This publication – the latest in the UNESCO Series on Journalism Education – is a strategic response to the pedagogical challenges facing journalism education globally, especially in an age of rapid technological evolution. Since the global financial and economic crisis surfaced in 2008, media institutions, particularly in developed countries, have come under pressure to adjust to the new realities. More importantly, however, education systems face a larger task. How do we ensure that journalism education can take on board the multiple and sometimes competing challenges, while simultaneously delivering high-quality journalism education and how it can take such challenges on board, particularly in a strategic rethink of journalism curricula.

Furthermore, this publication is an important step in looking again at the UNESCO Model Curricula for Journalism Education developed in 2007. The piloting of the Model Curricula by some seventy institutions around the world has thrown up even fresher – and perhaps more significant challenges – for journalism education to adapt to. Currently, there is a demand for new and often specialized literacies reflecting a fast-changing social, political, economic and technological order. As a result, contemporary newsrooms and classrooms must not only learn to navigate the treacherous waters of financial and economic sustainability but also – as part of that sustainability agenda – take on board the particular literacies of science communication, data mining, human trafficking, gender, etc. These issues are, among others, the subject matter of the syllabi presented here.
UNESCO Series on Journalism Education

MODEL CURRICULA FOR JOURNALISM EDUCATION
A COMPENDIUM OF NEW SYLLABI

Edited and introduced by
Fackson Banda
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<td>AEJMC</td>
<td>Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication</td>
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<td>AJIC</td>
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<td>African Media Initiative</td>
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<td>Asian Media Information and Communication Centre</td>
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<td>ASEAN</td>
<td>Association of South East Asian Nations</td>
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<td>BNRM</td>
<td>Bureau of the Dutch National Rapporteur on Trafficking in Human Beings and Sexual Violence against Children</td>
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<td>CNPq</td>
<td>Brazilian National Council for Research and Scientific Development</td>
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<td>COP</td>
<td>Conferences of the Parties</td>
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<td>CPJ</td>
<td>Committee to Protect Journalists</td>
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<td>ECREA</td>
<td>European Communication Research and Education Association</td>
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<td>ESRC</td>
<td>Economic and Social Research Council in the United Kingdom</td>
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<td>GMMP</td>
<td>Global Media Monitoring Project</td>
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<td>ILO</td>
<td>International Labour Organization</td>
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<td>IOM</td>
<td>International Organization for Migration</td>
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<td>IPDC</td>
<td>[UNESCO] International Programme for Development of Communication</td>
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<td>IWMF</td>
<td>International Women’s Media Foundation</td>
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<td>JIT</td>
<td>joint investigation team</td>
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<td>LGU</td>
<td>local council owned/funded</td>
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<td>MDGs</td>
<td>Millennium Development Goals</td>
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<td>MMR</td>
<td>mumps–measles–rubella</td>
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<td>MoHE</td>
<td>Ministry of Higher Education</td>
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<td>NGO</td>
<td>non-governmental organization</td>
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<td>New World Information and Communication Order</td>
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<td>OSCE</td>
<td>Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe</td>
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<td>PBL</td>
<td>project-based learning</td>
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<td>PUS</td>
<td>public understanding of science</td>
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<td>SADC</td>
<td>Southern African Development Community</td>
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<td>UNODC</td>
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<td>WAN/IFRA</td>
<td>World Association of Newspapers and News Publishers</td>
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I. FOREWORD

This publication represents an important instalment in our UNESCO Series on Journalism Education. It comes at a time when journalism education globally is undergoing significant changes, especially following the ongoing technological evolution as well as the global financial and economic crisis that surfaced in 2008. Since then, media institutions, particularly in developed countries, have come under pressure to adjust to the new realities. More importantly, however, this new global reality poses important challenges for journalism education and how it can take such challenges on board, particularly in a strategic rethink of journalism curricula. In many ways, this present publication is UNESCO’s response to these challenges, which, if not seriously taken up, will have dire consequences for media practice and journalism education in the developing world.

Furthermore, this publication is an important step in looking again at the UNESCO Model Curricula for Journalism Education developed in 2007. The piloting of the Model Curricula by some seventy journalism training institutions in over sixty countries has thrown up even fresher – and perhaps more significant challenges – for journalism education to adapt to specialized knowledge and skills acquisition. There is a demand for new and often specialized literacies reflecting a fast-changing social, political, economic and technological order. As a result, contemporary newsrooms and classrooms must not only learn to navigate the treacherous waters of financial and economic sustainability but also – as part of that sustainability agenda – take on board the particular literacies of science communication, data mining, human trafficking, gender, etc. These issues are, among others, the subject matter of the syllabi presented here.

Finally, it is important to acknowledge the fact that each of the syllabi that make up this compendium represents UNESCO’s outreach to build issue-based strategic partnerships with key journalism education experts and media development institutions globally. The authors agreed to prepare the syllabi at no cost to UNESCO, knowing that their intellectual and scholarly efforts represented
a major contribution towards redefining the global vision for journalism education. For this, UNESCO will remain indebted to them.

Janis Karklins
Assistant director-general for communication and information,
UNESCO
II. INTRODUCTION
Fackson Banda

This compendium of new syllabi represents UNESCO’s strategic response to the question: How can journalism education continue to renew itself? This is the question that the Third World Journalism Education Congress (WJEC-3) posed to its delegates. There are two aspects to this question. The first recognizes the historical trajectories through which journalism education has evolved. The second is a call to renegotiate the future trajectory of journalism education.

These questions are framed in an increasingly complex social, political and economic context. In the aftermath of the 2008 global economic and financial crisis, journalism faced its most trying moment, especially in the developed world. And so did journalism education, posing challenges for the future. As Howard Finberg noted during a speech to the European Journalism Centre (EJC), ‘We need to innovate inside the classroom with new forms of teaching. We need to innovate to make getting a journalism education easier’ (2012). Partly in response to this call for innovation, Dane S. Claussen points to an important study by the Carnegie Corporation of New York, which concluded that US journalism needed, among other things, analytical thinkers with a strong ethical sense, as well as journalism skills, specialized expertise, including insights into medicine, economics and other complex topics, and first-hand knowledge of societies, languages, religions and cultures (Claussen, 2012).

Such a role of journalism, incorporating different strands of knowledge, is clearly recognized globally, beyond the United States of America (USA). For example, as Berger and Foote [2013] note, genuine university training in journalism is not only a practice within the rubric of academic freedom, it should (and often does) operate to promote freedom of expression rights and access to journalistic skills and platforms to gain such rights. Another journalism education-related freedom is the freedom to use the learning provided. Journalism skill sets are easily transferable to other fields. In some cases, students study journalism with no intention to enter the profession. Instead they learn high-level information and
communication skills to further their liberal arts studies or to pursue a related profession.

Another trend worth mentioning is the shift towards greater understanding of the conditions under which journalism education can be effective, taking into account the fact that journalism education is indeed on the increase, despite the challenges that it is facing. As Berger and Foote observe, the explosive growth of global journalism education has also attracted private sector involvement. In many regions worldwide, and especially in developing countries, commercial entities have entered the fray, although this emerging type of journalism education has sometimes been susceptible to criticism based on quality issues and the possible exploitation of students. In the 1980s, the Asian media boom and its corresponding increase in private media created increased demand for formal journalism education in many countries in the region. In the 1990s, there was considerable journalism education growth in the Middle East and Africa. And by 2000, university-level journalism education courses were nearly universal. Indeed, in China and India, journalism education programmes continue to proliferate at a mind-numbing rate. Citing a census of journalism education started in 2007 by the World Journalism Education Council (WJEC), Berger and Foote (2013) report that nearly 3,000 global programmes were registered on the census database, with the bulk of these programmes spread fairly evenly between North America, Europe and Asia.

This growth is in a response to a bullish educational market. As a Knight Foundation study report concludes:

- Fully 85 percent of the journalists surveyed say they would benefit greatly or very greatly from more training and staff development.

- International journalists, mostly Latin American distance-learning alumni of the Knight Center at the University of Texas, were more likely to say they would benefit from additional training. Nine in 10 said they would benefit greatly or very greatly.

- Even among U.S. journalists, the rate of great and very great benefit was 75 percent. This shows growing demand from the 2002 Newsroom Training survey, when only 54 percent of journalists said they would benefit a lot from training.
Overall, only 3 percent of the journalists surveyed see little or no benefit in training, or say they just don’t know. There is almost total agreement – 97 percent of the respondents – that training would benefit them in some way, with half saying they would receive very great benefit.

(McLellan and Newton, 2012)

With such mushrooming journalism programmes globally, the need for quality cannot be overemphasized. As Berger and Foote argue, the ultimate goal of journalism education, regardless of its provider, is to empower not only the student but journalism itself. In other words, the quality of journalism education is supposed to have an impact on the quality of citizenship and society. Journalism education educates not only practitioners, but the public as well. This goal suggests a significant role for journalism educators: to serve media industry interests as a means toward the greater goal of serving the public, and to also directly promote news literacy (Berger and Foote, 2013).

To this end, through UNESCO, 195 Member States set and promote press freedom standards appropriate to free, independent and pluralistic media – online and offline. A key part of that mandate consists in building the capacities of such media institutions, especially in a fast-changing technological context with new challenges to freedom of expression. The development of the UNESCO Model Curricula – which provide frameworks for these specialized syllabi – is thus an attempt by UNESCO to set standards based on good practice internationally, as a resource on which stakeholders around the world can draw in order to improve the quality of journalism education in their countries. The effort derives from a conviction that professional journalistic standards are essential to a media system that can foster democracy, dialogue and development. By improving the quality of journalism education, UNESCO believes that both journalism educators and students stand a better chance of influencing journalistic production at the news-institutional level. In turn, newsrooms that are staffed by well-trained and critically minded journalists are likely to positively influence the processes of democracy and development in their societies, especially in the developing world. A quality journalism education is a guarantor not only of democracy and development, but also of press freedom itself.
Against this background, then, this compendium brings together ten specialized syllabi, some of which drew their inspiration from two separate intellectual engagements with the UNESCO Model Curriculum:

▶ a preconference workshop on 8 August 2012 in Chicago at the Convention of the Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication (AEJMC) under the theme ‘Teaching Journalism in Developing Countries and Emerging Democracies: The Case of UNESCO’s Model Curricula’;

▶ An UNESCO special panel on ‘Universalizing journalism education? An interrogation of UNESCO’s Evolving contribution to the field’ held on 27 September in Istanbul alongside the Fourth European Communication Conference of the European Communication Research and Education Association (ECREA).

The Model Curricula were launched in 2007 at the first World Journalism Education Congress (WJEC-1) convened in Singapore. By the end of 2012, they had been adapted by at least seventy journalism schools in sixty countries in diverse linguistic, social and cultural contexts.

Since 2007, UNESCO has attempted to evaluate the relevance impact of the Model Curricula on the quality of journalism education globally, taking into account the particular national and institutional contexts of their application. The two academic panels referred to above (in Chicago and Istanbul) are good examples of the forms such an evaluative exercise has taken. Taken together, UNESCO’s evaluative attempts offer a threefold analytical framework for envisioning journalism education in the future. Key ingredients in this framework are (i) the academic culture of journalism education globally; (ii) the contextual applications of the Model Curricula and their implications for the future; and (iii) a search for new specialized syllabi to incorporate emerging issues.

The global academic culture of journalism education

An important issue here is the place of journalism in the broad academic culture of the university, something that pertains to its theoretical and research credentials, and also how these relate to its practical dimension and to the place of such hands-on activity within the academy. During the first 2005 consultative
meeting in Paris involving experts in journalism education, it was agreed that in
the best of circumstances, a journalism curriculum – not to mention its faculty
and students – should nest comfortably within the intellectual and academic
culture of the university and be invigorated by it. So the initial discussion of the
curricula included a thorough review of the frustrations as well as the successes
of journalism educators, and it included much talk about ‘journalism’ as
opposed to ‘media’ or ‘mass communication’, as the core subject of a proposed
programme [see Banda and Schmitz Weiss, 2013].

This discussion was happening at a time when some countries were undergoing
their own reforms in the way they approached journalism education. For example,
in October 2005 the Brazilian National Council for Research and Scientific
Development (CNPq), a national academic funding agency, updated the key
areas of scientific knowledge. As Sonia Virginia Moreira argued, this educational
policy reform resulted in the confirmation of journalism as a field of research in
communication, to emphasize the theoretical aspect of journalism. For its part,
communication was already treated as an integral subject area of applied social
science, with emphasis on the practical aspects directly linked to industry. After
several debates involving professors and researchers, representatives of the
main scientific societies signed a final document which defined six sub-areas
of knowledge in communication: cyber culture and communication technology;
audiovisual communication; movies, radio and television; organizational
communication, public relations and advertising; mediation and communicational
interfaces; and theories of communication. Nine journalism areas of expertise
were included on the list – Brazilian, communitarian, scientific, digital, business,
specialized, online, segmented and rural – in addition to three topics related to the
field: history of editing, the press and journalism [Banda and Schmitz Weiss, 2013].

Of course, such a policy reform had its own problems, including the fact that
journalism courses were henceforth required to be taught by degree or diploma
holders and not what Moreira calls ‘journalist-professors’. This requirement
meant that many of the professionals from industry were prevented from
continuing to teach in the universities. Thankfully, there was also a group of
young professionals in the 1980s who had migrated from the newsroom to the
classroom. Many of them became involved with journalism and/or communication
research, and were thus better able to transition to teaching theoretical aspects of
journalistic practice in addition to the practice itself, and to integrate the two sides of the coin as well.

Still, the main paradox faced by Brazilian journalism educators, as a result of the policy reform above, was the requirement for training courses to be better equipped in order to reproduce the professional environment in so-called ‘laboratories’, as the academy had lost its link to the newsroom, previously represented informally in the courses by the journalist-professor model of instruction. Today, the bridge between media organizations and the academic world is yet the subject of a complex reconstruction – a topic that the UNESCO Model Curricula had partly addressed through emphasis on student internships.

This Brazilian case illustrates a global trend in efforts to make journalism a legitimate and respected field of study within the university context. This is clearly demonstrated by the Principles of Journalism Education declared at WJEC-1 in Singapore in 2007. Among the eleven principles is the following attestation:

We are unanimous that journalism education provides the foundation as theory, research, and training for the effective and responsible practice of journalism. Journalism education is defined in different ways. At the core is the study of all types of journalism.

Journalism should serve the public in many important ways, but it can only do so if its practitioners have mastered an increasingly complex body of knowledge and specialized skills. Above all, to be a responsible journalist must involve an informed ethical commitment to the public. This commitment must include an understanding of and deep appreciation for the role that journalism plays in the formation, enhancement and perpetuation of an informed society.

[WJEC, 2008]

The Principles are unequivocal in stressing that ‘at the heart of journalism education is a balance of conceptual, philosophical and skills-based content. While it is also interdisciplinary, journalism education is an academic field in its own right with a distinctive body of knowledge and theory.’ The Principles further reiterate that ‘journalism is a field appropriate for university study from undergraduate to postgraduate levels. Journalism programmes offer a full range
of academic degrees including bachelors, masters and Doctor of Philosophy degrees as well as certificate, specialized and mid-career training.’ In this regard, it is worth noting what was concluded in a report of a discussion on the ‘Ultimate Journalism Education’ convened at WJEC-2 in South Africa in 2010: ‘Journalism, on its own, does not constitute enough of substance to make up a full three or four-year degree program. Journalism education needs to draw on, interact with and contribute to other forms of knowledge in the university’ (Nordenstreng, 2010).

The Principles also highlight that ‘journalism educators should be a blend of academics and practitioners; it is important that educators have experience working as journalists’.

The above observations were a point of further discussion in Istanbul. In her presentation, Dr Incilay Cangöz, a Turkish associate professor at Anadolu University, noted that any journalism curricula needed to reflect the constantly changing demands of the media industry while focusing on larger political and social issues. On the other hand, her Spanish counterpart, Professor Pilar Carrera of Universidad Carlos III de Madrid, challenged the notion of an ‘interdisciplinary’ journalism education, arguing that journalism education needed to be recognized by academia as a ‘strong, focused and autonomous journalistic field’ (Banda and Schmitz Weiss, 2013).

These views, together with the main lines of the UNESCO Model Curricula, constitute a synthesis of the substantive content of journalism education according to what could be called the ‘WJEC philosophy’ (Nordenstreng, 2010). Arguably, such a philosophy regards journalism as a social practice whose knowledge and skills base is interdisciplinary in nature. As such, it can easily be located in an academic context, where it can draw upon other disciplines while preserving its professional autonomy. Here, a vital distinction to make is that the presenters were concerned about the practice of journalism in institutional settings, as opposed to non-institutional or non-professional settings, such as the blogosphere (as with citizen journalism). Such a ‘professionalized’ perspective of journalism (highlighting for instance issues of public interest, accuracy and verifiability) continues to be an important consideration in discussions of the Model Curricula. This is because journalism education at institutions of higher learning is still seen and valued as a process by which students become critically aware of the professional ethics that inform the practice of journalism, including
the institutional constraints that are placed on such journalistic practices. At the same time, such professional standards are relevant to assessing whether particular extra-institutional mass communication counts as journalism. Concomitantly, they are relevant to journalism education for non-professionals, such as courses serving volunteers in community radio settings, and participants engaging in user-generated content on websites.

The contextualized applications of the UNESCO Model Curricula and their implications for the future

One of the key challenges facing UNESCO in serving an international constituency is in developing curriculum resources that are representative of a diversity of national and regional experiences, and which afford adaptation in a range of circumstances. This challenge is amplified by the need to also respond to the global unevenness as regards wider changes in both media and education. The Istanbul panel in particular deliberated on these wider issues of the ‘universalizing’ project in journalism education by critically scrutinizing two of UNESCO’s draft new syllabi – on data journalism and media sustainability. Both syllabi are contained in this present compendium.

In this vein, some scholars have legitimately and rightly questioned whether the UNESCO model curriculum design can be ‘universal’. For example, Dr Kim Sawchuk of Concordia University, speaking during the Istanbul UNESCO special panel, pointed out that she was ‘suspicious of the term and notion of the universal’, calling for a pedagogical ‘negotiation’ in journalism. She called on her counterparts to ‘create journalism programmes that work from the particularities of the locale and are sensitive to that locale’ (cited in Banda and Schmitz Weiss, 2013).

However, part of the problem could be resolved by putting the concept of a ‘model’ in its proper social-scientific methodological perspective as a tool for making sense of the complexity of journalism education as practised in different locales. To this end, we can cite Michael Pool (2007, p. 22), who observes that:

An important criterion for the choice of a model is its likely fruitfulness in generating further insights. Models have:

- Positive features – ways in which the two are alike.
Negative features – ways in which the two are unlike.
Neutral features – ones that are neither obviously positive or negative.

Citing Mary Hesse, Pool reminds us that ‘we do not know how far the comparison extends – it is precisely in its extension that the fruitfulness of the model may lie’ (2007, p. 22).

In short, a model will not resemble that of which it is a model in every respect. Therefore, the UNESCO Model Curricula should perhaps best be seen as an abstraction, with the clear concomitant implication that their application would not (and should not) match every conceivable national context of application. They would resemble such a context either positively, negatively or neutrally, following Pool’s explanation above.

