information itself which worries the authorities and moves them to act, but its dissemination, particularly the massive distribution of information formerly reserved for an exclusive audience” (p. 29, 31).

The establishment of international and national human rights' laws and committees led to the protection of news media from government restrictions in most countries. However, media censorship, rather than disappearing, developed more subtle methods (Nakaya, 2005; White, 1984).

Because mass communication is often produced by multimillionaires and multinational corporations, which are owned by the world's elites, media are likely to present only information and viewpoints convenient to the status quo. Any news outlet that wishes to defy the information guidelines of communication conglomerates will have to confront their powerful techniques of manipulation and control (Bagdikian, 1997).

Downy and Kaiser (2005) state, “Broadly speaking, three factors distinguish newspapers from one another: ambitious, resources and values. Ownership is probably the greatest influence on all
In the case of student media, censorship usually takes the form of restrictions and policies to prevent violence or disruption and avoid discrimination of cultural, religious, racial and gender groups. Goldberg (2005) explains: “Censorship today is simply defined as censorship we don't like. Censorship we do like is 'responsible policy.' This kind of thinking is a cancer on the very idea of free speech” (as cited in Nakaya, 2005, p. 19).

1.3b The university as a marketplace of ideas

Only a free press is a truly useful press. The free flow of information facilitates broad discussion in society that leads to better decision-making in a democracy. This concept is further explained in Chapter 2. If universities are temples of knowledge and utopian models of society, they would be useless without freedom of speech. Censorship in universities would be the ultimate contradiction to their fundamental mission: the pursuit of knowledge.

In *Aeropagitica* (1644), John Milton states that in the marketplace of ideas, where discussion is free and open, the truth will overcome falsity; therefore, censorship of ideas is unnecessary.

Milton wrote:

Give me the liberty to know, to utter, and to argue freely according to conscience, above all liberties... And though all the winds were let loose to play upon the earth, so truth be in the field...let her and falsehood grapple; who ever knew truth pot to the worse, in a free and open encounter...Her [falsehood] confuting is the best and surest suppressing. Truth will always prevail over falsehood. (Copeland, 2001, p. 86).

In *An Apology for Freedom of the Press* (1795), Robert Hall, inspired by Milton's work, makes reference of the concept of the marketplace of ideas:

The observation that has been made on the influence of free enquiry in general, will issue in the firmer establishment of truth, and overthrow of error.
Every thin that is really excellent will bear examination, it will even invite it, and the more narrowly it is surveyed, to the more advantage it will appear...When [opinions] are true, their punishment draws towards them infallibly more of the public attention, and enables them to dwell with more lasting weight and pressure on the mind...Opinions that are false may be dissipated by the force of argument (p.19, 20).

Universities are traditionally considered marketplaces of ideas as dialectic of opposing views can lead to the achievement of knowledge. O'Neil (1997b) explains, "The very mission of a college or university depends upon broad latitude for viewpoints in the pursuit of truth and understanding....So of all places of society where people may express controversial views, should not the university campus be the most open and speech the freest?" (p. vii).

Euben (2008) states, "Colleges and universities are the quintessential marketplace of diverse ideas, including those that are controversial, unpopular, and, at times, even offensive, including opposition to diversity in higher education" (par. 5). To assure their role as marketplace of ideas, a university must encourage students to express their ideas and engage discussions with their peers and teachers. Certainly the college is governed for students.

Several universities including Oklahoma State University and Universidad de las Américas Puebla (University of the Americas) adopted this philosophy in their goals and mission statements. UDLAP's mission statement:

To form professionals that are well-informed, critical, creative, innovative and highly capable in technical matters, but mainly, conscious of the great social responsibility that is required to achieve an equal distribution of benefits produced in a globalized world.

To achieve this mission thoroughly, I will require the help of the faculty and all the university personnel to create a space in which freedom of
expression, access to all forms of thought, the generation of innovative ideas and technologies,...become the central elements of our students’ education (Derbez, 2009, par.9, English translation).

OSU's Extracurricular Use of University Facilities, Areas or Media for the Purpose of Expression: I. Philosophy and Scope: A. Philosophy:

A goal of the faculty, students, administration, staff, and Board of Regents, is for Oklahoma State University to be a superior educational center for the preservation, transmission, and discovery of knowledge....

In fulfilling this mission, the University must recognize and protect free inquiry and free expression as indispensable components of the critical examination of philosophies and ideas. Given the unique mission of educational institutions in a democratic society, this inquiry should be more open and vigorous, and should consequently have greater protection than in society at large, provided that such inquiry does not infringe upon the rights of others....(OSU, 2008, par. 1-2).