Where the Curricula have been potentially positive to a context, their adaptation in a local condition has been relatively seamless, accompanied perhaps by minor adjustments. Where they have been negative, but nevertheless still aspirational, they have been more heavily adjusted to suit the local context, particularly in situations where training institutions have organizational and infrastructural inadequacies (for instance, in Iraq) (Pavlik et al., 2012). Thus, as Rukhsana Aslam of the Pacific Media Centre observes, although there is little to disagree on regarding the broad principles of the Model Curricula, their adaptation to Pacific countries is mainly constrained by the availability of relevant human expertise, availability of resources and a positive environment, resulting in Pacific journalism training institutions not strictly following the UNESCO guidelines but reflecting them to varying degrees (Aslam, 2012).

Arguably, the more pessimistic criticisms of the Model Curricula have generally focused more on their negative (non-congruent) aspects, although in fairness even these negative aspects are a valuable source of empirical data which is informing their updating. Furthermore, such criticisms have overly simplified the contextual differences between and among countries. For example, to assume, as Eric Freedman and Richard Shafer do, that adapting the Model Curricula will result in students who are ‘overqualified for low-paid domestic journalism jobs that are available, although they may be good candidates for employment by government or business’, is to hold a static view of developing countries and emerging democracies. Many such countries have clear aspirations and potential for an educational and organizational shift to top-notch, cutting-edge, quality journalism
education. And contrary to developed countries, the job situation is improving rather than declining in many cases (Freedman and Shafer, 2010).

In fact, the very introduction of the UNESCO-designated potential centres of excellence and reference in journalism in Africa was predicated on the idea that it was possible to cultivate modern journalism schools within Africa that could generate high-quality graduates of the type envisaged by the Model Curricula (Berger and Matras, 2007). An underlying assumption, ignored by such critics, is that there are educational standards to which all countries aspire and that the Model Curricula serve as an embodiment of such standards. Such a theory of change is clearly what is driving many media development actors across the continent (Susman-Peña, 2012).

In addition, such criticisms are rebutted in part by the increasing number of countries turning to the Model Curricula as an important resource for their own curriculum redesigns. By 2011, a number of journalism education/training institutions in Afghanistan, China, Guyana, Iran, Jamaica, Lesotho, Mauritius, Mexico, Mongolia, Pakistan, Rwanda, South Africa and Tanzania had either adapted, or were in the process of adapting, the Model Curricula. Gabon, Congo, Uzbekistan and Myanmar have also expressed interest in adapting them. As indicated above, UNESCO records some seventy journalism training institutions in over sixty countries having adapted the Model Curricula. By 16 May 2012, the UNESCO web site had registered 12,223 downloads of the publication, across the following linguistic platforms: English, Arabic, Chinese, French, Portuguese, Russian, Spanish, and Nepali (Banda and Schmitz Weiss, 2013).

There are also many in-country training institutions actively using the Model Curricula as a resource for their curriculum reviews. For example, by the end of 2012, during a curriculum development and harmonization capacity-building workshop co-organized by the University of Lagos, University of Ibadan and Lagos State Polytechnic with financial support from UNESCO’s International Programme for Development of Communication (IPDC), eleven more journalism training institutions in Nigeria made commitments to adjust their pedagogical practices in line with the Model Curricula. They included Lagos State University, Moshood Abiola Polytechnic, Redeemer’s University, University of Nigeria and Covenant University. The rest were Times Journalism Institute, International Institute of Journalism, Ahmadu Bello University, Pan African University, Yaba College of Technology and Al-Hikma University (UNESCO, 2012).
It is also important to consider that such criticisms ignore the fact that the Model Curricula serve to identify curricular gaps *both* in the developing and *developed* countries – gaps which seem to reinforce the significance of specialized reporting of the complexities of those societies. For example, after reviewing the Model Curricula in the context of journalism education curricula in the United States, Claussen concluded, among other things, that:

- **Model Curricula** several times refers to the importance of journalism students having ‘knowledge’ of journalism’s ‘role in developing and securing democracy,’ a focus of efforts by Jeremy Cohen, the late Cole Campbell, and various individuals identified with civic, public, citizen and/or community journalism, and yet another wakeup call when one notes how few U.S. journalism students seem to have any interest at all in covering politics and/or government.

- An international and development journalism syllabus, by Brazil’s Sonia Virginia Moreira, requires students to read UNESCO’s International Principles of Professional Ethics in Journalism. Here in the United States, where almost none of the media ethics textbooks or monographs bother to reprint even the Society of Professional Journalists Code of Ethics, let alone other professional groups’, who would know that such a document existed?

- The politics and government reporting syllabus, written by Argentina’s Jorge Liotti for university seniors, reminds us that in U.S. journalism education we don’t spend much time on the *full* spectrum of ‘interest groups, other sources of power,’ which Liotti lists as: ‘Armed Forces, trade unions, religious organizations, private companies, NGOs. Nonformal groups of pressure: terrorists, guerrillas, drug and weapon dealers, demonstrators, activists, picketers …. Seminar: Challenges of reporting and writing in a hostile environment.’ Terrorists, guerrillas, and drug dealers might not have much power as political interest groups in the United States or as in some other countries, but not so the others.

(Claussen, 2007)

It is worth re-emphasizing that the Model Curricula were an international project, involving scholars from Australia, Benin, Bulgaria, Canada, Denmark, Finland, France, Ghana, India, Lebanon, Morocco, Qatar, Singapore, South Africa and the USA, while scholars from most of those countries and others wrote and/or
reviewed various drafts (Claussen, 2007). Each expert thus brought their unique sociocultural perspective in a project that sought to unify such perspectives in a shared journalism education curriculum design from which all countries could learn something.

Against this background, then, several lessons have emerged over the years about how the Model Curricula have been adapted to suit the local context. In the Asian case, for example, the Asian Media Information and Communication Centre (AMIC), a long-time UNESCO partner, used free online tools like Google Translate to address the need to translate the Model Curriculum into regional languages like Hindi, Thai Malay and Indonesian, among others. Naturally, if this were to be replicated on a larger scale, a more systematic translation process would be necessary, but it was a step towards disseminating knowledge resources more widely. In addition, AMIC sought to add local resource materials that are different but relevant to each country and in-country region. A related issue was AMIC encouraging institutions to allocate more resources and provide support for infrastructure and retraining in order to effectively adapt the Model Curricula.

In the Iraqi context, representing a conflict/postconflict environment, an adaptive, instructional approach was used, offering the journalism educators and policy-makers there an opportunity to choose from a menu of strategic and professional recommendations arising from a series of consultations between international experts and Iraqi journalism educators and policy-makers. The strategic recommendations of this UNESCO-supported process included:

- Offering elective courses in both Iraq and the Kurdish region to provide students with the opportunity of choice. That is, students in Baghdad should have as a choice the opportunity to study Kurdish history and culture, while students in Sulaimaniya should have the choice of studying the history of Iraq as an elective. This would help lessen the gap between the regions by promoting cultural understanding and acceptance and, ultimately, reconciliation;

- The need for the Ministry of Higher Education (MoHE) to reconsider its stance on the use of distance education technology and implement elements of online course instruction throughout Iraqi higher education. This would allow for education for all, especially in remote areas, and would help resolve space and logistical constraints while placing Iraq and KRG in the modern educational sphere;
The need for the curriculum department in the MoHE to launch a professional development programme that would enable its members to identify and define needs, propose change and development, and collaborate with the global academic communities.

Professional recommendations bordered on the need for enhanced collaboration between training institutions and the industry. To that end, it was recommended that media professionals – both inside and outside Iraq – should be called upon to provide industry insight to students as guest speakers and expert mentors, thus enhancing communication skills and exchange of knowledge and experience. Another recommendation was that student internships should be encouraged and supported more fully by university administrators. Public–private sector partnerships should be developed to promote internships, guest speaker activities, job shadowing, interviews and project-based learning (PBL).

In addition, as a special innovation to the UNESCO Model Curricula, the proposed curriculum for Iraq included a virtual foreign correspondent internship programme for students in Iraq. This pioneering programme would be among the first of its kind in the world for an emerging democracy, and would be an opportunity for students and news-gathering organizations to transcend the travel difficulties into and out of Iraq with valuable learning experiences that could produce valuable news coverage. The Iraqi students would serve as interns with out-of-Iraq news media, but from inside Iraq (Pavlik et al., 2012).

In search of specialized journalistic literacies

As Gordon Stuart Adam observes, the Appendix to the UNESCO Model Curricula has a rich collection of syllabi, which organize some of the well-recognized thinking in journalism education by some of its most-respected professors. Considered alongside the main report, which provides a basic curricular blueprint, the Appendix provides a powerful step into the content and organization of journalism studies. It does this with a measured flexibility. The various syllabi are open-ended, and can and should be adapted to cultural realities and local conditions. In the meantime, they provide a window into pedagogical method (Banda and Schmitz Weiss, 2013).
In this vein, UNESCO is continually taking action to expand on the range of syllabi to reflect the diversity of journalism practices. This has taken the form of modularizing specialized journalistic literacies, ranging from media sustainability, data journalism, intercultural journalism and community journalism to global journalism – which form the thematic fulcrum of this compendium. In developing these modules, UNESCO has been partially addressing the scholarly critique of the Model Curricula, and updating them in relation to specific sociocultural circumstances, based on critical assessment and reflection (Nordenstreng, 2010). As such, these specialized literacies extend the Model Curricula to include new syllabi covering emerging or particularly relevant themes in journalism education globally.

Such syllabi have a common thread running through them: journalism must respond to the context in which it is taught, practised and researched. As a consequence, they help to extend our theoretical understanding of journalism as a responsive, dynamic and evolving practice, and thus are a significant new step beyond the Model Curricula. Journalism education is an important vehicle through which the individual and institutional practices of journalists improve. By thus highlighting new areas of teaching that are often under-theorized and under-practised in the media, UNESCO is helping to expand the bounds of knowledge and skills of journalism teachers and practitioners and setting the agenda for cutting-edge journalistic practice.

As an attempt to cultivate a truly `universal` appeal for such syllabi – a lesson all so frequently referenced in our evaluation of the UNESCO Model Curricula – the following guidelines were provided for the authors contributing to this compendium:

- The syllabus should highlight case studies or examples from as wide a range of countries as possible, ensuring especially the inclusion of developing country instances. Online and free resources are especially encouraged;

- The syllabus should include bibliographic reference materials from a wide variety of national contexts, again not neglecting developing countries;

- The idea informing the two guidelines above is to (i) enhance the global utility of the syllabi, and (ii) broaden the horizons of each national application as regards knowledge of practice in other countries;

- The syllabus should be as gender-sensitive as possible, particularly in its use of language;
The syllabus should be flexibly written so that it can appeal to a wide range of audiences, including journalism educators, media professionals, policy-makers and the general public.

To sum up: the syllabi herein contained make a case for envisioning journalism education as a constantly changing practice of a particular type of communication in the public interest. In particular, they signal the ongoing debate about the academic positioning of journalism education globally, the contextual applications of the UNESCO Model Curricula and their implications for the future, and the continuing search for new specialized syllabi that respond organically to a plethora of emerging societal issues. With regard to the first issue, there appears to be ongoing healthy debate on how journalism education continues to feed off and into other better established academic disciplines. For their part, the various national adaptations of the Model Curricula have shown their value, and have arguably helped contribute in part to the establishment of journalism education as an effective contributor to the promotion of free, independent and pluralistic media. Even so, calls for updating the Model Curricula continue to reshape – and thus revitalize – their contributions by making them respond to emerging issues through the development of more specialized syllabi. The international experiences in all this are part of what UNESCO calls the ‘knowledge society’, and they continue to strengthen the place of journalism education within changing global and local contexts.
III. USER’S GUIDE AND OVERVIEW OF SYLLABI

How can these syllabi be used? In many ways, the utilization of these syllabi is heuristic, with users bringing their own experiences to the process. As with the UNESCO Model Curricula themselves, these specialized syllabi are not a prescription; rather, they can be adapted to suit particular national and/or institutional contexts of teaching and learning. While efforts have been made to ensure they have an international appeal, there are invariably still limitations. With this in mind, the following are possible ways to use the syllabi:

▶ **As a teaching resource to supplement an already existing course:** Some institutions already have courses and/or modules on the subjects addressed in these syllabi. In that case, the syllabi could be used as a further resource. Many of the readings suggested may easily be recommended for existing courses;

▶ **As a new stand-alone module to be introduced into any training programme:** Where such areas are absent, any one of these syllabi could be used as an innovation to introduce or integrate into existing programmes new subject areas that could enrich the overall knowledge and skills set of students;

▶ **As a training manual:** Any journalism trainer may wish to adapt these syllabi for their own purposes, relying on the lists of recommended readings they present;

▶ **As a reading resource for practising journalists:** Practising journalists can find the readings, especially those that are readily available online, listed in these syllabi useful for their own intellectual enrichment and professional practice.

More importantly, the syllabi themselves expand upon these suggested methods of deployment, in addition to including more choices for users. The list of contributors at the end of the book includes email addresses to facilitate easy contact, in case you wish to initiate discussion with them.
This compendium consists of specialized syllabi, as an attempt to reflect the diversity of journalistic practice. The syllabi include those relating to:

- media sustainability
- data journalism
- intercultural journalism
- community radio journalism
- global journalism
- science journalism, incorporating bioethics
- gender and journalism
- humanitarian journalism
- reporting human trafficking
- safety and journalism.

Clearly, all these respond to specific human needs. The global financial and economic crisis of 2008 resulted in a realignment of media formations, with many in the developed countries migrating to online publishing as a way of reducing the costs associated with production. Although this phenomenon has not particularly affected the developing world, it signals a possible scenario, clearly making it necessary for journalism educators to rethink existing models of sustainability. For example, India’s newspapers, such as the *Times of India*, registered an upswing in their circulation while their Western counterparts continued to deteriorate in their circulation (Firstpost, 2012). But even in the West, the picture is actually not so clear-cut. For example, the *Economist* magazine has generally registered growth in its circulation (Mark, 2012). In itself, this raises questions about the quality of the journalistic content, and the extent to which it addresses the informational needs of audiences. It is possible that, in the wake of the financial crisis, many people would want to read independent economic analyses in order to make better informed choices about their economic futures. So there is a lesson here to be learned about how media ought to respond in times of great need – a lesson that journalism educators would do well to learn fast.

Data journalism extends investigative journalism to include how data – both quantitative and qualitative – can be processed to answer fundamental investigative questions in journalistic practice. The near ubiquity of digital information now available renders data journalism a professional reality for many
journalists, opening up new possibilities when it is combined with the traditional “nose for news” and ability to tell a compelling story’ (Gray et al., 2013).

Intercultural journalism, for its part, is underpinned by the 2001 UNESCO Declaration on Cultural Diversity and the 2005 Convention on the Protection and Promotion of the Diversity of Cultural Expressions. It inculcates the kind of intercultural competence required to handle stories in a culturally diverse manner, enabling journalists to acquire skills of interaction and discovery that promote acquisition of new knowledge of cultural practices and the ability to use them to operate under constraints of real-time communication and collaboration (see e.g. Davis et al., 2005).

Community radio journalism builds upon the premise and promise of participatory communication, seeing journalism as an emancipatory practice in which poor and marginalized communities have their voices amplified through radio against the background of the professional routines of conventional journalism which often privilege the powerful in society. It also recognizes the near ubiquity of the radio medium, especially in the developing world.

Global journalism extends the idea of community into a nexus of global and local relationships in which journalism is implicated. As a living practice, journalists must have a broad and critical understanding of the principles and practice of journalism on a global platform, while being responsive to the local realities.

Science journalism is a key part of what is generally referred to as the popularization of the public understanding of science. Recognizing its educational, democratic and developmental potential, science journalism has become a key part of journalistic practice, finding major support among members of the World Federation of Science Journalists (WFSJ) (see e.g. WFSJ, 2013) and other such networks of specialist media practitioners. An important part of such public understanding of science must be the ability by citizens, including journalists, to monitor, make use of, and critically assess scientific knowledge, hence the incorporation of bioethics in this particular syllabus.

Gender and journalism highlights the importance of gendered analysis in journalistic practice. Informed by UNESCO’s Global Priority Gender Equality, this syllabus is an attempt at teaching how journalists can use gender as an analytical framework for understanding, researching and presenting news stories. All
too often, the voices of women are inadvertently silenced in the news content, rendering them passive and voiceless. As a study by the International Women’s Media Foundation (IWMF) found out, there were glass ceilings for women in twenty of the fifty-nine countries studied, commonly visible in middle and senior management positions. Slightly more than half of the companies sampled had an established company-wide policy on gender equity, ranging from 16 per cent of such companies in Eastern Europe to 69 per cent in western and sub-Saharan Africa (see e.g. IWMF, 2010). Such studies reinforce the need to incorporate gender into journalism education, signalling the fact that, while the findings above do not suggest that women have failed to advance in both number and occupational status in recent years, women are still lacking adequate access to the journalism profession in many newsrooms across the globe.

Humanitarian journalism recognizes the centrality of human rights in reporting, especially in conflict or post-conflict situations. As such, this syllabus aims to equip students with conceptual knowledge and practical skills relating to the role of the journalist – as a duty bearer – in the promotion and protection of human rights in times of peace or crisis.

Anti-human trafficking and journalism extends the idea of humanitarian journalism to the scourge of human trafficking. As a form of investigative journalism, it also places human rights at the centre of human trafficking, with a special focus on women and children.

Safety and journalism go hand in glove. Journalists need to practise their craft safely. As a result, they need a firm understanding of the national, regional and international safeguards available to them. They also need a special grounding in the practicalities of playing it safe as they go about their trade. A related issue is one of advocacy to news media institutions themselves to provide a degree of protection within their means – as well as to policy-makers to provide a policy and legal environment in which impunity will be punished as a deterrent to would-be offenders. In part, this syllabus is a direct response to the UN Plan of Action on the Safety of Journalists which UNESCO coordinates.
References to Parts I to III


IV. SYLLABI

These are model syllabi that are offered in the expectation that they will be adapted to local and national conditions. Each syllabus contains ideas, methods and material that may serve as inspiration to other teachers and planners.
Media sustainability is concerned with the factors needed for independent media to develop, flourish, and endure so they can make contributions to the benefit of society. Key factors of sustainability are the capability to maintain operations by creating self-generating revenue streams, effective governance and management of the media enterprise, and promotion of journalistic and media professionalism. Other factors are more systemic, and are affected by government and society, such as a functioning economy, protections of free expression, and governmental transparency. This course explores the factors in sustainability and examines what those starting and working in media need to be concerned about and what they can do to improve the sustainability of their operations. The course is designed to provide students a clear understanding of the conditions that need to be pursued to make media sustainable.
**Level of course:** Final year bachelor’s degree/master’s level.

**Mode:** Lectures, seminar discussions and activities.

**Pedagogical approach or method:** The course is designed to give students a realistic understanding of the environments in which media organizations operate and to help students assess sustainability challenges and identify strategies for overcoming them. It will be best taught using lectures, case discussions, role playing, readings and activities with visiting professionals. Because it is designed to engage students in exploring how the challenges manifest themselves and what journalists and media operators are doing to cope with and overcome them, the course includes weekly assignments that investigate how the factors of sustainability are affecting media industries and specific media and what journalists and managers are doing about them.