MacCracken (1947) explains universities are microcosms of their society. Colleges in a democracy must work as governments that serve their citizens, in this case, the university community, especially students.

MacCracken (1947) explains:

Their welfare is the first thought of the college. In a university, research and new knowledge may be the chief aim, but in undergraduate colleges the students come first. Will college life be democratic as a result of these conditions I would answer yes; wherever government by students and for students has been the chief aim, a democratic society has resulted. Wherever undemocratic conditions prevail in our country, these will
Meisler (1984) explains that college students in a democratic, free-speech learning model "take great strides toward autonomy....They became actively engaged in the pursuit of knowledge, rejecting their accustomed role as passive recipients or passive resisters of instruction in this familiar authoritarian trappings" (p. 1,2).

A conflict can occur between the marketplace philosophy and the authoritarian traditions in the classroom and the need of school authorities to avoid disruption of class activities of a "healthy environment" on campus. Meisler (1984) explains, “Some teachers found that despite the attraction of rhetoric about freedom, the old authoritarian ways afforded them more gratification than they had realized. They did not value non-traditional styles and therefore, could not accept the implications of student choices” (p. 2).

Silverglate, French & Lukianoff (2005) explain:

Public university administrators will often appeal to the “unique” need for civility, order, and dignity in the academic environment to justify a variety of severe regulations of speech....They hope to apply...high school cases to higher education because, in their minds, true education cannot take place when feelings are bruised or debates grow heated. These officials prefer an artificially imposed harmony to the sometimes contentious free exchange of ideas (p. 43-44).

Hall (1795) explains, “Freedom of thought...is of so much more importance than the preservation of any constitution, that to infringe the former under pretence of supporting the later, is to sacrifice the means to an end” (p. 17).

Based on the functions of the student news media in universities presented in part 1.2b, it can be argued that student journalism promotes the marketplace of ideas in campus. Student news outlets are public forums that promote debate and provide information to their community for it to engage
discussion of university, national and international issues.

Student news outlets give their producers an opportunity to combine the knowledge transmitted in the classroom with their own perspectives, hence, creating a synthesis that can make a significant contribution to the marketplace of ideas.

**Conduct and speech codes on campus**

Restricting student speech contradicts the philosophy of universities as marketplaces of ideas. College speech codes and student conduct policies are threat to freedom of speech in campus. These codes are often an obstacle for student news outlets when presenting content considered controversial by university authorities.

The Foundation for Freedom Rights in Education (FIRE) comments on Speech Codes:

Colleges and universities routinely punish students and faculty for their speech, writings, and membership in campus groups. Administrators create and enforce speech codes in an attempt to outlaw free speech and free expression that do not conform to various new campus orthodoxies...These codes also lead students to believe they have an absolute right to be free from offense, embarrassment, or discomfort. As a result, other students begin the compromise of self-censorship (FIRE, 2008a, par.1).

FIRE (2008b) explains that to avoid criticism or legal actions against speech codes, universities include “savings clauses” which state “that the policy’s provisions do not apply to speech protected by the First Amendment” (p. 29).

Savings clauses make conduct or speech codes and policies self-contradictory and vague. “As Harvard Law Professor Laurence Tribe has pointed out...What could be more vague (indeed, self-contradictory) than a policy prohibiting all sorts of protected speech that then claims not to prohibit anything that is protected by the Constitution?” (FIRE, 2008b, par. 29).

Examples of savings clauses or self-contradictory speech policies can be found in U.S. and
Mexican universities. Although FIRE's savings clause definition is not applicable for a Mexican or private institution, the Universidad de las Americas Puebla Code of Ethics can serve as an example of a self-contradictory speech policy.

In the section XVII on public declarations, the code states that the university community “must transmit to the public opinion an image of a prestigious, solid, cohesive, plural university that is open to dialogue and constructive criticism” (FUDLAP, 2006, English translation). In the next paragraph, it states that all members of the university community have total freedom of thought and expression. However, it adds that under no circumstance will any member of the community denigrate the institution and that public declarations must be consistent with the values of the university that are mention in this code (FUDLAP, 2006, English translation).

The vagueness of the policy allows authorities to sanction any form of speech they consider denigrating or contradictory to the values of the university. Thus, the last paragraph contradicts the clause on freedom of speech.