**Number of hours per week:** three hours of class time; two hours of reading and research.

**Course description:** This eight-week course is designed to explore these fundamental issues and reveal the responsibility of journalists and media firms to improve the environment in which they operate and to engage in strategies and practices that promote sustainability. It recognizes differences among nations, governments, roles of media, sizes of media enterprises, and journalism cultures and practices, and focuses on underlying commonalities and needs.

**Grading and assessment protocols**

Seminar discussion participation: 20 per cent  
Class assignments: 50 per cent  
Final exam: 30 per cent.

**Required resources:** computers with internet access to readings and researching contemporary challenges to sustainability.
Course outline

**Week 1: Introduction to media sustainability**

Topics: What is media sustainability? Why is it important? What roles do media, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), and others play in pursuing it? Fundamental requirements of sustainability: technology; audience; relative absence of economic, governmental and social constraints; how sustainability is linked to media development.

Seminar discussion and activity: What factors present the greatest sustainability challenges to media in the students’ country? After identifying issues, break the students into groups, assign them a challenge, and have them jointly produce and share with others a two- or three-page report showing why and how the challenge affects sustainability.

Assignment: Two-page report on how the economy, technology, and audience influence sustainability of a particular medium (newspapers, magazines, radio, television, digital media) in a selected country.


**Week 2: Governmental factors in sustainability**

Topics: How regulation and laws promote or hinder development and sustainability of independent media. Why do freedom of expression and government transparency affect sustainability? How does licensing and registration of media and journalists affect sustainability, and how can it be done in a fair manner? How does the government response to attacks on journalists and media affect sustainability? Why do some libel laws make media unsustainable? Can international standards that define legitimate limitations on the media affect media growth? What place is there for government direct or indirect subsidy, and how can this be reconciled with independence?
Seminar discussion and activity: What governmental factors present the greatest sustainability challenges to media in the students’ country? After identifying factors, break the students into groups, assign them one of the factors, and have them jointly produce and share with others a two- to three-page report showing why and how the factor affects sustainability.

Assignment: Two-page report on how a particular governmental factor influences media sustainability in a particular country.


Week 3: Sustainability of community media

Topics: What are ‘community media’? What role do they play in communities? What kinds of factors distinguish them from purely commercial operations in terms of sustainability? What unique sustainability challenges do they face?

Seminar discussion and activity: What advantages and disadvantages do community media have when dealing with the fundamental factors in media sustainability? After identifying the advantages/disadvantages, break the students into groups, assign them an advantage or disadvantage, and have them jointly produce and share with others a two- to three-page report showing why and how the factor affects sustainability.

Assignment: Two-page report on the sustainability challenges facing a particular community media operation in the students’ country.


Week 4: Making media startups sustainable

Topics: What sustainability issues should concern those establishing digital media enterprises? What is the nature of entrepreneurship? How do you connect with audiences and create communities? How do you avoid the failure problems of many young companies? What, then, is the place of ‘entrepreneurial journalism’?
Seminar discussion: What kinds of financing and cost arrangements do you need when starting a digital media operation and how do you fund its operations for the initial eighteen to twenty-four months? After identifying financial and cost issues, break the students into groups, assign them one of the arrangements, and have them jointly produce and share with others a two- to three-page report showing why and how the arrangement affects sustainability.

Assignment: Interview (in person, telephone, or by email) the manager of a relatively young media organization about the challenges it has encountered in starting up and keeping alive. Write a two-page report based on the interview.

Readings: J-Lab [n.d.a, n.d.b], Poynter Institute [n.d].

**Week 5: Roles of management and governance in sustainability**

Topics: Why creating the capability to continue operations must be the primary task of those leading a media enterprise. What sustainability issues should concern a manager? What is the role of directors of the company in sustainability and what should concern them? How do you manage company resources, dependence on sources of funding and supplies, and debt? How does editorial independence reconcile with the interests of managers, boards and owners? How can owners be ethical in pursuing the business sustainability of their media outlets?

Seminar discussion: Why is it important to have clear responsibilities for ensuring sustainability in a media operation, and how should that responsibility be assigned? After identifying governance arrangements, break the students into groups, assign them an arrangement, and have them jointly produce and share with others a two- to three-page report showing how and why and it affects sustainability.

Assignment: Write a two-page report reflecting on how you would set up an ideal governance structure to pursue sustainability and what responsibilities you would give to the board and management and why.

Week 6: The importance of business models and sources of financial resources

Topics: What is a business model and why is it more than merely sources of money? What is needed to make it a business model effective? How should journalists and media managers think about their sources of revenue? Is there a standard business model everyone should pursue?

Seminar discussion: Why and how do different media and different units of the same medium have different business models and revenue sources? After identifying differences, break the students into groups, assign them a form of business model, and have them jointly produce and share with others a two- to three-page report showing why and how it affects dependence and sustainability.

Assignment: Write a two-page report describing the business model of a chosen media company.


Week 7: Financial aspects of sustainability

Topics: Why are efficient expenditures, effective uses of capital, caution with debt and liabilities, cash flow management, strategic uses of accounting, operational self-sufficiency, and continuous renewal of resources important to sustainability? How do you plan for future income and unexpected expenses?

Seminar discussion: Discuss how you oversee financial aspects without being an accountant. Review a company’s operating statement and balance sheet to learn how to ‘read’ it. Discuss what big questions should be asked when reading financial statements. After identifying issues, break the students into groups, assign them a measure of company performance and health, and have them jointly produce and share with others a two- to three-page report showing why and how it affects sustainability.

Assignment: Write a two-page review of the implications of a financial statement of a company.

Week 8: Journalism and media professionalism; credibility; cooperation and industry strength

Topics: Why is organizing and supporting journalism and media professional and trade associations important for sustainability? How is quality of content related to credibility and trust? Why are training programmes for those working in media critical to professionalism? Why are market research and reliable industry statistics crucial for developing sustainability? How do ethical standards and fairness/balance in journalism affect sustainability?

Seminar discussion: Discuss the existing media organizations and press freedom advocacy groups in your country and their functions. What are their strengths and weaknesses? What kind of organizations are missing, and what would be gained by having and supporting them?

After identifying organizations, break the students into groups, assign them an organization, and have them jointly produce and share with others a two- to three-page report about that organization and what it is doing to promote industry sustainability.

Assignment: Write a two-page review of working conditions for journalists and media sustainability in your country based on reports of international professional associations and advocacy groups. Suggest what journalists in the country might do to address the issues raised.


Background readings for the instructor

Abbott et al. [2011], Coyne and Leeson [2009], Howley [2009], Locksley [2009], Picard [2011b], Reader and Hatcher [2011], Senevirtane [2012], USAID [2012].

Relevant online resources for research and contemporary information

- African Media Initiative (AMI), www.africanmediainitiative.org/
- Asian Media Information and Communication Centre (AMIC), www.amic.org.sg/
- Center for Digital Democracy, www.democraticmedia.org
Center for International Media Assistance, www.cima.ned.org/media-development/sustainability
Center for Sustainable Journalism, Kennesaw State University, www.sustainablejournalism.org
Independent Media Center, www.indymedia.org
International Center for Journalists, www.ijnet.org
International Federation of Journalists, www.ifj.org
International Press Institute, http://www.freemedia.at/
Internews Network, www.internews.org
IREX, www.irex.org
Media Development Loan Fund, www.mdlf.org
Media Institute for Southern Africa (MISA) and its country chapters, http://new.misa.org/
Reporters sans frontières, www.rsf.org
World Association of Community Broadcasters, www.amarc.org

Comments

This course complements media and society, and media management courses, and provides more specificity and depth on the environment affecting media and issues of establishing and sustaining media operations.
References


IREX. n.d. The media sustainability index. www.irex.org/resource/media-sustainability-index-msi-methodology


UN Human Rights Committee. n.d. General Comment No. 34 on Article 19 of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (updating the right to freedom of expression in relation to internet). (Available (in five languages) at www2.ohchr.org/english/bodies/hrc/comments.htm)


Data journalism can be considered as a highly specialized branch of investigative reporting, but the majority of techniques can also be put to good use in everyday journalism. This course introduces students to the basic theory, methods and tools of data journalism. In order to work in data journalism, knowledge of its history and the classical examples or paradigms is required. The reading list includes articles that provide an overview of this growing species of journalism, providing an excellent base-level understanding of the field of data journalism.
Level of course: Second- or third-year students undertaking a four-year bachelor’s programme.

Course description: Data journalism is already fifty years old, but its popularity has soared, particularly in recent years. This field of journalism involves stories being written based on a collection of data, an excellent example of which is the data section of the British newspaper, the Guardian. Scandinavian, French and Spanish newspapers are taking up this example and are starting interesting data journalism projects as well.

Working in the field of data journalism presupposes knowledge and skills in two areas, the first of which is the field of methodology and statistics, since the data used are generally the result of research. Drawing conclusions from a pile of data is only possible if there is an initial understanding of what is actually being measured, the values and variables, levels of measurement, and margins of error. This enables a hypothesis to be formulated, which is then applied to the data-set using statistical tests. In the reading list is an overview of articles that introduce journalists to the basics of statistics and methodology.

The second area that requires a level of comprehension on the part of data journalists is identifying an interesting data-set. What constitutes an interesting place to look for data? Among the most obvious choices are databases from governments or (international) organizations, or web pages of these organizations with data. Once the source has been found, the next step is how to obtain the data on your computer and carry out the number crunching. Several interesting tools are available, Microsoft Office Excel spreadsheets being the most common example, enabling the majority of basic tests to be carried out. Instead of Excel, there are free possibilities at hand; OpenOffice and LibreOffice include free spreadsheet programmes. A hands-on introduction to spreadsheets forms part of this course.

Once the techniques of Excel have been taught, the focus turns to exporting data from a database, the web or pdf format into Excel, with several assignments paying attention to translating, downloading or scraping data from the web. Generally the raw data that are imported into Excel require cleaning up, in order to start the analysis. A special assignment on this topic is also included.
Now it is time to see if your ideas (hypotheses) hold, and if a conclusion can be drawn from the data, which will then serve as the basis for a story. Simple statistical tools in spreadsheet programmes will be adequate to calculate averages, percentage differences or correlations, while for more advanced analysis, any statistical package available at universities for analysis will do. Tools such as SPSS [Statistical Package for Social Science] or Statistica, commonly used at universities, are more appropriate, as is R-project (a free and open-source software package for statistical analysis). Several analysis-based assignments will be allocated, based on a specific dataset.

Since figures are generally difficult to understand, graphs are often used as a basic tool in data journalism to present a better understanding of the trends. Graphs can be produced easily using Excel or the many free tools available online for this purpose. Tableau is an example of a more advanced tool for making graphics based on data.

Most data have a geographical component as well, and therefore adding data to a map (GIS, geographical information systems) using Google fusion tables is another important tool in data journalism. Various assignments related to graphics and maps feature in the course, based on a specific data-set.

Data journalism is a form of journalism, and therefore aims at producing a story. The findings and conclusion from the data need to be contextualized, or interpreted to a specific situation. There are several ways to do that. The first is to find key people who can be quoted commenting on the findings from their own experience. For example findings about poverty or crime should be put in the perspective of persons affected and related to a specific setting. Various groups of people are interesting for quotes: policy-makers, specialists and people directly affected. Traditional interviewing can be used to get the information and quotes. However the use of social media like Facebook and Twitter creates new opportunities.

Creating a small survey for a selected group of people, relevant to the case studied, is a second possibility for creating a context for abstract data. Open-ended questions, although the answers are more difficult to analyse than those from closed questions, could be a good choice. Depending on the circumstance the survey could be processed in a traditional analogue way, but there are also online ways of doing a survey, for example a button on a media website, guiding
persons to the questionnaire. It should be noted that some special training is needed if journalists are to arrive at valid results.

This course in data journalism ends with an individual or group project, which sees students choose their own data-set and demonstrate competency in the basics of data journalism. All work on the project, from choosing the topic, collecting the data, carrying out the analysis, and writing the final news story, should be done in cooperation with the lecturer, and with guidance on revision before their approval. An example of a project, together with the relevant structure, outline and planning, is included in the list of literature.

Note: this course covers the basics of data journalism and teaches students how to handle secondary data. Working with primary data is also very popular, however, with the setting up of online surveys being one such example. Many current stories concern social network analysis based on Twitter relations. These two topics are more advanced, and need more knowledge and skills. A separate module on this issue could be developed and operated as a sequel to this basic course.

**Mode:** this module on the theory and practice of data journalism has been established as an online training course. Moodle software would be an appropriate choice for creating a partially electronic learning environment, as it offers the possibility to create entries for classes, including literature, hands-on examples, instruction and assignments, as well as having the capacity to create a library with all the relevant course documents, services for chat/discussion and email.

Digital teaching works well in combination with conventional classroom meetings. In order to work online, participants/students and lecturers should know each other. Second, in order to improve motivation, one classroom meeting during the course is needed to discuss problems and progress. A final classroom meeting should be dedicated to presenting the outcomes of the final projects conducted by each of the students.

**Pedagogical approach or method:** The course uses a combination of various pedagogical approaches. Online teaching in an electronic learning environment is combined with meetings in a classical classroom setting, where possible, together with tutorial/supervision on project work. (There should be one initial meeting, and then a second one, preferably in the middle of the course.) If online teaching is not possible because of technical limitations it is possible to turn this course into
regular training, for example an intensive course lasting one week, at any place convenient for the participants.

The course is practical/hands-on and student-centred. This implies that students are responsible for their own work in the various classes and for managing their time associated with this. Lecturers generally serve as coaches, helping the students to make their first steps in this field, and to overcome any problems encountered during assignments.

The lecturers who teach this course should be familiar with the principles of data journalism and have knowledge of working in an electronic learning environment. It is likely that extra training for lecturers in both areas will be required. A training of trainers should therefore be the first step, and must be developed based on the outline of this course. A pilot course can then start, run by the lecturers in cooperation with the trainer of trainers.

Finally, a course manual must be developed and written, including a complete outline of the course for the students and lecturers, together with examples and assignments. This manual, combined with the course description, will provide the steps and direction required in order to follow the course.

**Grading:** 50 hours worth of credits, or 50 credit hours.

Seventy per cent of the credits for this course are derived from the assignments and test. For the theory aspect, a set of open-ended questions must be answered, and for the practical component, a number of assignments must be handed in. The remaining 30 per cent of the credits are derived from a project, in which students demonstrate mastery of the basics of data journalism, based on their own data-set.

**Number of hours:** four per week over a ten-week period (two hours reading and two hours practical) plus ten hours for the final project.

**Equipment:** Because the course is taught in a digital environment, a server running Moodle, with sufficient capacity and bandwidth, is best for this project. It must be decided whether this server runs on one of the networks of the education/training provider, or is hosted by an internet service provider. In both cases, the
services of an IT specialist are required to install and control the functioning of the server. The students and lecturers of this online course need access to computers which are capable of running at least Windows 7 and have broadband internet access. They must also have the capacity to install the following software:

- an email program
- Firefox web browser
- Excel or a similar spreadsheet program
- Outwit Hub, plug-in Firefox
- Google Refine
- Tableau or similar.
Course outline

**Session 1: What is data journalism?**

*Readings* ([Data Journalism Handbook](#)) and responding to questions.

*Assignment:* Find stories you think are good examples of data journalism.

**Session 2: Principles of research and statistics**

*Readings* (on statistics for journalists) and questions.

*Assignment:* In reference to a particular data-set, answer the following:

- Which are the variables, what are they measuring, what is the level of measurement?
- Which hypothesis would you test on these data?

Do the same for your own data-set.

**Session 3: Introduction to spreadsheets**

*Readings* (on spreadsheets and CAR techniques) and conducting the following assignments:

- basics: inputting numbers and text, simple calculations
- simple formulae, ordering and filtering, simple graphics
- advanced pivot tables.

**Session 4: Working with spreadsheets**

*Assignments:*

- Download data from: 1) online database 2) pdf to Excel.
- Importing CVs.
Importing Google docs.

Find an interesting data-set, put it into a spreadsheet and describe which techniques you used.

Session 5: Scraping and refining

Readings (on OutWit and Google Refine)

Session 6: Analysing data: testing and conclusions

Session 7: Making graphics with web tools

Readings (on Maps and Google fusion tables, and Tableau)

Session 8: Working with Tableau and Google fusion tables for more advanced graphics and maps

Session 9: Writing the story

Readings (on writing stories)

Session 10: Project, individual or group.
Required readings

**History of data journalism:**


**Definitions:**


*Examples of data-driven journalism by Mindy McAdams:* http://mindymcadams.com/tojou/2012/data-journalism-examples/

**Philip Meyer’s award-winning stories:**

www.ire.org/tag/philip-meyer-journalism-awards/

**Data journalism handbook:**


**On coders and journos:**


**Ten tools:**


**Five tips:**


**CAR techniques and data journalism:**


**Spreadsheets:**

James, B. W. Basic Excel tutorial. http://people.usd.edu/~bwjames/tut/excel/

**Methodology and statistics for journalists:**


Niles, Robert. Statistics every journalist should know. www.robertniles.com/stats/

OutWit:

Manual hub: http://blog.outwit.com/

NICAR on use of Outwit Hub: https://docs.google.com/a/d3-media.nl/document/d/16qj2_1EohABneH_h7Reh3ymL4_tf5VYUxRI-ELycSs/edit?pli=1

Google Refine:


Propublica on Google Refine: http://www.propublica.org/nerds/item/using-google-refine-for-data-cleaning

Maps and Google fusion tables: http://support.google.com/fusiontables/bin/answer.py?hl=en&answer=184641

Working with Tableau:


Writing stories:

INTERCULTURAL JOURNALISM
Bertrand Cabeledoche

This course aims to develop students’ awareness and knowledge of intercultural issues in all their dimensions, applied to the field of journalistic production (content development; identity introspection; mediatization of social domains; management policy and human resources management of the media organization; economic performance (business case) and industrialization of culture, communication and information; social issues in the construction and development of public spaces; social legitimationization; knowledge development and so on).
Level of course: The course is designed for third-year university students, with or without a journalism background, enrolling in the first year of a Master’s degree (M1).

Course description: This curriculum takes into account the changes that, since the second half of the twentieth century, have exponentially increased the flow of information, goods and people, while addressing global issues, regardless of the players involved (public/private/association, individuals/communities, informal/institutional), reinforcing the politicization of cultural issues. At the same time, phenomena of regional and local, geopolitical and symbolic reterritorialization are gradually reappearing in the world, reactivating the culturalization of political and social issues (Žižek, 2004).

To overcome the superficial media coverage of intercultural issues the module must therefore ‘turn the hourglass over in both directions’: from the structure to the event, from freedom to membership, from universe to place and to diverse (Braudel, 1958). Thus, the module opens up to the greatest extent possible theoretical, conceptual and methodological approaches which may contribute to assisting the participants practically and introspectively, once back in the field of information practices (or the discovery of them). Facilitation of the course is distinguished from any normative focus that might cause confusion between knowledge and instrumentalization, and the training deviates from any peremptory transmission of journalism instruction manuals, branded with ‘sound management’ of interculturality, which magically reduce knowledge to absolute techniques of management skills, interpersonal skills and transcription skills.

While it does address these contemporary management tools, the training module is also aimed at journalists who may have to deal intellectually with interculturality as a subject and engage their social responsibility, in all its dimensions, in this area. The course aims in particular to prevent journalism itself from becoming bogged down, voluntarily or unwillingly, in the intricacies of the mosaic of culture (Moles, 1967, see also Moles, 1979). It is indeed in the interest of contemporary journalism to free itself from this loose patchwork of disparate elements of speech, propelled by the bombardment of information in our contemporary societies and leading to the confusion of different types of knowledge, to the development of which mass communication has already amply contributed since the middle of the twentieth century. Vigilance has already proved inadequate in terms of ethics and knowledge in journalism training (Badillo, 2005), allowing media discourse to go astray in the erring
ways of apologists full of hatred and other ‘authenticity’ propagandists, tragically responsible for contemporary genocides (Chrétien, 2002).

**Mode:** In order to handle all of the main contemporary issues involved in interrelating journalism and interculturality, the module proposes a two-pronged approach, drawing on lessons learned from the development of multidisciplinary studies and providing room for debate on each proposal.

**Pedagogical approach or method:** The module has been designed from the perspective of reflexive questions, inseparable from journalism practice, rather than an aim to provide a guide giving ready-made answers and solutions. (The wise person continues to wonder when the fool already has the answer.)

Facilitation of the module is educationally designed primarily in the form of an introductory and interactive workshop. The aim is to obtain feedback from participants concerning the production of media information that has already been published and that concerns interculturality (press reports, extracts of television programmes and so on). Interactivity can also be encouraged through collective reactions provoked by the discovery of excerpts chosen by the facilitator, which are significant regarding the issues identified by the authors in the field of human and social sciences in the very domain of journalism and interculturality. The facilitator can then provide scenarios and role play concerning issues arising in the field (such as an interview situation in the field of interculturality, played by two participants, then debriefed with the rest of the group, participants and observers alike).

This early work of categorization prepares the ground for conceptual, theoretical and even paradigmatic reflection, led by the facilitator (schools’ presentations and coordination of proposals, analysis of authors’ work, brought into contextual perspective, with personal anecdotes and examples from the field, for the purpose of illustration).

Final assessment may take the form of a project defended orally by the candidate in front of the facilitator at the end of the session.

Facilitators must have extensive experience in the theory of the issues raised by interculturality and the questioning of information globally and locally, paying special
attention to pedagogy and participant involvement. Journalism experience, however slight, is recommended for the facilitation of the course.

**Credits:** Sixty hours worth of credits. [This could be expressed as follows: Sixty credit hours] (corresponding to xxx credits).¹

Course credits are awarded on the basis of participants’ active presence in the course, systematically recorded by the facilitator (30 per cent of the credits) and an assessment of students’ acquisitions (70 per cent of the credits), which can be based on students’ projects relating to intercultural issues that might be suitable for publication in a weekly newspaper, for example (the theme having been validated by the course facilitator).

**Number of hours per week:** Ideally four hours of facilitation per week over a period of twelve weeks (a total of forty-eight hours), each sequence consisting of a one-hour reading commented on collectively, one hour of practical work and two hours of methodological, conceptual and theoretical contributions (with breaks).

Participants also need time outside the class for the preparation of the final project. Assessment of this project may also be accompanied by an oral presentation requiring the facilitator’s additional presence for half an hour per participant (a twenty-minute presentation and ten minutes of feedback by the facilitator).

In short, the facilitator should provide forty-eight hours of classroom presence plus half an hour per participant for the final assessment in the event of an additional oral assessment.

**Equipment:** The course does not require a significant amount of technical equipment but could need to use equipment that is already available onsite, such as video projectors, recorders and cameras for role playing or to illustrate case studies.

For the rest, the equipment required is limited to a set of modular tables that may be configured into a u-shape for presentations and moved around for the preparation and execution of role playing.

¹ Note from the creator of the module: it is necessary to allocate a significant number of credits to this module as part of a training course in journalism. Students – and some associated professionals – sometimes tend to reduce to the learning of techniques in their tactical calculation of which credits to obtain and which to sacrifice, which is generally done at the expense of training that is considered to be more theoretical.
Course outline

As a reminder, the training involves starting each sequence (four sequences for the entire module) with a practical exercise, from which the facilitator of the module begins the distancing by taking account of theoretical and conceptual foundations, whether conscious or unconscious, of intellectual input from participants.

Unit 1: Journalism – a vector of embodied conceptions, conquerors and converts of culture?

Colonial conceptions of cultural confrontation, from French-style negation and levelling universalism to British cosmopolitanism.

Scientific legitimization of the colonial conquest, against ‘cultural archaisms’. Scientific and technological determinism, promoters of the new model of the technological revolution (‘new Christianity and positivism’; information and communication technologies, preferred vectors of development, the realization of the knowledge society and the information society against barbarism).

Theories of ‘modernization’ confronted with the increase in centres of development. The perception of a ‘clash of civilizations’.

The promotion of entrepreneurship culture for the end of history and the fight against false beliefs held by culture-states; deregulation, coupled with a culture of globalization (technetronic revolution, information highways, information society). Communicational soft power (USA, China).

Unit 2: Journalism – disqualified or re-qualified player for the plural reaffirmation of cultural identity?

Analysis of Jacobin universalism from the late eighteenth century and the propagandist role of media from the Second World War. The scientific stigmatization of ‘racialism’, ‘trans-cultural diffusion’ and other forms of ‘false evolutionism’. The anthropological promotion of ‘cultural relativism’. The
search for new conceptual frameworks and questioning of the relationship with time, space and the ‘other’, across cultures. The ‘arts of doing and making’ of indigenous peoples; tactics used against the coercion of the dominant powers.

The gradual demand for a *New World Information and Communication Order* (NWICO), in the struggle against the levelling of cultures and one-way traffic of international information. The impact of the Frankfurt School and its critique of *cultural imperialism* through the media.

*Cultural studies* and the deconstruction of the link between *culture and nation* for an approach to ‘non-places’; the capacity of reception to be encoded/decoded against the determinism of the cultural imperialism theses. Convergences with functionalist sociology (*uses and gratifications*).

Dwindling reference to NWICO. Analysis of the *extraneous nature* of media at the disposal of nation-states. The mediator role played by the media, in close contact with social movements.

**Unit 3: Journalism, vector of cultural hybridization?**

The pitfalls of authenticity and the reversal of stigma with ethnic appeal; the risks of communitarian confinement. The pitfalls of *multiculturalism* and the limits of *affirmative action* policies.

The end of one-way information mapping with the emergence of regional development centres. Requalification of global exchanges in terms of ‘*glocalization*’, as an effort to diversify or adjust supply, depending on the quality of local consumers. Mass culture as a factor in the increase in cultural heterogeneity.

The porosity of boundaries, as a limit to the social control of media by national authorities. The promotion of ‘*inside and outside*’ for the construction and consolidation of public spaces. The dynamics of social networks as promoters of cultural change. *Glocalization* as an alternative cultural movement. Hybridization of information practices, between conversational media, traditional media and transnational media. Neo-activism, carrying determinism with belief in the *community of equals*.
Interculturality and degrowth theorists. Postcolonial studies, heir to Orientalism. Enhancement of the status of the interstitial individual and the promotion of multiple, hybrid and mobile identity. The unashamed promotion of regional cultural and linguistic areas. The notion of cultural and intangible world heritage at UNESCO.

Interculturalism as an adherence to a set of common values, potentially fed by each cultural expression. The search for a new humanism and UNESCO’s role in this.

**Unit 4: Interculturality – new art of media management, or the misuse of critical thought?**

The development of culture, information and communication industries in the production of value, increasingly closely connected with other major sectors in the industry of networks (telecommunication) and equipment (IT tools). The gradual shift of the managerial culture of organizations in the world of journalism and the contribution of French pragmatic sociology to understanding the phenomenon.

Cultural references, as constituents of values, rules and premises necessary for the organization to work properly. Hofstede’s basic model on management cultures. The dimension of national cultures and their influence on management styles. The theory of secondary socialization in the field of professional cultures. Joint ventures and the management of interculturality. Neoinstitutionalist theories and resource theories for cultural diversity as an element of the business case: benefits (and risks) of diversity in the workplace. Intercultural management practice and techniques in organizations and their application to information industries. The extensions of components of diversity, beyond the contributions of cultural studies, media studies and gender studies.

Analysis of an ultra-liberal interpretation of diversity, constituting cultural nationalists. Diversity charters, as social embellishment. European criticism of the sidelining of geo-economic and geopolitical logic in the analysis of interactions and transactions between cultures. The cultural exception of ‘old Europe’, as against the ‘celebrity culture’ and communication logic from across the Atlantic.
The theory of cultural industries and new challenges in the industrialization of culture, information and communication in relation to the phenomena of the media’s increasing concentration and financialization. Questioning about the persistence of a space for critical thinking with the development of communication holdings. Analysis of a culturalization of the political and the social.

**Unit 5: Interculturality – digital culture**

- The concept of digital culture.
- Cyber-journalism and standardization of practices.
- Identity markers in digital journalistic productions.
- Case study [analysis of media websites [comparison of approaches and detection of cultural problems].
**Required resources**

These references aim to familiarize course facilitators with the issues, theories, concepts, methodologies and techniques relating to the theme of interculturality and journalism. As a reminder, the trainer’s manual includes a very ample list, referencing all the bibliographical details mentioned in the syllabus.

**Unit 1:**


**Unit 2:**


**Unit 3:**


**Unit 4:**


**Unit 5:**

References


This course is designed to introduce students to the principles, concepts, models and practice of community radio. Its focus on the Asian community radio culture renders it applicable to other developing-country situations, encouraging lecturers/instructors to be contextually innovative in their pedagogical approaches.
Level of the course: Tier 3 – final year elective for mass communication bachelor degree students majoring in radio.

Course description: The commercialization of media across the globe has created a counter-movement for community-based media, especially in radio, which is the most accessible medium for poor and marginalized populations. The aim is to demonstrate to students how the radio skills they have learned during the course could also be used to produce radio of a non-commercial nature oriented towards the community and produced with the community.

Course objectives:

▶ Demonstrate how participatory communication theories could be used to produce radio programming with the community;
▶ Introduce the principles and concepts of community radio;
▶ Provide students with practical experience in producing radio programmes in collaboration with the community;
▶ Equip students with knowledge and skills to work in and/or manage community radio stations/programming collectives.

Course duration: Fifteen weeks, one semester.

Number of hours per week: four (one-hour lecture and three-hour tutorial/workshop) plus field work for programme production/research.

Note: the students need to have done at least one module of basic radio production. This course does not teach the fundamentals of radio production or broadcasting. They should be able to record and edit radio material using simple, cheap digital technology. It is preferable that students have done a second-stage radio production course as well, where advanced radio programmes have been produced such as radio news features or talk shows.

Mode: This module in theory and practice of participatory communication methodology for community radio contents production and station management is designed as a final-year elective to be taken by mass communication students in a four-year bachelor’s degree course. This could also be set up for online training
of community broadcasters with the assistance of a local instructor who will guide trainees on field work and contents production.

The course involves weekly lectures, class exercises and field work spread over eight to ten weeks, or could be delivered as a two-week intensive course. This curriculum will be slightly modified for the two-week training. An electronic library could be set up to access resource material for this course such as notes, articles, electronic publications, radio capsules and videos.

Digital teaching works only in combination with conventional classroom/workshop meetings. In order to work online, the participants – students and lecturer – should know each other. Second, for improving motivation one classroom meeting is needed to discuss issues, problem-solving and identification of the community and its needs at the beginning of the course. There should also be regular classroom/workshop discussion to monitor progress – especially playing radio recordings/projects and discussing their contents and effectiveness. A last classroom meeting should be dedicated to a presentation of the outcome of the final project by each of the students/trainees.

**Pedagogical approach or method:** This course uses a combination of various pedagogical approaches. It can be taught at a university environment as a final-year course spread over a thirteen- to fifteen-week semester. In that case, the methodology adopted will be traditional classroom meetings, with resource material either presented through a CD-ROM in the classroom or accessed via an online link.

This course could also be offered online for training of community radio broadcasters on location, with weekly lessons followed by exercises and field work spread over a period of fifteen to sixteen weeks. The students’ field work for grading may also be broadcast on the local community radio station. However, this online teaching in an electronic learning environment should be combined with classical classroom meetings (a first meeting and one more during the course, or preferably meetings on a weekly or fortnightly basis) and tutorial/supervision on project work.

The course is practical/hands-on and student-centred. This implies that the students are responsible for their work in the classes and the timetable attached
to it. Lecturers generally work as coaches, helping the students to make their first steps in this field, and to overcome the problems in assignments.

Lecturers on this course should be familiar with radio broadcasting. Preferably they should be former or current radio broadcasters, especially with public service radio or community radio. They should also know how to work inside an electronic learning environment. In some developing countries extra training for lecturers in both areas is needed; a training of trainers workshop should be the first step. A programme for this training based on the outline of this course needs to be developed. A pilot of this course can start, attended by a select group of lecturers in cooperation with the trainer of trainers. After fine-tuning, the course could start at various selected universities or community radio stations.

Note however that community radio broadcasters and universities in different countries work in different languages. The original English version of this curriculum and some of the resource material may need to be translated and published in a select number of languages.

**Grading:**

For universities: the students will be assessed through a number of individual and group assignments as listed below. There will be no final exam and as the course is designed mainly as a hands-on and consultation-based learning model, class attendance will be taken and a grade given. However, an individual essay is assigned to test students’ understanding of participatory communication and other mass communication theories applicable to community radio. The recommended grading formula is:

- essay on community radio (individual): 20 per cent
- programme proposal (group exercise): 10 per cent
- news bulletin (group exercise): 10 per cent
- radio feature on MDGs (group exercise): 10 per cent
- final project magazine programme (group): 40 per cent
- class attendance: 10 per cent.

For community radio station training programmes: no grading need be given but trainees have to pass all the course exercises as listed below to obtain
a certification of completion. This certificate may be given in collaboration with a regional or local university as a ‘Professional Certificate of Community Radio Broadcasting’. The exercises to be successfully completed to obtain this certificate are:

▶ simple test on participatory communication methodology
▶ programme proposal [group exercise]
▶ news bulletin [group exercise]
▶ radio feature on MDGs [group exercise]
▶ final project magazine programme [group]
▶ class attendance [trainees need to have attended at least 75 per cent of classes].

**Equipment:** any university or community radio station conducting this course needs at least three digital voice recorders, three computers with internet access and audio editing software such as Protools.
Course outline

Week 1: Introduction to theories of development and participatory communication

This lecture will cover the question of ‘What is development?’ and theories of development and participatory communication, including a background to its evolution and its practical applications in different countries and settings.


Tutorial: Watch the video/and or read the evaluation report and discuss the concepts of communication for development reflected there such as ‘development support communications’, ‘development communication’ and ‘participatory communication’. Divide the class into groups with the lecturer giving each group a development problem, which needs to be addressed using a participatory communication methodology. The students will suggest one methodology – not necessarily by radio alone.

Readings and references:


Week 2: Understanding the community and communication

This lecture explores the question of ‘What is a ‘community?’ then looks at aspects of the process of communications such as changing perspectives, the function of media and their limitations, media’s role in the society, media and communication for education and development versus empowerment, and
communication for nurturing cultural and cultural empowerment. It considers the links between community and communication, such as mediated communications, interdependency and non-profit media.

Tutorial: Students should divide into groups to identify a community in the area where a community radio project will be established. They should be presented with a profile/mapping of the community, and any available data and reports on its development and communication needs or sociocultural issues. The students/trainees may visit the community and carry out consultations before drafting the proposal. Present to class a brief proposal on how the radio station will be established.


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Week 3: Principles and practices of alternative media

This session looks at ‘What is alternative media?’, and what theoretical perspectives underpin its operations and different models, styles or systems of alternative media practices, especially in Asia.

Tutorial: Divide the class into groups. Allocate an alternative media project from Alfonso’s Making Waves (2001). Students should read this and summarize its main role as an alternative media for the community. Alternatively they may watch the video Free Media, Free Minds (Cape Town Community TV) and discuss some of the issues featured in it in the local context.

Week 4: Introduction to principles, evolution and essential features of community radio

This session introduces students to the basics of community radio. This includes:

▶ the three systems of broadcasting and where community radio fits into them
▶ definition of community radio
▶ community radio in the context of globalization
▶ why community radio, and not public service radio?
▶ the evolution of community radio
▶ essential features of community radio
▶ benefits of community radio
▶ dangers of community radio.

Tutorial: Select a relevant reading from among the list of readings and references presented below and discuss different aspects of community radio raised in the reading in terms of the discussion and the reality in your country.

Graded assignment (for universities): Research a community radio station from your country (or from the region) and write a 2–3,000 word essay looking at the background to its establishment and discussing how it fits into the definitions of community radio given by UNESCO, AMARC and Tambuli. This assignment should be handed over to the lecturer at the tutorial in Week 6.

Assignment (for community radio training on location): Set a simple exam with not more than five questions to test the trainees’ understanding of the concepts, principles and application of participatory communication theories to community radio in the local environment.

Week 5: Getting started: programme policies, legal matters, codes of ethics and technical issues

How do you get started in community radio? The following topics are covered in the lecture and tutorial:

▶ prerequisites for setting up community radio
▶ policies and procedures in setting up community radio
▶ basic steps in setting up
▶ suitable model
▶ training
▶ choosing participants/volunteers
▶ station management and sustainability.

Tutorial: Divide the class into four groups. In the first hour, one group each prepares to argue for and against the following motions. In the second hour, hold two twenty-minute debates with the tutor as the moderator.

▶ Debate 1: Community radio is economically unsustainable
▶ Debate 2: Community radio will create conflict in the community.


Week 6: Models of community radio

This session explores different community radio models from Asia, Africa, Latin America and Europe. Some of the models explored are:

▶ independent community radio model
▶ collaboration with tertiary institution
▶ collaboration with local government
▶ religious institution-initiated model
▶ NGO-run community radio
▶ union-initiated model
▶ ethnic community model
commercial community radio model
windows within public service radio.

*PowerPoint:* ‘Models of community radio’ (AMIC).

*Tutorial:* Listen to the radio features mentioned below and discuss:

- the pros and cons of a local council owned/funded (LGU) community radio model
- the different sound of community radio and why the mainstream radio voice may be inappropriate to community radio.

Each student should write a community radio presentation script of not more than two minutes’ duration and present it to the class, followed by a discussion.


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**Week 7: Economic viability and marketing of community radio**

This session explores the issue of economic viability of community radio and how to market a community radio station or programme to the community. Case studies from Asia and Africa are examined. It also considers whether governments should set up community radio assistance funds, and if so, how. Case studies from Australia, South Africa, the USA and other countries are examined.

*Tutorial:* Divide the class into three groups and assign them to discuss and present a funding model for a community radio station in their community/region which will adopt one of the following models:

- in collaboration with an educational organization
- run by a local NGO
- in collaboration with an LGU
- independently run by a community-based organization or collective.