O'Neil (1997) explains:

[M]yriad restraints on campus speech have been struck down by courts because they abridged...constitutional freedoms. Campus codes addressed to the racist, sexist, homophobic or anti-Semitic statements have been repeatedly challenged and uniformly invalidated. What the courts have said in such cases may surprise many university presidents but provides a helpful conclusion here: while in some areas the standards governing campus free speech differ from those of the larger community and may reflect distinctive interests of the academic community, in many other areas the standards are properly the same on as off campus. So it is with speech codes, among other types of campus expression (p. xiv).

One of the first things, student journalism must do to prevent censorship is to know the speech
codes of their universities. Only the term “speech code” implies a contradiction to the values of a university that embraces free speech, therefore, students, especially student journalists must challenge any clause or rule that forbids speech or information.

**Forms of censorship of the student press**

The Student Press Law Center states, “For as long as student publications have existed, students and administrators have clashed over student press freedom (2008a, par. 1).”

Lane (1983) explains, “Administrators and newspaper advis[ers] had a common, though unspoken agreement that the school paper could print whatever it wanted as long as it was uncontroversial and uncritical of the school, community, or nation” (as cited in Kraus, 1983, p.1).

It could be argued that student press are more likely to have a more honest approach to the issues and events they have no political or economical interests, unlike media corporations.

However, this can also turn student media into targets of stronger authoritative control, justified by the student's amateur and inexperienced status in the journalism field.

Noam Chomsky said to a student in his documentary “Manufacturing Consent” (1992):

Elites don't control the student press, but you try ...to do anything that breaks out of conventions, and you're gonna have the whole business community...on your neck; [the] university is gonna start feeling threatened. Maybe nobody is paying attention to you, that's possible, but if you get to the point where they start putting attention to you, the pressures will start coming.

Former Executive Director of the Student Press Law Center Mark Goodman (2006) identifies five forms of censorship of a student publication:

1. Demanding prior approval of content by an adviser, publication board, administrator or others.
2. Confiscating newspapers
3. Restricting distribution of papers
4. Cutting funding on the basis of content

5. Disciplining editors or advisers for the content of the paper (Kanigel, 2005, p.119).

Certainly, the most successful result of these censorship measures is that eventually students would stop presenting controversial content by their own decision. This effect is known as self-censorship. The student journalist dichotomy might also provoke that student avoid presenting content that might violate a conduct code, offend certain people or contradict a figure of authority.

It’s indispensable that student detect and recognize these forms of censorship, especially self-censorship. The censorship cases presented later in this chapter show that acts of censorship are usually rationalized or justified. Student journalists must understand that no matter the reasons or the excuses, restricting speech is never a justifiable measure.

**Legal protection of student press in the U.S.**

In the U.S., student journalism is protected from censorship of government authorities, including university authorities of public universities, by the First Amendment to the Constitution. Kraus (1983) explains that in the U.S., “student journalists have a legal right to discuss matters in their newspapers, both school-sponsored and underground, that were previously forbidden to them. They can report responsible criticism of school officials...in general, they are free to responsibly report anything the interests and concerns their readers” (p.2).

A series of court decisions are used as reference of First Amendment protection of student expression.

**Tinker v. Des Moines**

The case *Tinker v. Des Moines Independent Community School District* [393 U.S. 503 (1969)] resulted from the suspension of students John Tinker, Mary Beth Tinker and Christopher Echardt for wearing black armbands as a form of protest against the Vietnam War. The school officials, fearful of potential disruption, ordered the students to remove the armbands. When they refused to do so, school
officials suspended them from December 16, 1965 until after New Year's Day (Tinker v. Des Moines [393 U.S. 503 (1969)]).

The court questioned whether the prohibition of wearing armbands as a form of peaceful protests would violate the First Amendment protection to free speech. The court concluded that “the wearing of armbands is 'symbolic speech' which is 'akin to 'pure speech'' and therefore protected by the First and Fourteenth Amendments.” Also, the court concluded that school officials can prohibit speech that would "substantially interfere with the work of the school or impinge upon the rights of other students" (Tinker v. Des Moines [393 U.S. 503 (1969)]).

The Student Press Law Center explains, “under Tinker, student expression may not be censored simply because it is controversial, because school officials dislike its content or because it offers harsh criticism of them and/or their school policies” (SPLC, 2008b, par. 2).