Week 8: Participatory programming models, neighbourhood productions and programming collectives

This session focuses on how to create participatory communication models of programming for community radio so as to establish a model of ‘radio by the people for the people’. Topics include forming programming collectives which may include youth, women, workers and other communities of interests; setting up talk shows with the community; live programming from community events; and promoting of local artistic expressions on radio. Case studies from Philippines, India, Solomon Islands, Bolivia, Denmark and Sri Lanka are examined.

Tutorial and graded assignment: Divide the class into groups of three and ask them to draw up a proposal to produce a community radio programme with the community. This proposal needs to be produced as an assignment for grading, and submitted to the lecturer at the next week’s tutorial.


Week 9: Writing for community radio: news and current affairs

This session focuses on principles, styles of writing and focus of news and current affairs for community radio. How does it differ from mainstream news? Students explore alternative sources of news available from the internet, local community, national and other sources. They discuss the role of community radio news in a disaster situation, a period of political or social strife in the country/region, and
promoting alternative economic and development models via news reporting/focus.

*Suggestion for lecturer: where possible, the lecturer could record and play back a segment of the news beat on any community radio station and national radio station available, as a way of initiating a comparative discussion.*

*Tutorial:* Divide the class into two groups. Each group is asked to script a fifteen-minute news programme which includes three minutes of national and international news (done in ‘rip-and-read’ style using internet sources) and twelve minutes of community news including business, political, crime, transport and health reports. Local interview ‘soundbites’ can be used, but these will be simulated ones recorded in class. The programme should then be recorded and played to the class.

*Graded assignment:* Divide the class into groups of three. Each group records a fifteen-minute news bulletin for community radio with real news and soundbites. The recorded programme is played in class during the next week’s tutorial and graded by the lecturer.

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**Week 10: Community radio and Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)**

The highly affordable, accessible and powerful medium of radio can be strategically employed to amplify grassroots voices and turn passive listeners into active creators of content. This session focuses on how to use development and participatory communication strategies in promoting MDGs via community radio. Models are discussed in which community radio stations work with development experts, government officials and community members to devise and produce radio programmes to promote MDGs. The radio is seen as a development delivery tool working with the community to facilitate development, while at the same time acting as its watchdog in promoting good governance and democratic participation at the grassroots level.

*Tutorial:*
- Play news bulletins and discuss in class;
- Discuss ideas for community radio programmes addressing MDG issues.
**Graded assignment:** Students work in groups of two to produce a ten-minute radio feature linked to a MDG issue. This feature should include voices from the community but not exclusively. Other relevant voices like government servants, local government officials or development experts may also be used. The feature could be a panel discussion or a radio news feature. It should have at least three different ‘voicebites’ from the local community. The recorded programme is then played at the next tutorial and graded by the lecturer.


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**Week 11: School on the air**

Community radio could play an important role in poor and marginalized communities in bringing education to people’s doorsteps through formal and non-formal education via radio. There are many community radio stations around the world that have won international recognition for providing such services to the community. Many have established ‘school on the air’ projects where people can gain education and qualifications via the use of radio. This session looks at the concepts and models of ‘school on the air’ via community radio broadcasting and examines some of the internationally acclaimed models. What are the differences between formal and non-formal education? Within your local context, what is the gap in non-formal education that a community radio could fill?

**Tutorial:** Play news features and discuss/feedback in class.

**Readings and references:** Khan (2004), Librero (2009), Sharma (2002), Vyas et al. (2002). **Website:** Government of Australia School of the Air.

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**Week 12: The internet, new media and community radio**

This session focuses on how to use the internet and other ‘new media’ technology both as a source of information to enrich community radio broadcasting, and as a distribution channel for community radio. The pioneering ‘Radio browsing the internet’ project of Kothmale Radio in Sri Lanka is examined along with other
similar projects which followed. The use of technology such as internet streaming and mobile-phone-based broadcasting is also examined, with case studies drawn from the students’ region and internationally. The concepts and structure of community multimedia centres are also examined, along with new communication technologies on the market such as soundcloud and Hindenburg audio software.

_Suggestion for lecturer: this session could kick off with an introductory viewing of any relevant video and/or PowerPoint presentation that highlights the role of ICTs in community radio production._

_Tutorial:_ Students work in groups of three to browse the internet and draw up a plan for a half-hour programme using the concept of ‘radio browsing the internet’. They present this to the class. This is a non-graded exercise.


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**Week 13: Community radio and disaster relief**

Community radio can play a leading role in both disaster preparedness and disaster relief. The role of community radio in disaster relief was well demonstrated in Indonesia and Thailand during the 2004 tsunami. In many countries around the world community radio is increasingly employed in warning against impending disasters and preparing the populations to overcome these. This session examines how community radio has been used before, during and after disasters, and also discusses how it could be applied locally in disaster situations.

_Tutorial:_ The lecturer explains the final project of the course, producing a magazine programme of thirty minutes’ duration. The different formats of a magazine programme are discussed. Students form groups of three to work on the final project. They should draw up a plan for it, and present it to the lecturer before the end of the tutorial for discussion and approval. The plan must show clearly assigned roles for each member, the subject matter and the format used.
Once the lecturer’s approval is obtained, the students start working on the project outside class time.

Readings and references: Putra and Pahlemy [2006], Win [2009].

Week 14: Managing, evaluating and assessing community radio

This session discusses concepts of community radio station management, evaluation procedures and how to assess the success or failure of a community radio station/model.


Tutorial: There is no tutorial this week and students should use the class time to do field recordings, scripts or editing and packaging of their final project. This project has to be completed by the next tutorial and played in class.

Readings and references: Bullo [2008], Mainali et al. [2009], Hollander et al. [2008].

Week 15: Community radio and activism

This session explores how community radio could be used as an activist tool to get the voices of the people heard over the glut of commercial and government media/propaganda. It looks at models from Fiji and South Africa. At the same time, it considers the dangers facing radio activists, with a special look at the killing of radio journalists in the Philippines and Mexico.

Links to case studies:
Fiji: femLINKpacific: www.femlinkpacific.org.fj/index.cfm?si=main.gen&cmd=communityradioactivism
South Africa: Radio shows support for 16 days of activism: www.bizcommunity.com/Article/196/59/86394.html

Tutorial: Select one of the case studies above for closer examination, and solicit feedback. The students are allowed another week to finish the final version for grading, which should be handed in on CD or as an mp3 file, where applicable.
Readings and references


Ebrahim, Z. 2009b. Women’s voices hit the airwaves in Pakistan’s tribal belt, September. Pakistan: Women’s Feature Service.


Feria, Monica, Manar, Malu C. and Lim, Myrna B. 2006. Genpeace: how a literacy program for girls and women, spawned an unique region-wide network of community radio station. Jakarta: UNESCO.


Gosh, Soma. 2010. PowerPoint presentation by CMS Community Radio Station @ 90.4 MHz. Lucknow, India: CMS.


Tacchi, Jo. 2005. Supporting the democratic voice through community media centres in South Asia, February. Australia: 3Cmedia.


Video, multimedia


AMIC Alternative media and participatory communication. PowerPoint presentation.

AMIC. Introduction to community radio. PowerPoint presentation.

AMIC. Models of community radio. PowerPoint presentation.

AMIC. Participatory programme production. PowerPoint presentation.

AMIC. Setting up community radio. PowerPoint presentation.

AMIC. Understanding a community. PowerPoint presentation.

AMIC. Writing news. PowerPoint presentation.


Bush Radio, Cape Town, South Africa. www.youtube.com/watch?v=FkpwgwRhr3Xo.

Cape Town Community TV. *Free Media, Free Minds*. www.youtube.com/watch?v=0FSfzfcP24w

CTA. Rural Radio in Africa. www.youtube.com/watch?v=qQfEsLVXQv0

Dagron, Alfonso Gumucio. 2006. Voices from the Magdalena: Communication for Peace, a documentary on a community radio network in the Magdalena media region of Colombia, where people have organized themselves around a community radio station to get their voices heard, while the region has been engulfed in a violent conflict between the government and a rebel group. Directed and produced by CFSC Consortium, Colombia.

DXUP. Live-to-air studio music programme. Upi, Mindanao, Philippines.

ICF Journalists. Building strong community radio in Latin America. www.youtube.com/watch?v=dv85gVabUp0.

Madhavan, M. 1993. Interview with station manager, Nagercoil Local radio of All India Radio on how it sounds like the common man.

Mahaveli Community Radio, Sri Lanka. Panel discussion recorded in the field.


Radio programmes:


AMIC. 2009. Asian Voices, Issue 15, October. ‘Community radio in Asia’. Singapore. (This magazine programme includes the following features: a feature on movements towards community radio in Bangladesh compiled and presented by Shahjhan Siraj. Courtesy of Panos Radio South Asia; a feature on Radio DXLM in Maragusan compiled and presented by Kalinga Seneviratne.)

AMIC. 2010. Asian Voices, Issue 19, March. ‘Community Radio in Asia’. Singapore. (This magazine programme include interviews recorded by Kalinga Seneviratne at the Second Asia Pacific Conference of the World Association of Community Radio Broadcasters (AMARC), in Bangalore, India; interview with Raghu Mainali, director of the Community Radio Support Centre in Kathmandu, Nepal; an interview with Lasantha De Silva of Uva Community Radio in Sri Lanka; interview with Bazlu Rahman, executive director of the Bangladesh NGOs Network for Radio and Communications; Bowo Usodo, president of the Community Radio Association of Indonesia explaining the inability of maintaining the participatory communication model in Indonesia; Noor Hassnah, volunteer broadcaster at Radio Suara Warga in Central Jawa talking about community radio in East Java.)
Websites:

Asian alternative media:

Aliran (Malaysia): www.aliran.com
Deccan Development Society (India): www.ddsindia.com
Dhan Foundation (India): www.dhan.org
Fridae (Singapore): www.fridae.com
Groundviews (Sri Lanka): http://groundviews.org
Irrawaddy (Myanmar): www.irrawaddy.org
Malaysiakini.com (Malaysia): www.malaysiakini.com
Minda News (Philippines): www.mindanews.com
Minivan (Maldives): minivannews.com/
Mizzima (Burmese): www.mizzima.com/
Ohmynews (Korea): http://international.ohmynews.com
Prachatai (Thailand): http://prachatai.com/english
Video Sewa (India) - http://www.videosewa.org
Young Asian TV (Sri Lanka) - http://youngasia.tv

Others:

CBF: www.cbf.com.au
Community radio in the Soloman Islands: http://communitymediasolomons.wordpress.com/isabel-learning-network
Media Development and Diversity Agency, South Africa: www.mdda.org.za
School of the Air and remote learning, Australian government website: www.cultureandrecreation.gov.au/articles/schoolofair
This upper-level course is designed as an analysis of global journalism issues and is intended to give the students a broad and critical understanding of the principles and practice of journalism on a global platform. It also introduces students to the ways through which they can better appreciate their local cultural contexts through the prism of a global narrative of journalistic practice.
Level of course: Senior year.

Course description: This course is structured around the reading of scholarly literature in the field of global journalism, and addresses issues of importance in the field: globalization, media law, media ownership and concentration, and so on.

While these readings describe and analyse various perspectives in global journalism, class lectures and discussions (class and online) are important and will delineate the most important concepts and theories that global journalism scholars and practitioners rely on. All students are expected to learn to critically analyse the existing literature in the field. This requires a good grasp of the material covered in the lectures and the readings, and also the ability to apply such understandings to the analysis of global journalism issues in class discussions, papers and assignments.

Students are expected to have a basic understanding of the tools and techniques of journalism before taking this course. This course will require students to combine these tools and techniques with the theoretical issues discussed in this course, and will prepare them to be journalists with a good understanding of journalism issues globally.

Learning outcomes of this course: This class should help in (a) honing analytical skills, (b) honing the ability to make correct and effective use of research to answer critical questions in global journalism (c) honing oral presentation skills, and (d) making the student a knowledgeable and critical consumer of national and international media.

Pedagogical approach or method: Seminar format: lectures, discussions of readings, analysis of case studies and internships.

Time requirement: Number of hours per week: three to six. Number of weeks of course: fifteen.
Grading:

- Assignments: (30 per cent): weekly assignments as specified;
- Term paper: (20 per cent plus 5 per cent for class presentation);
- Prod-usage project: (20 per cent): Creation of an ‘emerging media site’ using user-generated content through the semester. Examples can include a blog, a news site or a video channel on YouTube, on a selected or assigned theme or topic throughout the semester. If these are not accessible, then other traditional media like journals, radio shows, local television, folk media or newspapers/magazines can also be used as outlets to write about the assigned theme or topic;
- Class participation: (10 per cent).
Course outline

(This is an open framework and each faculty adopting this syllabus will need to customize it to their country/regional contexts based on the guidelines provided. While some basic readings are provided here, the actual readings will need to be sourced and supplemented from local literature and so will change based on the region and the time that this syllabus is used. Hence it needs to be adopted accordingly. For the purpose of this syllabus, Asia is used as the example to illustrate the examples.)

Week 1: Globalization and the media

Theoretical framework:

▶ framework of globalization
▶ impact of globalization on media
▶ the context of global communication
▶ the future of globalization.

Significant cases: to be selected from the region as relevant.

Assignment: Identify and list various media outlets and networks that are local, national, regional and global from the region along with their audiences and ownership. Evaluate how many of them are owned by transnational corporations and how many of them are individually owned.

Readings: Appadurai (1996), Disjuncture and difference in the global cultural economy; Appadurai (2003), Grassroots globalization and the research imagination; Croteau and Hoynes (2003), ch.10, Globalization and the future; L. Eko, Africa: life in the margins of globalization, in Kamalipour and Artz (2007); Havens and Lotz (2012), ch. 11, Globalization; Tomlinson (1999), ch. 1, Globalization and culture. Also select one or two more readings from the region as relevant.
Week 2: Comparative media systems (of different national systems)

Theoretical framework:

▶ history and context
▶ demographics of various types of media (radio, television, newspapers, emerging media, etc.
▶ media institutions
▶ media audiences
▶ global governance
▶ international organizations
▶ global news challenges in local markets.

Significant cases: to be selected from the region as relevant.

Assignment: term paper: Select a case study of a media institution or media outlet and work on a detailed case study. Identify some of the issues relevant to this case study from the ones discussed during the semester.


Week 3: Media law and regulation

Theoretical framework:

▶ freedom of the press and right to information
▶ constitutional provisions
▶ role of the state, press institutions and civil society
▶ significant media laws/cases in the country’s history
▶ copyright and piracy; libel and defamation.

Significant cases: to be selected from the region as relevant.
Assignment: Identify two to three examples of real-life media law case studies from the region. Discuss whether you agree or disagree with the various interpretations and the final outcomes, if any. Why or why not?


Week 4: Media ethics

Theoretical framework:

▶ ethical issues – anonymity, confidentiality, informed consent, etc.
▶ societal guidelines
▶ privacy issues and coverage of women, victims of crimes and disasters, religious violence, minorities and other sensitive situations.

Significant cases: to be selected from the region as relevant.

Assignment: Identify one or two examples of real-life media ethics cases from the region. Discuss whether you agree or disagree with the interpretations and the final outcome, if any. Why or why not?

Readings: Herman Wasserman, International journalism ethics, in de Beer (2012); Ward and Wasserman (2010). Also select two readings relevant to the region.

Week 5: Media issues

Theoretical framework:

▶ global news flows
▶ New World Information and Communication Order (NWICO) and post-NWICO framework
cultural imperialism and cultural hybridity.

Significant cases: to be selected from the region as relevant.

Assignment: Identify instances of foreign influence in any media content/programming from a regional or local media channel or network. Discuss the implications of such influence in terms of the audience.


Week 6: Media coverage

Theoretical framework:

- glocalization
- analysis of coverage in global and local media
- specialized media coverage (choose at least two of environment reporting; women, ethnic, religious and social minorities; financial journalism; sports journalism; health reporting)
- religion and global regions
- human rights and civil society protests
- war and terrorism
- global migration and relevant issues
- civil society and public activism
- citizen journalism
- reporting on natural disasters, local environment issues, poverty, hunger, food production, etc.

Significant cases: to be selected from the region as relevant.
Assignment: Compare news coverage of any selected issue or content in two or more newspapers or media channels or news outlets. Analyse differences in coverage and reasons why. Ideally select one national, one global and one local news outlet.

Readings: Berger (2009); Des Freedman and Daya Kishan Thussu, ch.1, Dynamics of media and terrorism, in Freedman and Thussu (2012); T. L. Jacobson and W. Y. Jang, Mediated war, peace and global civil society, in Mody (2003); Dahr Jamail, ch. 17, Media myth and ground reality in reporting from Iraq, in Freedman and Thussu (2012); Justin Lewis, ch. 15: Terrorism and news narratives, in Freedman and Thussu (2012); Danny Schechter, ch. 18, Challenging the media war, in Freedman and Thussu (2012). Also select two readings relevant to the region.

**Week 7: Reporting for the media**

Theoretical framework:

- concepts of reporting
- tools of the trade.

Significant cases: to be selected from the region as relevant.

Assignment: Interview a sample readership and collect their impressions of news coverage in a prominent newspaper or media organization. Write a report on how the readers/viewers perceive the coverage in terms of choice of stories, bias/slant, credibility, timeliness and so on.


**Week 8: Journalism education (optional week – dependent on region and instructor judgment)**

Theoretical framework:

- evolving paradigms of journalism education
status of journalism education globally.

Significant cases: to be selected from the region as relevant.

Assignment: Interview two to four media journalists/editors from different media outlets and compile a list of journalistic skills they expect to be taught in any journalism-reporting course. Explore whether you are equipped with those skills. Why or why not?

Readings: Mark Deuze, Global journalism education, in de Beer (2012); Muppidi (2008). Also select two readings relevant to the region.

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Week 9: Media ownership and concentration

Theoretical framework:

- editor–publisher convergence
- market economics: news versus marketing; paid news
- transnational corporations
- advertising and public relations
- the political economy of global journalism – media ownership and concentration.

Significant cases: to be selected from the region as relevant.

Assignment: Select one example for each of these issues and write a report on what inferences can be drawn from this perspective. Suggest solutions based on this understanding of the political economy of the media. Will they work? Why or why not?

Readings: L. Artz, The corporate model from national to transnational, in Kamalipour and Artz (2007); E. Comor, Media corporations in the age of globalization, in Mody (2003); Part II, Production: the media industry and the social world, in Croteau and Hoynes (2003); J. Lozano, Latin America: media conglomerates, in Kamalipour and Artz (2007); Mosco (2009); Doug Newsom, Global advertising and public relations, in de Beer (2012); K. Vishwanath and L. B. Zeng, Transnational advertising, in Mody (2003). Also select two readings relevant to the region.
Week 10: Media, empowerment and social change

Theoretical framework:

▶ NGOs and people’s organizations
▶ media in social change and empowerment
▶ is there a role for public service broadcasting?

Significant cases: to be selected from the region as relevant.

Assignment: Visit/volunteer at a local credible NGO, and understand its mission and day-to-day functioning including how it is funded, who it caters to and what kind of difference it makes in society.

Readings: S. R. Melkote and P. Krishnatray, State of the development communication field: challenges and priorities, in Muppidi (2012); Muppidi and Manvi (2012); Seneviratne (2012). Also select two readings relevant to the region.