**Kincaid v. Gibson**

The Kentucky State University authorities rejected the publication of the student's year book as they thought it shouldn't have had a section of current events. Students Charles Kincaid and Carpi Coffer filed a suit against the university [*Kincaid v. Gibson*, 236 F.3d 342 (6th Cir. 2001)].

The Court of Appeals for the Sixth Circuit ruled in favor of the students. The Court concluded: “Because we find that a forum analysis requires that the yearbook be analyzed as a limited public forum--rather than a nonpublic forum...” [*Kincaid v. Gibson*, 236 F.3d 342 (6th Cir. 2001)]. The court also concluded that *Hazelwood* doesn't apply with school-sponsored expressive activities at college or university level [*Kincaid v. Gibson*, 236 F.3d 342 (6th Cir. 2001)].

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6 *Hazelwood School District v. Kuhlmeier*: In *Hazelwood*, the Court held that a newspaper published by a public high school journalism class was a nonpublic forum, 484 U.S. at 270, 108 S.Ct. 562, and that school officials' regulation of the content of the paper was reasonably related to legitimate pedagogical concerns, id. at 273, 108 S.Ct. 56. [236 F.3d 342 (6th Cir. 2001)(en banc)].
A graduate student at University of Missouri School of Journalism was expelled after distributing an underground newspaper containing what university officials considered “indecent speech” [Papish v. Board of Curators, 410 U.S. 667 (1973)].

The U.S. Supreme Court held that the student's expulsion violated her First Amendment right to free speech: "the mere dissemination of ideas on a state university campus cannot be proscribed in the name of 'conventions of decency'" [Papish v. Board of Curators, 410 U.S. 667 (1973)].

The Student Press Law Center explains:

Student editors have the right to make all decisions related to the content of their student publications. Courts have been consistent in ruling that at the public colleges and universities, school officials, including student government officers, may not exercise the power of a private publisher over student publications simply because they provide financial support. The fact that public universities are considered an arm of the state distinguishes them from a private publisher (2008b, par. 7).

The court decisions of these and other cases have made clear that school officials cannot censor a publication by controlling or manipulating its content, demand prior revision, confiscating it, reduce or withdraw funding, fire an editor or adviser or suspending students who produced it (SPLC, 2008b).

Also, it has been stated that student governments “are subject to the same First Amendment restraints” as school officials (SPLC, 2008b, par. 11). However, university authorities can still make non-content based regulations such as reviewing financial records (SPLC, 2008b).

O'Neil explains:

No court seems to have found a sufficient threat to “order and discipline” or an overriding interest” that would warrant even punishment of an editor after the fact, much less prior restraint. Thus, while courts and
commentators have recognized that the campus press may not be as free in all respects as the general media, student editors do enjoy substantial latitude (p. 127).

Unfortunately, student news outlets in other countries don’t receive the same protection that those in the U.S. However, court decisions of these cases can be used as good arguments to explain why censorship of student press is wrong and unnecessary.

1.3d Censorship cases in student journalism

To understand the needs of student journalists worldwide, a literature review was conducted to find cases of censorship of student media in seven countries. The following cases caught national and international media attention or led to changes of student press freedom in their countries.

U.S.: Daily Californian and UC's Special Commission on the Student Press

During the 60’s, the Daily Californian, the student newspaper of University of California at Berkley, published stories and opinions to support the wave of civil rights, freedom of speech and student movements. One of these stories encouraged the establishment of a People's Park “on land owned by the university” (Daily Californian, 2008; Duscha & Fischer, 1967, p. 23).

People's Park was a “lot in the Southside neighborhood of Berkley that became an unplanned park for locals.” The university administration found the story controversial and attempted to fire three of the Daily Californian editors (Daily Californian, 2008; Duscha & Fischer, 1967, p. 23).

The ongoing controversies of the student press publications in UCLA and Berkley, including reactions on “obscene” pictures in Berkley's student newspaper Daily Bruin, “had a cumulative effect on the regents and on university administrators...” (Duscha & Fischer, 1967, p.23).

John Canaday, a member of University of California Board of Regents, encouraged the board to approve the establishment of the Special Commission on the Student Press to investigate the university's eight campus newspapers (Duscha & Fischer, 1967).

Canaday declared:
Campus publications abound in obscene editorial and pictorial content and evidence little or no dedication to truthful and objecting reporting...Such an investigation should include a study of the advisability of divorcing such publications from compulsory student support and should consider effective methods of university supervision, such as an editorial policy and review board, or placing campus publications under the jurisdiction of schools of journalism or other appropriate academic departments. (as cited in Duscha & Fischer, 1967, p.23).

The commission was formed by journalists, journalism experts and academics. “After eight months of study, the commission came up with eight rather generalized recommendations, and with an important caveat: 'there is no ideal 'solution' for the problems of the campus press'” (Duscha & Fischer, 1967, p. 24).

In its conclusion, the commission wrote:

The commission overall is recommending a course of patience and understanding; of offering student editors counsel and training; of opening doors, rather that closing them...In general and with occasional exceptions, the most effective, constructive, and responsible student newspapers across the country have been those with a strong tradition of independence and editorial freedom. The process, however, inevitably involves tensions and give and take (as cited in Duscha & Fischer, 1967, p. 24-25).

The tensions between the student newspaper and the administration and the conclusion of the committee led to the independence of the Daily Californian in 1971 (Duscha & Fischer, 1967).

Duscha & Fischer (1967) explain: “The Regents of the University of California...entered into an agreement with the independent Berkley Student Publishing Cooperative Inc. to allow it to use the name 'The Daily Californian' and agreed to pay the student group $20,000 in three installments during the first year of its operations...” (p.25).

The Daily Californian remains as “the only independent campus newspaper in the UC system,...
is run entirely by current or recently-graduated UC Berkeley students, and the majority of the business division of the newspaper is student-operated as well” (Daily Californian, 2008, par. 2).

**Australia: Rabelais and incitement of delinquency**

The Students Representative Council of La Trobe University in Melbourne edited and published Rabelais newspaper. One of the editions of July 1995 included an article that featured a guide to shoplifting. An excerpt reads:

> Be careful, too, about taking stuff from small ‘corner store’ type shops —you could be ripping off someone in a situation not dissimilar to your own. On the whole, it is best to play it safe and go straight for the big corporate f***ers (Rabelais, 1995, par. 1).

The article, titled “The Art of Shoplifting,” caught media attention and “representatives of major retail chains condemned [it]” (Graham, 1999, par. 6).

The editors, Melita Berndt, Michael Brown, Ben Ross and Valentina Srpcanska; students who had been elected at the most recent annual student elections, have explained the article was written to criticize “the pattern of wealth distribution in Australian society, questioning the sanctity of private property, and highlighting the inadequacy of financial support for students” (Graham, 2008, par. 7).

A month after the publication, syndicated radio talk show host John Laws, known for “talking back” to his guests, pressured the then Federal Minister for Education Simon Crean, to promise to cut the federal funding of the student newspaper and prosecute the editors (Graham, 1999).

Following the interview, Crean wrote to the Victorian Attorney-General, Jan Wade, “urging her to prosecute the editors of...Rabelais for printing the article.” On August 16 and 17, after being questioned by the police, the editors were charged with “producing, distributing and depositing in a public place an 'objectionable publication.'”(Graham, 1999, par. 14).

The Australian Board of Literature and Film banned the newspaper as it determined it was a publication which “promoted, incited or instructed in matters of crime” (Lynch, 1999, par. 7). The High Court upheld this decision and refused the editors to appeal against it (Graham, 2008, Lynch, 1999).
The editors faced charges which carried a maximum penalty of six years in jail and a $72,000 fine (Lynch, 1999). On March 1999, “after five years of campaigning and several appearances in the Federal and High courts..., the Victorian director of public prosecutions dropped the charges” (Lynch, 1999, par. 1).

Griffith (2008) explains:

[T]his case serves as a good framework upon which to build an explanation of the administration of censorship in Australia, in particular the way the review process works in this field...The Court's analysis of this issue points to the continuing uncertainties concerning the scope of the constitutional freedom of political communication...The judgments of Justice Sundberg and Heerey would suggest that that is the case, an outcome which may have important implications for political dissent in this country (p. 15-17).

The erotic section of China University Student Press

The Television and Entertainment Licensing Authority of Hong Kong revises all publications and video and film productions for signs of indecent or obscene material (Heron, 2007).

Heron (2007) explains, “The officers may go on to scrutinize newsletters and websites online, consider letters of complaint submitted by the public or fan out to inspect newsstands and shops on the streets below” (par. 2).

In 2007, “high-profile” cases of films considered obscene led to the adoption of “tighter restrictions and heavier penalties” and judicial review of indecent material (Heron, 2007, par. 3).

During that time, TELA received several complaints on an article published by Student Press, the student newspaper at the Chinese University. The article featured a “survey on student's sexual fantasies that included questions on bestiality and incest” (Heron, 2007, par. 7).