Week 11: Media in regional language

Theoretical framework:

▶ English as the lingua franca of global reporting
▶ vernacular journalism.

Significant cases: to be selected from the region as relevant.

Assignment: Compare the news coverage of the front pages of a prominent vernacular newspaper/TV network with that of a prominent English-language newspaper/TV network. Is there a difference in their choice of stories, coverage of the news, slant, readership and so on? How?

Readings: select two readings relevant to the region.

Week 12: Emerging media

Theoretical framework:

▶ internet regulation
Significant cases: to be selected from the region as relevant.

**Assignment:** Select a traditional news organization that has expanded its presence on the internet. Evaluate how the news organization has adapted its editorial and news reporting for the online world. What has changed and how? Is there an integration of the newsroom or are they separate for each outlet? Suggest ways the organization can avoid redundancy based on your study.

**Readings:** Briggs (2010); Meikle and Young (2012); Packard (2013), ch. 4, Internet regulation; Van Dijk (2012). Also select two readings relevant to the region.

**Note:** Weeks 13 to 15 can be used for exams, class presentations, field visits and to accommodate additional materials.
References


**Region-specific readings from De Beer (2012) (choose as relevant to the region):**

- Western Europe: Byron T. Scott
- Eastern Europe, the Newly Independent States of Eurasia, and Russia: Allen W. Palmer
- Middle East and North Africa: Orayb A. Najjar
- Sub-Saharan Africa (East, West and South): Minabere Ibelema and Tanja Bosch
- Asia and the Pacific: Jiafei Yin
- Australasia: Stephen Quinn and John Tidey
- Latin America: Federico Subervi
This course is about science and technology journalism, including bioethics with its recent developments over the past three decades in science and technology, classic biomedical problems, environmental issues and other bioethical examples. As part of its pedagogical approach, it seeks to expose students to the real world of scientists, and have them attend selected science lectures at conferences, or have interaction with scientists invited to address students during class time on newsworthy science topics and developments. As part of the curriculum, then, reporting on these lectures and conference proceedings offers an opportunity for student assessment.
**Target group and level of the course:** This core curriculum is directed at journalism and/or science communication students specializing in science journalism and science communication as part of their degree/diploma.

**Course description:** This course aims.

*To teach journalism students a measure of science literacy by exposing them to the important fields of thought and selected theories of science and science communication.* The point of departure is that even if they have studied in natural sciences at an undergraduate level and then follow a specialized journalism course, students have limited knowledge of the trends in science, the methods science uses, the ethics and bioethics in science, and the role science plays in society. In this aspect science journalism students are required to read selected works on science and science history to enable a measure of science literacy, and at a practical level to be exposed to science and the bioethical aspects of science through contact with scientists and researchers.

*To train students to report on scientific findings and developments to the lay public in an accessible way.* The challenge for science reporters, a challenge different from those of other fields in journalism such as political, sports, arts and financial journalism, is to break down the barriers of inaccessibility that peer-reviewed science mostly reflects to the lay public and to translate intricate scientific jargon into what the geneticist J. B. S. Haldane described as a constant return ‘from the unfamiliar facts of science to the familiar facts of everyday experience’. Peer-reviewed science is the method to ensure quality control in science, and it is the task of science journalists to become the bridge between the highly technical and mostly inaccessible jargon by peer-reviewed scientists as reflected in science journals, and the public’s understanding of what scientific findings entail and mean to the public. They thus interpret and translate news about scientific findings to the lay public who can benefit from scientific discoveries and developments. The aims, for example, set out in the seventeenth century by members of the Royal Society on the establishment of a new journal, *Philosophical Transactions*, that ‘The journal would use the language of artisans [sic] countrymen and merchants, before that of wits and scholars’, have fallen by the wayside in modern peer-reviewed science. In bridging this language and communication divide, science journalists and prospective science journalists
studying science journalism must take cognisance of Nobel prize winner Peter Medawar’s criticism of the present-day presentation of peer reviewed science:

The discussion which in the traditional scientific paper goes last should surely come at the beginning. The scientific facts and scientific acts should follow the discussion, and scientists should not be ashamed to admit, as many of them are apparently ashamed to admit, that hypotheses appear in their minds along uncharted byways of thought; that they are imaginative and inspirational in character; that they are indeed adventures of the mind. What, after all, is the good of scientists reproaching others for their neglect of, or indifference to, the scientific style of thinking they set such a great store by, if their own writings show that they have no clear understanding of it? ... The scientific paper is a fraud in the sense that it does give a totally misleading narrative of the processes of thought that go into the making of scientific discoveries.

[Medawar, 1963]

In training science journalism students to write accessibly about science and technology, the environment, bioethics, the relationship between science and pseudoscience as subsections of the course, the aim is for them to become competent facilitators and channels of a scientific worldview to the lay public, as set out by Robert Park: ‘It is not so much knowledge of science that the public needs as a scientific worldview – an understanding that we live in an orderly universe, governed by physical laws that cannot be circumvented’ (2000, italics added).

To teach students basic numerical literacy and how to report on statistical data in science and specifically the health sciences, bioethics and environmental science. Various research studies have shown that journalists often lack numerical skills to interpret statistics and data (Brand, 2008; De Beer and Steyn, 2002; Prinsloo, 2006). In this section selected chapters are used from Cohn (1993), Paulos (1995) and Blastland and Dilnot (2007).

The aim is also to train journalists and journalism students to understand probability theory and the way to handle uncertainty, for example in court cases where forensic data is wrongly interpreted. A case study example is that of Sally
Clarke in the United Kingdom, whose conviction for the murder of her two babies was only overturned after the Royal Statistical Society intervened and expressed grave concern over the handling of issues of uncertainty during her first two trials (Muller, 2012, p. 606).

To teach students the importance of journalists fostering sound partnerships with scientists. The Science Journalism Core Curriculum emphasizes the importance for journalists reporting on science of building a database of trustworthy sources from the scientific community who can assist them in their reporting. Because of the intricacies of science reporting and the difficulty of translating scientific jargon into accessible language to the lay and generally fairly scientifically illiterate public, this partnership is of the utmost importance in accurate science reporting. Various studies have shown that an important facet in the public understanding of science is that the divide between scientists and the media should be bridged. The Economic and Social Research Council in the United Kingdom (ESRC) set out guidelines to scientists on the process of the mutual education of scientists and journalists, emphasizing that it:

needs to be conducted more publicly and coherently and, in particular, in the media. There is no doubt that the media has an enormous impact on public perceptions. It can force governments to abandon policies; persuade businesses and public bodies to adopt new techniques (often based on research findings); and bring the full force of public opinion behind social and economic issues, including academic research.

(ESCR, 1993, p. 2)

The importance of better communication between scientists and journalists was emphasized in the United Kingdom by a Royal Society report as far back as 1985, followed by a workshop on International Indicators of Science and the Public, organized by the Royal Society (2007, p. 4). The 1985 Royal Society report, The Public Understanding of Science, emphasized that:

Scientists must learn to communicate with the public, be willing to do so, and indeed consider it their duty to do so. All scientists need, therefore, to learn about the media and their constraints and learn
how to explain science simply, without jargon and without being condescending.

[Royal Society, 1985, p. 5]

The first comprehensive survey of the relationship between scientists and journalists, conducted in 1996/97 in the USA, similarly emphasized an amicable relationship between scientists and the media, to ensure that scientific literacy would be obtained by the public and to prevent the growth of pseudoscience. In addition, the researchers stressed how the absence of such a friendly relationship can threaten a country’s future [Hartz and Chappell, 1997]. Numerous studies also give attention to this relationship, highlighting the general trend that the relationship between quality science journalists and scientists communicating their findings through the media is an important factor to advance the public understanding of science [Bauer, 2000; Bucchi, 1998, 2004; Claassen, 1991, 1995, 2001a, 2001b, 2011; Hesmondhalgh, 2008; Shukla and Bauer 2007; Webster, 2006].

To teach students the important differences between textbook science and frontier science. One of the most serious problems scientists encounter when dealing with the media is a lack of distinction between textbook science and frontier science, as defined by Bauer: ‘Textbook science is the settled scientific knowledge on which (in natural sciences) one can build one’s own work. In contrast, frontier science is science as it is actually being conducted. Its results have just been obtained, they are uncertain and unconfirmed’ (1992, p. 37).

From the media’s side the failure to distinguish between frontier and textbook science often creates distorted views of new discoveries. Nelkin (1995, pp. 31–2) argues that, as regards scientific discoveries and developments, the media often promote these ‘as the cutting edge of history, the frontier that will transform our lives’, but adds that this frontier (which is characteristic of media reporting on science and technology) is often biased and ‘most apparent in the coverage of computers and biotechnology’.

What often happens in the process of news presentation in the media is that highly complex research findings are reduced to misleading headlines and reports which present deductions which are either exaggerated or blatantly wrong. In this way editors and journalists fail to make a distinction between textbook science – the facts that have been accepted for generations, even centuries, about a
specific scientific field – and frontier science, with all its untested and unverified uncertainties. An example is the controversy in press reports on the cancer-causing pesticide Alar being sprayed on apples. The *Washington Post* admitted in an editorial the media’s distorted reporting: ‘A complicated science issue was allowed to be decided not by officials charged with protecting the public, on the basis of hard evidence, but by a frightened public acting on incomplete and often erroneous press reports’ (1 June 1977).

In the medical field, the media quite often report on medical research findings published in scientific magazines in a sensational way, as if the final word has been spoken about, for example, the causes of cardiovascular disease, diabetes, Alzheimer’s disease or cancer.

Frontier science is thus presented by the media as textbook science, only to be refuted a few months later by a contradictory report. This confuses the public, whose main source of information is the media and not scientific publications. The fault lies with both the media and scientists – the former because they quite often do not understand scientific research as a long process with preliminary findings, and the latter because they do not communicate the intricacies of research findings in a proper, direct way with science journalists, but rather work through secondary channels or media liaison officers. The latter’s debilitating influence on reporting in general and science reporting about medical research specifically, has been illustrated by Davies (2008) and Goldacre (2008, 2012).

Adelmann-Grill, Waksman and Kreutzberg (1995, p. 2) discuss this dichotomy by stating that in textbook science ‘an expert is easily identified’, but they acknowledge that citizens ‘are not much interested in textbook science but in frontier science’.

In the course students should be exposed to case studies in the media of frontier science often being presented as if it already was textbook science, for example the regular reporting of so-called ‘breakthrough’ stories about cancer ‘cures’ or other health ‘cures’. Students should, through direct examples from the media, learn that in science journalism, the word ‘breakthrough’ should be avoided as far as possible in news stories, and particularly the headlines of news stories.

In the study of the difference between textbook science and frontier science, and how the media, and specifically science journalists, should distinguish between the
two, the words of the neuroscientist Simon LeVay should always be applied and remembered:

Mostly, we hear about science’s triumphs – the wonder drugs, the moon landings, the ever-faster computers. But for every brilliant scientific success there are a dozen failures. ... Once in a while, though, science doesn’t just fail – it goes spectacularly, even horribly, wrong.

(LeVay, 2008, p. vii)

The way the media originally report on these failures as breakthroughs can be studied and discussed in class as examples of the pitfalls science journalists should avoid (see also the section on bioethics, page 000, where similar examples are given).

Examples of such case studies (some also applicable to the section on bioethics) are the Virodene case of 1997 in South Africa on a so-called HIV ‘drug’ (see the section on bioethics) and the Hagelin National Demonstration Project to Reduce Violent Crime through Transcendental Meditation of 1993 in Washington DC (Park, 2000, pp. 28–31).

Another example is the mumps–measles–rubella (MMR) vaccination and autism controversy, after the mistaken link between the two was made by researchers (also known as the Andrew Wakefield scandal), published in The Lancet in February 1998² and retracted in February 2010.³ This case study is also invaluable in teaching students the uncertainty aspect of scientific findings, how the peer review process works – and often makes mistakes – and why it should always be treated with caution by science journalists:

Much of health care is based on tenuous evidence and incomplete knowledge. ... Seemingly authoritative statements and accepted medical doctrines, perpetuated through textbooks and lectures, often turn out to be supported by the most meager of evidence, if any can be found.

(Dr Gary Friedman of the Kaiser Organization, quoted in Cohn, 1993, p. 96)

A final example is the claims for the quantum healing of cancer by Deepak Chopra, as made in Quantum Healing and Ageless Body, Timeless Mind:

² www.thelancet.com/journals/lancet/article/PIIS0140-6736(97)11096-0/abstract
³ www.thelancet.com/journals/lancet/article/PIIS0140-6736(10)60175-4/fulltext
The Quantum Alternative to Growing Old (1994). When Chopra discussed the phenomenon of spontaneous remission of cancer, he ascribed it to:

Such patients apparently jump to a new level of consciousness that prohibits the existence of cancer ... this is a quantum jump from one level of functioning to a higher level .... Once known only to physicists, a quantum is the indivisible unit in which waves may be emitted or absorbed.

(quoted in Park, 2000, p. 192)

This is an example of the media’s failure to distinguish between textbook science and frontier science, with Chopra being a regular guest on media talk shows and quite often uncritically used by the media as an ‘expert’ in health treatments without any scientifically based corroborating evidence. As Park says:

Chopra’s message appealed to millions of intelligent, educated people who have come to believe that we live in a universe so strange that anything is possible .... Why wouldn’t they? ... Speculative ideas are an important part of the scientific process. Although many of these ideas will not survive, failing either to account for what is already known or to predict as yet undiscovered phenomena, intellectual exploration stretches the imagination even when it fails. But the distinction between untested (or even untestable) speculation and genuine scientific progress is often lost in media coverage.

(Park, 2000, p. 193)

Interaction with scientists through attendance of selected science conferences as trainee journalists, and interviewing scientists. It is important that students are exposed to the real world of scientists, and attend selected science lectures at conferences, or have interaction with scientists invited to address students during class time on newsworthy science topics and developments. As part of the curriculum, reporting on these lectures and conference proceedings should be measured and evaluated to obtain credits for the course. This practical exposure to scientists and their world is an invaluable instrument to determine the ability of students to understand and report on intricate science topics. It can be evaluated in two forms.
The first is hard-news reporting of science conference lectures or guest lecturers at university departments of journalism. Evaluation of hard-news reporting should be linked to short deadlines for students to hand in assignment reports, as if reporting for the media not later than the following day but even with deadlines for the same day. Students can also be required to write hard-news reports based on research articles by scientists published in peer reviewed journals. The research articles can be handed out in class, and students should be required to write accessible newspaper or internet reports (maximum 400 words), or prepare sound or visual reports for radio and television (maximum three minutes) based on the articles.

The second form of evaluation is of feature article writing in which scientists are interviewed on their work and lives; or feature article writing on specific scientific themes, such as climate change, evolution, the vaccination debate, experimentation and research on animals, bioethics and similar subjects (maximum 2,000 words). The feature writing may also be presented in the format of a radio or television interview (maximum thirty minutes).
To teach students to report on and about the following fields of science. The course aims to prepare students to write hard-news reports and articles on science for publication in newspapers, the internet, magazines, and for reports and actuality programmes broadcast on radio and television. The fields of science are:

1. The environment and climate change

Aspects about climate science to take into consideration when reporting are:

- The politics of climate change science: the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) and its reports, such as Kyoto and the various Conferences of the Parties (COP) reports.
- The role of carbon dioxide (CO2) in climate change.
- Extreme weather patterns and phenomena and how to make sense of it.
- The melting of polar ice and the rise of the oceans.
- Climate change and food production.
- The influence of climate change on and extinction of species.
- The influence of climate change on health.
- Sustainability and the Johannesburg Declaration on Sustainable Development, based on the original definition by the World Commission on Environment and Development (1987): ‘Sustainable development is development that meets the needs of present generations without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their needs.’ The Johannesburg Declaration on Sustainable Development states, inter alia, that a new ethic of conservation and stewardship should be adopted, focusing on:
  - measures to curb global climate change (reduction of emissions of greenhouse gases)
  - conservation and management of all types of forests
  - better use of water resources
  - intensified cooperation to reduce the number and effects of natural and human-made disasters
  - fundamental change in the lives of the affluent
equitable access to resources.

Reading and course material: from Bloom (2010), Hansen (2010), Oreskes and Conway (2010).

2. Bioethics

Contents: The UNESCO Science Journalism Core Curriculum inter alia aims to expose students to the science journalism and communication principles as set out in UNESCO’s Bioethics Core Curriculum, in which the Universal Declaration on Bioethics and Human Rights is utilized as the basic teaching material. The aim is not to impose a specific model of teaching of bioethics, but to provide broad guidelines in bioethics that journalism students should consider and take cognisance of when reporting on bioethical issues.

Bioethics, as set out by the United Nations Universal Declaration on Bioethics and Human Rights, and specifically article 1, refers to ‘This Declaration addresses ethical issues related to medicine, life sciences and associated technologies as applied to human beings, taking into account their social, legal and environmental dimensions.’ This means that a study of bioethics is not only restricted to the medical or ethical field, but needs an interdisciplinary approach. Ethical, social, legal, economic, and political aspects are all related, and journalists and journalism students should take that into consideration when dealing with the term ‘bioethics’.

The justification and goals set out in UNESCO’s Bioethics Core Curriculum as designed for medical students can therefore be applied in adapted form for journalism students (see UNESCO, 2008). Science journalism teaching does not form part of many journalism courses at universities worldwide, and this UNESCO Science Journalism Core Curriculum:

- can provide an incentive to start introducing such teaching. Its contents are based on the principles adopted in UNESCO and articulates ethical principles that are shared by scientific experts,
policy-makers and health professionals from various countries with different cultural, historical and religious backgrounds.

[UNESCO, 2008]

The UNESCO Science Journalism Core Curriculum’s guidelines on bioethics:

furthermore present a core: it defines what should be regarded as the minimum (in terms of teaching hours and contents) for appropriate bioethics teaching. It allows flexible application. It also invites teachers and students to expand its contents and approaches in diverse directions.

[UNESCO, 2008, p. 5]

The following areas in bioethics will be studied so that science journalism students are fully cognisant with the importance of ethical principles guiding research on, for example, stem cells, genetic testing and cloning, benefit sharing, informed consent, privacy and confidentiality, vulnerability, transnational research, non-stigmatization and non-discrimination, justice and equality, referring to the articles of the three Declarations of UNESCO on bioethics.

The aim is to expose science journalism and science communication students to the broad principles of bioethics and how to report on these issues in society in their news evaluation and selection. The main objective is to provide society through sound and accurate journalism with tools to understand what are the bioethical issues at stake, where is the controversy, what are the different approaches and their reasons, enabling them to make up their minds, taking into account the complexity of reality and avoiding the polarized positions. The case studies given as examples below set out some of the issues journalists have to deal with when reporting on bioethical related news events.

These areas are set out in UNESCO’s Universal Declaration on the Human Genome and Human Rights and UNESCO’s Universal Declaration on Bioethics and Human Rights. The guidelines and units of study as set out in UNESCO’s Bioethics Core Curriculum (2008) can be applied to the field of journalism and science journalism specifically. However, this part of the Science Journalism Core Curriculum is an extension and even broadening of the field of media ethics which is presented in most journalism courses at university. It thus becomes a very
specific and applied study of health, medical and bioethical issues as experienced by journalists in their day-to-day reporting.