The publication and complaints were revised by the Obscene Articles Tribunal, which ruled the article was indecent at Grade II, which meant the publication should be wrapped in plastic paper “with a
warning that it must not be read by anyone under 18” (Heron, 2007, par. 8).

The 11 editors of the student newspaper “demanded a review on obscenity laws,” as they considered the article neither indecent nor obscene (Heron, 2007, par. 7). Wang (2007) explains, “Approximately 20 past and present members of the board and other student representatives gathered outside of the tribunal and chanted against the unfair treatment of the publication” (par. 2).

Two days after the ruling, TELA received 184 complaints on the Student Press sex content. As a response of the tribunal's justifications for their ruling, it also received 2,000 complaints against the references of incest, cannibalism, rape and violence on the Bible (Heron, 2007; Wang, 2007).

Heron (2007) explains, “TELA swiftly rejected the Bible complaints on the grounds that it was part of human civilization and not offensive to reasonable members of the community” (par. 9).

According to news stories and articles, until December 2007, the editorial board of CUSP was still seeking an overturn of the Tribunal's decision in an appeal (Wang, 2007, Heron, 2007).

Canada: The Oral Otis and the sex column

The Oral Otis is the student newspaper of the Engineering Students’ Society (ESS) at the University of Ottawa. Oral Otis received funding from the university and the UO's student government (Godmere, Taylor-Vaisey, March 2008, par. 5).

On March 2008, the Oral Otis featured a mock advice-column called “Ask the Keepers” in which the author advised a reader on how to have pleasurable sex with his girlfriend (Oral Otis, March 2008). UO's Student Federation VP of Student Affairs Seamus Wolfe ordered to pull the newspaper copies from campus after he was told they had “objectionable content.”

UO's women’s studies professor Kathryn Trevenen sent a letter to independent student newspaper at UO The Fulcrum in which she referred to the column as “astounding in the contempt and hatred it displays towards women” (Trevenen, 2008, par. 1). She considered the column trivialized “sexual abuse of children and rape and sexual assault of women” (Trevenen, 2008, par. 1).

Wolfe told The Fulcrum “that the editors of the Oral Otis will not be allowed to print another issue
until they create a policy that outlines what is deemed reasonable content, and the ESS will be penalized—likely a monetary reprimand—for allowing the issue to go to print” (Godmere, Taylor-Vaisey, March 2008, par. 5).

On March 19, UO authorities told the press they were considering withdrawing all funding from the Oral Otis. Four days later, ESS announced they would shut down the paper (Tam, 2008; Kuipers, 2008).

Wolfe told the Fulcrum:

Nobody except a small group of immature engineering students want this to continue on our campus. It’s not something that we as a collective promote...It goes against the notions and ideals that we want to see within our campus community, and we’re all agreeing that we need to take the appropriate action to make sure that this doesn’t continue (as quoted in Godmere, Taylor-Vaisey, March 2008, par. 6).

James Walker, André Sponder, members of ESS and Zacharie Brunet, editor-in-chief of Oral Otis wrote an open letter in the Fulcrum explaining the content of the newspaper. They wrote the authors had no intention of offending anyone and that the column was meant to be read as comedy (Walker, Sponder, Brunet, 2008).

Caroline Andrew, the director of the Centre on Governance at UO’s School of Political Studies told the Fulcrum:

There is a role for the university administration as the people who design the parameters of the university climate....The university has the responsibility to make sure that [it] creates an inclusive, non-discriminatory environment free of sexism (Godmere, Taylor-Vaisey, March 2008, par. 16).

Marcus McCann (2008) wrote in his column at online magazine Capital Xtra referring to the Oral Otis case:

We do not change attitudes by ripping newspaper stands out of student space, as the
student union did. Shutting down debate will not benefit minority communities. And we
do not change attitudes by baiting those who value freedom of speech (par. 14).

No follow-up of the case can be found online. However, an issue of Oral Otis is found online
dated November 2008 (Oral Otis, November 2008).

Canada: The Cadre and the Muhammad cartoons

In 2006, University of Prince Edward student newspaper The Cadre republished the
controversial cartoons depicting Muhammad originally printed in Danish newspaper Jyllands-Posten.
The Cadre was the first North American newspaper to reprint these cartoons (CBC, 2006a).

In response to the cartoon publication, the UPEI administration, including the student union,
removed 2,000 copies of the issue. UPEI officials told CBC news (Canadian Broadcasting Corporation)
“the cartoons have already caused enough violence around the world” (CBC, 2006a, par. 1).