Areas of bioethics, as applied to journalism, to be studied are [see also the comments on case studies]:

- What is ethics and ethical journalism? The basic ethical guidelines of various news organizations as reflected in the application of ethical codes of conduct by members of the international Organization of Newsombudsmen (Dvorkin, 2011) emphasize the importance of journalists acting ethically in their reporting. With regard to bioethical matters, this poses numerous challenges to journalists. Journalists have to act ethically in their reporting, for instance by reporting news accurately and fairly, by acting independently from pressure and interest groups, and by being accountable to the same norms they expect from society.

- What is bioethics and why is it important for journalists and science communicators to understand it in their reporting of news?

- Reporting on human dignity and human rights in bioethics (Article 3).

- Reporting on benefit and harm in bioethics (Article 4).

- Reporting on autonomy and individual responsibility in bioethics (Article 5).

- Reporting on consent in bioethics (Article 6) and on persons without the capacity to consent (Article 7).

- Respect for human vulnerability and personal integrity and why journalists should always value these aspects in their reporting (Article 8).

- Respecting privacy and confidentiality in bioethical reporting: the boundaries as set out by bioethical universal declarations and media ethics (Article 9).

- Reporting on equality, justice and equity in bioethics (Article 10).

- Respecting the principles of non-discrimination and non-stigmatization in reporting on bioethics (Article 11).

- Respect for cultural diversity and pluralism in reporting on bioethics (Article 12).

- Solidarity and cooperation in reporting on bioethics (Article 13).

- Social responsibility and health in reporting on bioethics (Article 14).

- Sharing of benefits in reporting on bioethics (Article 15).

- Reporting on the protection of future generations in bioethics (Article 16).
Protection of the environment, the biosphere and biodiversity and in reporting on these issues (Article 17). See also part 1 of the Science Journalism Core Curriculum on Reporting on the Environment and Climate Change.

**Study material:** An important aspect of bioethics is the relationship between science and pseudoscience. A separate, defined section on this can be found as section 5 of this syllabus. The following reading material could be used as background to a broad understanding of the bioethical standards journalists should be aware of and respect when reporting on bioethical issues and also set out examples of pseudoscientific thinking and phenomena in society (also refer to section 5 and its study material): Gibbs (2008), McGee (2012), UNESCO (2011a), Vaughan (2012); and UNESCO’s Universal Declaration on Bioethics and Human Rights, Universal Declaration on the Human Genome and Human Rights, and International Declaration on Human Genetic Data.

**Case studies:** Case studies form an important part of ethics and this section on bioethics could include some of the following examples.

Why should the privacy of a patient be respected by reporters with regard to the cause of any illness, for instance in the case of someone living with HIV/AIDS or tuberculosis? A case study in the South African courts confirmed the right of patients to privacy about their illness (Simpson, 1996).

How should journalists report on claims made by scientists when those so-called scientific ‘breakthroughs, have not yet been peer reviewed, or when peer-reviewed science has been refuted and retracted by a science journal? Examples are:

- The Virodene case of 1997 in South Africa on a so-called HIV ‘drug’. The claim made by researchers at the University of Pretoria was never peer reviewed but the media did not make that distinction (Sidley, 1997, p. 450).
- The human stem cell cloning scandal of Hwang Woo Suk. The original research was published in *Science*, but later retracted when the fraud came to light (Kennedy, 2006 gives the report on the investigation and the magazine’s response to it). The issue here at stake is how journalists report on this type of controversy and whether they report on it in a balanced and ethical way.
- The cold fusion controversy after claims made at a news conference on 23 March 1989 on the campus of the University of Utah in Salt Lake City by chemists Stanley Pons and Martin Fleischmann that they had discovered in a laboratory ‘a sustained fusion reaction by means that are considerably simpler
than conventional techniques’ (Palmer et al., 1989). The story was broken by the British Financial Times and the Wall Street Journal:

The Wall Street Journal would run unfailingly optimistic cold fusion stories over the coming weeks, and even carry an editorial using the episode to boast that it was the leader in covering new technological developments. The University of Utah was using the Wall Street Journal to sell cold fusion, and the Wall Street Journal would use cold fusion to sell papers.

(Park, 2000, p. 15)

The low carbohydrate-high fat diet to counter diabetes 2 as proposed by Professor Tim Noakes in 2012 (Noakes, 2012). An example of how the media distorted the science is the website Health24’s superficial test with two people as the test group. Although Noakes is a highly regarded and reputable sports scientist, his research on this diet was never peer reviewed or published in a peer-reviewed journal.

Where do the boundaries of privacy lie when journalists report on decisions taken by patients to donate or receive an organ? Most countries’ health departments have specific rules on protecting the identity of organ donors and receivers. Should this rule be absolute? Journalism students following this syllabus could learn a lot by being exposed to case studies, for example by comparing the first heart transplant coverage in the media in December 1967 with recent trends protecting donors and receivers. And where does the right of privacy end and the public interest to know the names of donors and/or receivers of organs begin? An important case study is that of the former South African minister of health, Dr Manto Tshabalala-Msimang, who received a liver transplant in 2007 after jumping the queue – an action exposed by the Sunday Times newspaper, which was sued by the minister and the hospital group where her medical records were stolen and provided to the paper.

Why should journalists be specifically receptive to the vulnerability of the ill, frail and aged, young, disabled and other forms of fragility and how do they report on this?

5  www.legalbrief.co.za/filemgmt_data/files/Tshabalala-Msimang per cent20v per cent20Makhanya.pdf
How do journalists report on the trauma of death and specifically suicide because of mental health factors? And where are the boundaries of privacy in this regard? Good guidelines for journalists exist:

More than 50 research studies worldwide have found that certain types of news coverage can increase the likelihood of suicide in vulnerable individuals. The magnitude of the increase is related to the amount, duration and prominence of coverage. Risk of additional suicides increases when the story explicitly describes the suicide method, uses dramatic/graphic headlines or images, and repeated/extensive coverage sensationalizes or glamorizes a death. Covering suicide carefully, even briefly, can change public’s perceptions and correct myths which can encourage those who are vulnerable or at risk to seek help.6

Human suffering and misery express human vulnerability. They also pose a challenge, as UNESCO’s Core Curriculum on Bioethics states. How do journalists take the suffering of humans and the misery caused by disease, poverty and other causes into consideration when doing their work? An example is the Pulitzer Prize-winning photograph by Kevin Carter of a dying child with a vulture in the background, taken in Southern Sudan in 1993. When is the publication of pictures like these in the public interest?

Do journalists have the right to report on the private information of someone’s genetics, and if so, where do the boundaries lie? An important case study is that of Henrietta Lacks, a black tobacco farmer with five children whose DNA was illegally used to develop vaccines and whose case made international news headlines in 2013.7 This bioethical issue is well set out for journalists and journalism students in Fulda and Kylen’s peer reviewed article, ‘Ethical issues in predictive genetic testing: a public health perspective’ [2006].

Science and society: the science wars and science debates

Science journalism students should be exposed to the philosophical debates about the nature of science in society. The aim should not be to study the issue of the public understanding of science (PUS), as that is another extended field of study, but rather that journalists and journalism students should have a clear

6  http://reportingonsuicide.org/
7  www.nytimes.com/2013/03/24/opinion/sunday/the-immortal-life-of-henrietta-lacks-the-sequel.html?pagewanted=all&_r=0
understanding of the debates in science that influence the credibility and status of science and scientists in society. Attention is *inter alia* given to:

- C.P. Snow’s two cultures debate (1959).
- Postmodernism and the science wars between the social sciences and natural sciences: Dawkins (2003), Sokal and Bricmont (1998a, 1998b).

### 3. The relationship between scientists and the media

As set out in the course description, the relationship between scientists and the media can play an important role in the public’s acceptance of scientific findings and members of the public’s understanding of scientific issues. This is especially important in matters relating to health and the social role of science in society.

- Why scientists should communicate better and improve their communication skills;
- The duty of the media to report accurately on science.


### 4. Health reporting

Media consumer surveys regularly point out that health issues and medical stories mostly feature high on the list of popularity among readers of newspapers and the internet, radio listeners and television viewers. Health reporting should therefore be a central part of any core curriculum of science journalism. The following areas of study should be included in such a curriculum:
▶ **Statistical data in health reporting:** Refer to the course description at the beginning of this syllabus. (How to report on statistical data in health reporting). Reading: selected chapters from Cohn (1993), Blastland and Dilnot (2007), Paulos (1995)

▶ **Ethics in health reporting:** HIV/AIDS, cancer, mental diseases, stem cell research and experimentation. Refer also to section 2 on Bioethical reporting.

▶ **Reporting on lifestyle and its influence on health:** smoking, exercise, obesity, alcohol abuse and use, drug abuse, diet.

▶ **Alternative healthcare and mainstream medical science:** how to judge health claims.

▶ **Political policy on health:** how political decisions and policy influence health sciences: HIV/AIDS, stem cell research, medical funds, smoking, alcohol, lifestyle, food policy and diet. See also the section on reporting on bioethics.

▶ **Health quackery.** See the section on science and pseudoscience.

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### 5. Science and pseudoscience

*(See also the section on bioethics.)*

Some of the most serious criticism of the media is of the way the media fail to make a distinction between valid scientific findings and pseudoscientific claims not based on scientific evidence. Students should be exposed to a thorough analysis of the scientific method and how to distinguish between peer-reviewed science and pseudoscientific claims, how to judge and weigh claims made in the name of science, and so on.

Case studies form an important part of this section, and could include some of the following examples:

▶ bioethics and pseudoscience [see section on bioethics]

▶ the evolution/creation/intelligent design debate

▶ The MMR vaccination and autism debate

▶ the HIV/AIDS debate in South Africa and elsewhere in the developing world

▶ climate change denialism and the effect it has on political decision-making.

**Grading and evaluation:** Credits allocated to the various fields of study within the Science Journalism Core Curriculum are:

- Science writing and reporting I (hard news): fifteen credit hours
- Science writing and reporting II (feature writing and reporting): fifteen credit hours
- Science and the mass media: bridging the divide: six credit hours
- Reporting on the environment and climate change: six credit hours
- Statistics for journalists: six credit hours
- Science and society: the science wars and debates: six credit hours
- Weighing the evidence: science, pseudoscience and the scientific method: six credit hours
- Reporting on bioethics, medicine and health: ten credit hours

Total seventy hours (credits will vary from programme to programme, whether as part of undergraduate or postgraduate studies).

**Number of hours per week:** two and a half over a twenty-eight-week period.
References and list of required or recommended readings


This course is about how strategic gender analysis can be enlisted in journalistic production. It describes and analyses how gender inequalities are culturally produced, and reproduced by media organizations, providing an opportunity for students to critically interrogate and challenge their own stereotypical assumptions.
**Level:** This course can be offered at undergraduate level, as part of a related course on writing and reporting.

**Course description:** The objective of this course is to allow for reflection on the importance of gender, not only in society, but also in the content of stories and information supplied by the media. Therefore, the management of the media, especially issues concerning governance, form an intrinsic part of the course. Since policy serves to direct, the significance of editorial policies and how gender ought to be mainstreamed in such policies is addressed.

**Mode:** Lectures, presentations, case studies and workshops.

**The pedagogical approach:** In most countries gender is rarely incorporated in journalism curricula. Therefore, it is often through further study, short courses or dynamic and informed leadership in media houses that an awareness of the relevance of gender in journalism is nurtured. This course seeks to help students to understand the concept ‘gender’ within the framework of the work of journalists, such as the gathering of information, sources, and language that reflects inclusiveness and that is free of bias or stereotypical nuances. The aim is to contribute towards developing sound journalistic practice by ensuring that the voices of women and men are heard in stories, and as a result, ensuring fairness and balance.
**Course outline**

**Topic 1: The gendered perspective**

This looks at the impact of gender on culture, people’s social roles, opportunities and corporate, social and private interactions. Gender forms an integral part of human life, and impacts on beliefs, perceptions and expectations. Gender determines the different roles ascribed by societies to men and women. Various definitions of gender are discussed, as well as why it is often equated with a definition of sex.

**Topic 2: The impact of journalism: Liesbet Van Zoonen (1994, p. 48) described journalism as gendered.**

Since the internal organization of the media is gendered – as are most other enterprises – journalistic production therefore is also gendered. Women in management are still rare in the media industry. The same applies to women who serve on boards of media houses. Furthermore, it is not only the number of women represented that matters, but also the role they play and the importance afforded to their comments. The number of women in the Western media increased a lot in the last few decades, but we have not seen real changes in the production itself. The Global Media Monitoring Project (GMMP, 2010) addresses this paradoxical parallel trend. Of importance in this regard is a study ‘Glass ceilings: women and men in Southern Africa media’ (Made and Lowe-Morna, 2009), which presents the data and findings from 126 media houses operating in fourteen of the fifteen Southern African Development Community (SADC) countries.

**Topic 3: Understanding gender stereotypes and gender bias**

Gender stereotypes and gender bias hamper the progress especially of women within the media, as well as fairness because of perceived differences between men and women. Gender bias requires a discussion of concepts such as double
standards, blaming and moralizing. Unless these concepts are unpacked, the production of the news will continue to depict society from the perspective of the male. All over the world women presented as competent analysts or eminent specialists are much less frequent than the men. Moreover the African-regional statistic according to the GMMP is that only 19 per cent of sources are women, while the global statistic is that women make up 24 per cent of sources (GMMP, 2010).

The impact of these stereotypes on journalism is important, particularly since the journalism profession is a credible institution and is self-claimed to reflect the truth. It also holds considerable implications for the teaching of journalism.

**Topic 4: The selection and hierarchy of the news**

Since the selection and structure of the news occurs within a specific culture, it is gendered. The choices made and importance afforded certain events in information have been inherited from the male tradition of the sector. Therefore, women’s concerns and views are under-represented by these decisions (Made and Lowe-Morna, 2009).

Some people believe that the feminine approach to topics and the beats covered by women journalists are more humane, less violent and less conflict-centred. This must be moderated by the fact that women arrived in the media at the same time as new practices: in particular, at the time of the story telling tradition. Such practices tend to be more emotionally directed than former journalistic narratives.

Violence against women, such as rape and domestic violence, is often presented as a commonplace subject like burglary or car accidents, as news in brief, and rarely as a political and social problem (Romito, 2008). Reportage on these topics often portrays women as victims rather than survivors, which negatively influences the perception of women on the part of media consumers.

**Topic 5: The language used in the media**

Language usage is often sexist, and obscures the role and effectiveness of women. In most European languages, the grammatical gender is hierarchical. The
male represents the general and includes the female in the plural. Words are a vision of the world and performative (Austin, 1962). Even though many countries (such as Luxembourg, Switzerland, France, Belgium and Canada) have published non-sexist writing guides, non-sexist language is very slow in making its way into the newsroom. And even more, the journalistic language still uses a male vocabulary marked with sport and warrior metaphors.

Many words exclude women, but more inclusive terms are available: for instance, ancestors instead of forefathers, fire fighters instead of firemen. There are words that exclude men, too, such as chambermaid instead of hotel worker, cleaning woman instead of cleaner, housewife instead of homemaker, and prostitute instead of sex worker (Inter Press Service, 2010).

**Topic 6: Magazines for women and female teenagers contribute considerably to the social conditioning of women**

Editorial and advertising content subscribes to gender stereotypes. For example the standards of fashion and beauty, the development of domestic and family skills, the satisfaction of the needs of the others and gaining the attention of men, are common themes in such publications (Caron, 2003).

Advertising reinforces conservative views on the role of women and their interests, such as cooking and interior design, cosmetics, fashion and hair care. The models used by agencies for fashion shoots and in advertisements of women’s magazines tend to be unrealistic, and perpetuate unattainable standards of the beauty prescribed for women. Furthermore, the women featured are predominantly of Western/European origin rather than African, for example. The case of using skin lighteners – which caused a great deal of harm – bears testimonies to unrealistic renditions of beauty. The impact of this clash on the self-respect and esteem of girls and women is important.

The Study ‘Gender and advertising in Southern Africa’ (Lowe Morna and Ndlovu, 2007) presents interesting findings, such as:

- Women are more likely to feature in advertisements than as news sources (women are seen rather than heard);
- Older women are virtually nonexistent in advertisements;
Men are the voice of authority;
Consumers have a higher degree of gender consciousness than advertisers imagine.

**Topic 7: Journalists treat men and women in politics differently**

The media coverage of women in untraditional fields like politics or business is frequently unfair. Reportage concerning women in politics often insists more on the image of the woman candidate, what she is wearing and how she looks. It also tends to focus more on her personal and family life and less on her political ideologies, experience, ability and goals.

Women’s participation in political and social activities in the world is still much lower than male participation. The gender-blind coverage could be a possible reason for this under-representation, and should be investigated.

‘The gender dimensions of macroeconomic policy, budgets, trade, work and business are among the least understood by policy makers, media decision-makers and media practitioners’ (Lowe-Morna, 2006, p. 6). For example, gender neutral rather than gender-aware budgets often mean that the discrepancies are hidden behind the numbers. At first glance the figures might look acceptable, but they tend to mask resource allocations which could serve to perpetuate gender inequalities.

**Topic 8: TV journalism has a major impact on the way we build our conception of the society**

In developed countries the majority of people still purport to get information mainly through television. Unfortunately, all the subjects of the developed criticisms made above are found in a concentrated form in television programmes.

Women hit the ‘glass ceiling’ in media houses at senior management positions [Made and Lowe-Morna, 2009]. For example, only 23 per cent of the top managers in Southern Africa media houses are women. Because of this, numerous wage and professional disparities still exist between men and women in media houses.
According to Ferial Haffejee, editor-in-chief of City Press, Johannesburg, South Africa, ‘The next frontier is women’s ownership of media. It is already happening in West Africa where markets are smaller and less monopolised. If you own it, you can really make an impact’ (Made and Lowe-Morna, 2009, back cover).

**Topic 9: Radio journalism appears to have lost its appeal in many developed countries**

Programming for radio is centred around the expression of opinions and comments or on music and entertainment. In some radio stations centred on comments, women are often victims of insults, and certain trash radios let misogynous comments go on the air.

However, especially in the developing world and rural communities, radio is often the most important source of information. But the place of women on the air was and still is tenuous. The best programming hours are still occupied by men. Women were – and still are, sometimes – confronted by a systemic discrimination linked to voice quality, since their voices are naturally of a higher pitch. They are considered too high pitched for some people, compared with male voices.

Community radio remains the stepchild of all media. It is largely dependent on volunteers, and retaining staff is a struggle because as soon as the volunteers have some training under the belt, they are attracted to commercial radio stations where the remuneration is better. Yet it is often community radio that reflects a diversity of sources – women and men – who are often overlooked in the mainstream media.

**Topic 10: The future**

Journalistic practices are changing as a result of new technologies, such as social media. This holds implications for revenue generated as well as innovative thinking. The internet revolution gave access to a huge body of information, and facilitated access to information even in countries where information and the media are not free.
Many groups – some of them feminist – bypass the traditional media and talk directly on the internet. But for now, their impact is not as important as classical media, and they address a public that has been conquered beforehand. But cyber dialogues have granted diverse individuals such as academics, caregivers of persons living with AIDS, students and home-makers the opportunity to debate topics such as sexual harassment and gender-based violence.