A letter of UPEI Student Union to the student community reads:

Following several discussions regarding the reproduction of twelve editorial cartoons
in The Cadre depicting the prophet Muhammad, the UPEI Student Union has decided
to pull this week's issue of the paper.

While the Student Union supports the freedom of the press, there is also a sense that
with that freedom comes the responsibility to balance freedom and responsibility
effectively; a consideration that we feel was not accommodated in this case (as cited
in UPEI, 2006, par. 5).

Cadre editor Ray Keating told CBC News the student newspaper “didn't print the cartoons to
cause uproar or get publicity” (CBC, 2006a, par. 3-4). Keating said he sympathized “with how offensive
the images are to Muslims [but] the newspaper's staff felt they had to take a stand in favor of freedom
of speech” (CBC, 2006a, par. 3-4). He said that “newspapers have the right to say what they want,
when they want, and regardless of whom they offend” (CBC, 2006a, par. 5).

Wade MacLaughlan, UPEI's president, told CBC: "We still run the property...and we're not in the
business of deliberately inviting people to be insulted to the point of causing an outrage” (CBC, 2006a, par. 7). Despite this justification, Mian Ali, head of UPEI's Muslim Association, was not outraged by the newspaper’s decision and told CBC he wouldn't have asked the administration to pull the copies from campus:

To me it's just a cartoon. People are free to express their opinions. I can't control what people print, but freedom comes with a responsibility. If people want to abuse that responsibility and freedom it's up to them (CBC, 2006a, par. 9).

A year after the “cartoon controversy,” The Cadre editors decided to the end the newspaper's dependence on UPEI's student union. The then Cadre editor Rob Walker told the press he realized about the advantages of becoming an independent publication in the Canadian University Press (see Appendix 1) annual convention: "Simply to allow us to report properly and not have to kind of look over our shoulders" (CBC, 2006b, par. 3).

On March 2007, UPEI Student Union reviewed the independence possibilities of The Cadre. Some members of the student union proposed the relocation of the newspaper to the Student Independent Media Society (ISM), an organization that runs UPEI's student radio station (CBC, 2006b; CBC, 2006c).

The student union approved the proposal, but the editors rejected it, as the ISM planned to cut the newspaper half to half and “reduce its frequency from twice a month to monthly” (CBC, 2006c, par. 3). Walker told CBC: "They're going to essentially just take the Cadre name and the money. "It's not the same paper anymore. You won't have the same people working for it. It won't be the same goals. We don't know whose hands it will rest in, and that's obviously a huge concern for us" (CBC, 2006c, par. 6).

A committee that included representatives from The Cadre, the student union and ISM was formed to discuss the newspaper's future. The committee planned to conclude the discussion on December 2007 (CBC, 2006c). However, until the date of the elaboration of this thesis, The Cadre's situation remained inconclusive. The UPEI Student Union's website featured a banner that read “What
Scotland: The Saint and the “racist” column

In 2004, the student association at St. Andrews University in Scotland locked the editors of SAU student newspaper The Saint out of the newsroom after they published a column that “jokingly accused the Welsh of ‘evil doings’ after a Christian group from Wales protested about a production of the play ‘Corpus Christi’” (Murray-Watson, 2004, par. 2).

Although the Saint is economically and content independent from the university and the student association since 1997, the student association had the authority to close the newspaper for publishing racist comments (Murray-Watson, 2004; The Guardian, 2004).

The column written by Saint's editor Jo Kerr reads, "It's almost beyond belief (apart from the fact that I have secretly suspected the Welsh of evil doings ever since they spawned the caterwauling Charlotte Church)" (as cited in Murray-Watson, 2004, par. 5).

The SAU Student Association send a memo to the university community that said the newspaper was found guilty of breaking equal opportunity rules and being "discriminatory against minority groups" (Murray-Watson, 2004; The Guardian, 2004).

Kerr told The Telegraph: “We apologized profusely. We have made our mistakes but this has been going on for nine months now. It's getting ridiculous” (Murray-Watson, 2004, par. 16).

The staff was told their office would be locked indefinitely. At a Student Union appeal hearing, “The Saint was given permission to use its office once it has signed up to the association's equal opportunities regulations and its staff have undergone diversity awareness training” (Murray-Watson, 2004, par. 18). The training never took place; the staff "still retain full control of our editorial content, despite a few attempts in the last two years to influence them." (Morrison, Personal Communication, 2008).

Iran: The imprisonment of Abed Tavancheh

Abed Tavancheh, a student from the Polytechnic University of Tehran, was referred to by
Reporters Without Borders as a courageous blogger (RSF, 2006). In his blog titled “In the name of man, justice and truth”, Tavancheh posted a letter by imprisoned Iranian lawyer Nasser Zarafshan, “who acted for the families of intellectuals and journalists who were murdered during a crackdown in 1998” (RSF, 2006, par. 6).

Reporters Without Borders reported Tavancheh went missing the same day he posted the letter. Approximately two weeks later, RWB found out the student got in touch with his parents and told them he was held in Evin Prison in Tehran, but gave no further details (RSF, 2006; Tehrani, 2008).

Although he was released on bail on December, 2007, The Revolutionary Courts in Markazi Province sentenced him to eight months in prison on April, 2008 (IHRC, 2008; RSF, 2006; Global Voices, 2008).

Iran’s Human Rights Voice explains, “In recent years it has become common practice to bring a new case against a political prisoner while they are in the middle of serving jail time, and then the revolutionary court attempts to issue a heavy sentence against the political prisoner” (IHRV, 2008, par. 5). According to Iran’s Human Rights Voice, Tavancheh remains imprisoned under harsh conditions (IHRV, 2008).

The student has been attacked and injured by murder convicts because prisoners are not separated according to their crimes (IHRV, 2008). Several international organizations and student groups support Tavencheh and demand his definite release along with other imprisoned Iranian student activists (IHRV, 2008; RSF, 2006; Global Voices, 2008).

**Afghanistan: Death sentence to Sayed Pervez Kambaksh**

In 2008, Balkh University journalism student Sayed Pervez Kambaksh downloaded and distributed a report that “criticized Islamic fundamentalists who misrepresent statements in the Koran to justify the oppression of women” (Zetter, 2008, par. 2).

On October, 2008, after a complaint was filed to Afghan authorities, Kambaksh was detained and accused of blasphemy. He was later sentenced to death by a Sharia court, and was not allowed
legal representation (Zetter, 2008). British newspaper The Independent reported the Afghan Senate passed a motion supporting the sentence. Afghan authorities warned other journalists they would be punish if they expressed support to the student (Sengupta, Starkey, Penketh & Russell, 2008).

People across the world protested against the court's decision. The Independent launched a petition to secure justice for Kambaksh “and a number of support groups have been set up on the social networking site Facebook with more than 400 joining one group alone” (Sengupta, Starkey, Penketh & Russell, 2008, par. 3).

The deputy chief judge of the court that sentenced Kambaksh to death said later to The Independent that the student's legal rights were ignored, especially his right of appeal with legal representation if this had been denied (Sengupta, Starkey, Penketh & Russell, 2008).

Due to international pressures to give Kambaksh a fair trial, Afghanistan President Hamid Karzai promised justice for Kambaksh, but until the date of the elaboration of this thesis, no major changes on the case have been reported (Sengupta, Starkey, Penketh & Russell, 2008).

These examples evidenced that censorship to student journalists can happen in any country regardless of their laws, type of government and cultural context.

Clearly, the forms and magnitudes of censorship vary from country to country, but the intentions are practically the same: silence dissenting ideas. It can be concluded that censorship in this case must be attended differently taking the social, cultural and political context into consideration.

Also, it is important to note that cases of student media censorship have different causes, measures and effects than censorship in corporate media.

Because corporate news media and international human rights nonprofits need to report and attend issues and events of greater magnitude, the creation of an organization that specifically attends and keeps track of these cases is necessary.

Student news outlets are mainly seen as journalism labs, but they are also news media that deliver real information and deal with real sources and audiences. Thus, the organization proposed in
this thesis must focus in two main aspects: the formation of future journalists and the protection of student news outlets from censorship and content control.

The characteristics of student journalism presented in this chapter are based mainly on U.S. student media. However, the censorship cases presented above can provide clues on the similarities and differences of student news outlets worldwide as well as how censorship takes place and for what reasons. The survey results analysis in Chapter 5 offer more characteristics of student news outlets worldwide.

It is important to note that student news outlets do not only train future journalists but future audiences. University students can use the information in their student news outlet to participate in democratic processes in campus and demand authorities to make the right decisions. When they graduate, they will use corporate news media in the same way. Next chapter explains the role of journalism in a democratic society and the situation of freedom of press regions worldwide. It also explains the differences of journalism education models around the world.