At a time when there is an abundance of information, it can be difficult to select between that which is considered relevant information and propaganda.

Some women journalists are playing an important role in their countries, but many have been threatened, subjected to violent crime, rape or even murdered. According to Reporters sans frontières\(^8\) many women journalists in Iraq are victims of violence, with twelve of them killed between 2003 and 2011. Two Western women journalists were sexually assaulted in Tahrir Square in Egypt. Such an intimidating scenario could lead to a strong backlash and, perhaps even a step in the wrong direction for women journalists (see Storm and Williams, 2012).

References


Asociación Civil Artemisa Comunicación. Gender and Journalism, documentary series, Argentina (www.artemisanoticias.com.ar)


HUMANITARIAN JOURNALISM
Ibrahim Seaga Shaw

This course introduces students to critical debates on the media and the political economy of humanitarian interventions involving state and civil society actors. Attempts are made to compare and contrast human rights reporting and humanitarian or human rights journalism. It thus sets the scene for an exploration of some of the national and international political, legal, economic and cultural structures that impact on the realization of the rights of people, placing journalistic practice right at the heart of such structures.
**Level of course:** Final year module in BA (Hons) Journalism.

**Aims and objectives:** This module will equip students with knowledge and understanding of the critical role of the journalist – as a duty bearer – in the promotion and protection of human rights in times of peace or crisis. We have lived in an era of human rights ever since the Declaration of Universal Human Rights in 1948, which saw nation-states making legally binding commitments to uphold and protect the rights of their citizens and others against violations. Yet these pledges largely remain rhetorical. This is so because governments have at the same time been busy jealously guarding their own sovereignty, cracking down on the slightest threat to national security or public order. Sometimes they even sponsor violations of the political, economic, social and/or cultural rights of their citizens and/or others.

The aim of this module is to acquaint students with the critical theoretical and practical tools of humanitarian journalism, which seeks to address the divide between the many pledges of human rights often made by leaders of governments and humanitarian NGOs and what really happens on the ground. Drawing on recent case studies, the module explores journalism’s shortcomings (human wrongs journalism), as well as its remarkable potential (human rights journalism) to facilitate a holistic human rights-approach to reporting near and distant human suffering. It thus examines, both normatively and empirically, the reporting of some of the critical human rights issues such as gender, children, education, health (including AIDS), censorship, environment, torture, prison conditions, human trafficking, ethnic cleansing, genocide, poverty, famine and immigration.

Students are introduced to the important principles of the rights-based approach to reporting human rights violations: namely linkages to human rights standards, participation, accountability, non-discrimination and empowerment. They are encouraged to explore the evocative and diagnostic genres of framing humanitarian crises, both human-made and natural, within the context of humanitarian interventions and the responsibility to protect. The emphasis is on helping students to develop the critical analytical techniques they need to serve the social responsibility role of journalism within the context of humanitarian journalism. The course critically examines the legal, professional and moral obligations of journalists as witnesses to all kinds of human rights violations.
It also examines the role of new media platforms such as citizen journalism and social media in humanitarian campaigns, and the implications for human rights journalism.

This module also examines the moral, professional, ethical and legal challenges journalists negotiate as they go about reporting humanitarian crises.

**Learning outcomes:** By the end of this module, students should:

- have the conceptual and practical knowledge and tools to investigate and report on all human rights abuses
- have a better understanding of the diagnostic and evocative styles of reporting the protection and violation of human rights principles and issues
- understand the approaches and techniques needed, and be aware of the challenges involved, to monitor and evaluate the principles and issues of human rights in national and global contexts
- be sensitive to manipulation and distortion by political and humanitarian civil society stakeholders in the reporting of humanitarian crises.

**Mode of delivery:** A combination of lectures, seminars/workshops, field work and group presentations.

**Pedagogical approach or method:** The module takes the form of a combination of lectures and seminars. The learning outcomes of each lecture and seminar week are aligned to the overall learning outcomes of the module (see above). The lectures enable the tutor to discuss theories and case studies in an in-depth manner. The seminars are structured to reflect the core issues and themes of the lectures. The lecturer should frame the content of each seminar and outline the aim and outcomes.

Each seminar contains a discussion component which requires full student participation. This sometimes includes images and textual materials which students debate in groups, and relate to the theoretical issues raised within the relevant lectures and indicative readings. Students then relay their ideas back to the entire class and the lecturer. Lecture materials, seminar guidelines and
module information should be made available to the students electronically ahead of the lectures.

Although this is mainly conceived of as a critical conceptual and reflective module, it includes some practical elements by way of group presentations and fieldwork. These presentations will be based on the findings of the fieldwork by the students, with each group choosing one of the key human rights issues studied in the module (such as gender, children, education, health [including AIDS], censorship, environment, torture, prison conditions, human trafficking, ethnic cleansing, genocide, poverty, famine or immigration) and investigating how state and civil society actors, as well local journalists, have been handling it as ‘duty bearers’.

The number of groups will depend on the size of the class. A class of fifty or sixty students can have ten groups, with two groups presenting every week in five weeks spread across the eleven weeks duration of the module. Eighty per cent of the teaching/seminar and assessment reflects the critical conceptual and reflective framework of the course and 20 per cent of field work, presentation and assessment reflects the practical aspect of the course.

Grading and assessment:

Group field work and class presentation: 20 per cent.

Essay (2,500 words): 40 per cent.

Exam: 40 per cent. (Essay type questions. Two sections covering ten questions, with students required to answer two questions, one from each section.)

Number of hours per week and semester: This module is designed to be delivered in the second semester over a period of eleven weeks covering forty-four hours. It is delivered through eleven lectures and twenty-two seminars/workshops. There should be one lecture and two seminars/workshops per week. Each lecture lasts two hours while each seminar/workshop lasts one hour.
Course outline

Lecture 1: A historical and conceptual framework of human rights reporting

This lecture provides a brief introduction to the module and the historical development of humanitarian reporting from the days of James Creelman in the nineteenth century. It traces the origins of human rights reporting to the emergence of the mass circulation newspaper in America in the 1890s when foreign correspondents reporting from the world’s hot spots were celebrated for their bravery in reporting human rights abuses within the context of ‘yellow journalism’.

The lecture and seminars examine the following questions:

- What do you consider to be the strengths and weaknesses of the humanitarian reporting of James Creelman?
- Why did Creelman prefer ‘honest’ journalism over ‘objective’ journalism in his human rights reporting?
- How did he strike a balance between ‘yellow journalism’ and ‘accuracy’ or ‘truth’ in his human rights reporting?

Key readings: Behr (1992), Moritz (2006), Shaw (2012b) ch. 3, section 3.

Lecture 2: From human rights reporting to human rights journalism

This lecture examines the conceptualization of humanitarian journalism in the twenty-first century. It explores the traditional conceptualizations of human rights reporting – exposing human rights abuses and freedom of expression – and shows how they relate to humanitarian journalism. It also shows how human rights reporting compares with alternative models of journalism. The lecture and seminars examine the following questions:

- What is humanitarian journalism and how is it different from human rights reporting and war reporting?
How is human rights journalism different from peace journalism and global journalism?

Why is human rights journalism important to journalism studies and practice?

Key readings: Lovasen (2008), Plaisance (2002), Shaw (2012b) chs 2 and 3 [on Expanding peace journalism].

Lecture 3: Journalism and the UN Human Rights Charter

This lecture explores key UN human rights conventions and subject-specific resolutions; free speech trade-offs such as hate speech, security and public order; and information interventions. It shows how they help or undermine the reporting of humanitarian crisis. The lecture and seminars examine the following questions:

- How important are the key UN human rights conventions and subject-specific resolutions to the humanitarian journalist?
- How is the right to freedom of expression important to the work of the human rights journalist?
- To what extent can free speech trade-offs and information interventions, and/or lack of them, undermine humanitarian journalism?


Lecture 4: The journalist as the watchdog of human rights principles and issues

This lecture examines the role of the journalist in serving as the watchdog in the observance of the human rights principles such as human rights standards, participation, accountability, non-discrimination and empowerment. It also examines the key role of the journalist in holding power to account on human rights issues such as such as gender, children, education, health (including AIDS), censorship, environment, torture, prison conditions, human trafficking, ethnic cleansing, genocide, poverty, famine and immigration in national and global contexts.

The lecture and seminar examine the following questions:
How important are the five principles of human rights to the reporting of key human rights issues? Give examples.

Explain how a humanitarian journalist can benefit from the human rights principles of participation and non-discrimination in reporting human rights violations against women, disabled persons and AIDS patients.

Explain how a humanitarian journalist can benefit from the human rights principles of accountability and empowerment in reporting human rights violations against the poor and the disadvantaged?

Key readings: Beman and Calderbank (2008) chs 6 and 7; Hamelink (2004); Shaw (2012b) ch. 12.

Lecture 5: Investigative journalism and humanitarian journalism

This lecture looks at investigative and interpretative skills for humanitarian journalism: from evocative to diagnostic reporting of humanitarian crises. Important global and national case studies are studied to examine the extent to which the genre of investigative journalism employed reflects humanitarian journalism, and explore lessons for improving critical conceptual understanding and practice.

The lecture and seminars examine the following questions:

- How important is investigative journalism to humanitarian journalism? Give examples.
- What do you consider to be the strengths and weaknesses of an evocative genre of reporting to humanitarian journalism?
- What do you consider to be the strengths and weaknesses of a diagnostic genre of reporting to humanitarian journalism?

Key readings: Hawkins (2002), Hoijer (2004), Shaw (2012b) ch. 5.

Lecture 6: The role of the journalist as a neutral or moral witness

This lecture explores the role of the journalist as a neutral or moral witness to human rights violations. It examines the cosmopolitan theory of human rights journalism in juxtaposition with realist political theory. It explores the
human rights and realist paradigms in the context of the otherwise conflicting UN principles of state sovereignty and non-intervention traced to the Treaty of Westphalia in 1648 and the Responsibility to Protect norm adopted in 2005. It also examines the debate involving the professional paradoxes of journalistic neutrality and morality.

The lecture and seminars examine the following questions:

▶ Can the humanitarian journalist be a neutral witness to human suffering caused by human rights violations carried out by state or civil society actors? Use examples to support your arguments.
▶ What challenges face a journalist as a moral witness to human rights violations, especially crimes against humanity?
▶ Discuss three human rights principles you consider to be very close to the moral obligations of the humanitarian or human rights journalist.

Key readings: Lee et al. (2006); Plaisance (2002); Rantanen (2007); Shaw (2012b) ch. 8, section 1, p.144; Tester (2001).

Lecture 7: Legal, ethical, and structural challenges in humanitarian journalism

This lecture studies the legal, ethical and structural challenges facing journalists reporting humanitarian crises, drawing on recent case studies from situations of humanitarian disasters and armed conflicts in Africa, Asia, North America and the Middle East. It examines case studies where journalists struggled to practise humanitarian journalism in the face of these challenges, as well those who managed to overcome them.

The lecture and seminars examine the following questions:

▶ Discuss the legal constraints that stand in the way of the humanitarian journalist. Give examples.
▶ What are the key ethical issues and dilemmas the human rights journalist needs to negotiate in reporting all forms of human suffering caused by rights violations?
▶ ‘News room and societal structures make human rights journalism a mission impossible.’ Discuss.
Lecture 8: Stereotypes, manipulations and distortions in reporting humanitarian crises

This lecture explores the negative use of stereotypes, manipulations and distortions in the reporting of human suffering in situations of environmental disasters and other crises, and their wider implications for humanitarian journalism and global justice. It looks at case studies in the USA, the West Indies, South-East Asia and Africa.

The lecture and seminars examine the following questions:

► Using one humanitarian disaster or armed conflict as a case study, discuss how stereotypes can be used to distort the reality of human suffering.
► Discuss the role of relief aid workers as sources of information in humanitarian journalism.
► Discuss some of the challenges humanitarian journalists face in dealing with relief aid workers, especially in very complex humanitarian crises.


Lecture 9: Journalism and the political economy of humanitarian intervention

This lecture examines the role of journalism in the political economy of humanitarian interventions. It explores the growing debate in academic and civil society activism circles about how journalists are often complicit in the hidden political and economic agendas informing decisions of humanitarian interventions to alleviate or prevent desperate human suffering, ranging from military to relief/aid interventions. The aim of this lecture is to generate students’ critical interest in these debates and prepare them for their future practice.

The lecture and seminars examine the following questions:
What do we mean by the political economy of humanitarian interventions, and how does it impact on humanitarian journalism?

What is the role of the political and civil society elites in the political economy of humanitarian interventions?

Using a case study of humanitarian disaster or armed conflict, discuss how issues of national interest, media bottom line and humanitarian fundraising undermine the quality of humanitarian journalism.

**Key readings:** Alagiah (2001); Brauman and Backmann (1996); Chandler (2002); Chouliaraki (2006); Shaw (2012b), ch. 8.

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**Lecture 10: New media and humanitarianism public relations: case study of the Kony 2012 video**

This lecture critically examines the role of new media in facilitating humanitarian campaigns aimed at raising funds to support distant suffering populations caught up in crisis. It discusses the extent to which the famous Kony 2012 campaign video released by the US humanitarian advocacy organization Invisible Children against the human rights violations of Uganda’s rebel leader Joseph Kony was proof of the power of social media to foster a cosmopolitan public sphere, or a demonstration of its capacity to reinforce the political economy of humanitarian public relations and fundraising.

The lecture and seminars examine the following questions:

- Drawing on case studies from the Arab Spring, discuss the unique role of citizen journalism and social media in humanitarian journalism.
- Using the Kony 2012 humanitarian video campaign as a case study, discuss the strengths and weaknesses of social media in humanitarian journalism.
- Discuss some of the ethical and legal challenges facing journalists of online media platforms in reporting human suffering.

**Key readings:** Cone (2012), Madianou (2012), Shaw (2012b) ch. 9, section 9:3, p.174.
Lecture 11: The risks and dangers of humanitarian journalism

This lecture examines the dangers of human rights journalism, survival strategies, and international humanitarian law. It explores the risks journalists face in trying to report human rights abuses in situations of crisis. It examines the effectiveness of the legal and other structural safeguards by the International Red Cross and other human rights organizations to reduce the risks and dangers of humanitarian journalism. Two video clips should be played in class.

The lecture and seminars examine the following questions:

- Using case studies of one armed conflict and one humanitarian disaster, discuss the risks journalists face in bearing witness to human suffering.
- Discuss the implications of ‘embedded journalism’ on the reporting of humanitarian crises.
- Are the legal safeguards under international humanitarian law enough to protect journalists covering very complex humanitarian crises?

Key readings: Geiss [2010], International News Safety Institute [2003].

Comments

This course is designed for final-year BA in journalism students. For a Master’s degree programme, it would be appropriate to do a more detailed engagement of the journalistic monitoring and evaluation of the human rights principles and issues in both the national and global contexts; crisis communication and humanitarian propaganda discourses of specialist humanitarian organizations such as UNICEF, WFP, UNDP, UNHCR, UNHRC, Oxfam and MSF; a more detailed discussion of the political economy of humanitarian interventions; the symbiotic, and sometimes tense and suspicious, relationships between humanitarian journalists and humanitarian workers; free speech and humanitarian information interventions; the reporting of cold and hot conflicts; responsibility to protect and journalism, journalism, impunity and the international criminal justice system, and so on.
Recommended readings and references


This course raises awareness among journalism students of the phenomenon of human trafficking as one of the first steps to be taken in the fight against it. It demonstrates how the media play an indispensable role in educating people and in creating awareness about human trafficking. It applies investigative journalism to the global problem of human trafficking, underpinning its pedagogy with the need to make visible a phenomenon that is all too easily ignored by many mainstream media organizations.
**Level:** This course can be offered as a final-year elective in a bachelor’s degree programme in journalism.

**Aims and objectives:** Slavery has formally been abolished in virtually every part of the world, but human trafficking is a modern form of slavery – one that is often hidden from view. To tackle a hidden problem, it must be made visible, and raising awareness in a wide variety of fields is vital to making human trafficking visible. This module on human trafficking and investigative journalism contributes to enhancing awareness in two ways.

First of all, it is important to make journalists aware of human trafficking so that they are able to pick up the signs of this phenomenon. Issues that will be addressed include the following. What is human trafficking? What forms does it take? Who are the victims and who are the perpetrators? How to recognize the victims? Where do human trafficking situations arise? How can it be prevented and combatted? How can victims be protected?

Second, journalists can provide the wider public with evidence-based information on human trafficking. The fight against human trafficking will be more effective when it is based on reliable and accurate information.

The structure of the module is as follows:

- **Week 1:** Introduction to human trafficking
- **Week 2:** The legal definition of human trafficking
- **Week 3:** Research and monitoring
- **Week 4:** Human trafficking: sexual exploitation
- **Week 5:** International labour migration and labour exploitation
- **Week 6:** Human trafficking for the purpose of the removal of organs
- **Week 7:** The fight against human trafficking in an international framework
- **Week 8:** The role of the media and ethical dilemmas
Learning outcomes: By the end of this module, the link between human trafficking and investigative journalism will be evident and will be usable by future investigative journalists through the following:

▶ knowledge of the problem of human trafficking, including the main concepts, variety of perspectives, push-and-pull factors and its relationship with other crimes
▶ knowledge of the differences between smuggling and human trafficking
▶ knowledge about stakeholders in the international fight against human trafficking
▶ knowledge of how to research the issues related to international and domestic human trafficking and the ability to recognize human trafficking and to place it in the context of existing situations
▶ an understanding of the main challenges involved in doing research on human trafficking
▶ an understanding of the role of the media in the fight against human trafficking, including an understanding of the ethical dilemmas involved in using the media in this fight.

Mode of delivery: lectures, seminar discussions and assignments.

Number of hours per week: three hours of class time, two hours of reading and research. Participants are expected to be able to read about fifteen pages an hour (depending on the density of the text). The minimum amount of literature for this course is 120 pages (see the required readings). A list of recommended readings is also included.

Required resources: computers with internet access to readings.
Course outline

Week 1: Introduction to human trafficking


Aim of the lecture: To give participants:

▶ knowledge about the key concepts and terminologies used in the international field of combating human trafficking
▶ the capacity to critically analyse perspectives on human trafficking (related to, for example, economic issues, legislative issues, migration, globalization, criminal justice and/or the violation of human rights) and their influence on the measures taken for combating human trafficking
▶ an understanding of possible push-and-pull factors for human trafficking, including the relation to organized crime.
▶ an understanding of the human trafficking indicators.

Introduction to the topics: The most common international definition of human trafficking is included in the United Nations (UN) Protocol to Prevent Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime, Article 3 (a):

the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons [action], by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation. Exploitation shall include, at a minimum, the exploitation of the prostitution of others or other forms of sexual exploitation, forced labour or services, slavery or practices similar to slavery, servitude or the removal of organs.

(United Nations, 2000a, emphasis added)
It is important to note that in cases involving children, the requirements under the human trafficking definition are slightly different: for the crime of child trafficking to take place, none of the ‘means’ described above need to be proven. This is because children are considered to be vulnerable to trafficking by reason of their age alone. Thus, where a child is subjected to one of the ‘actions’ set out above, and that action was done for the purpose of exploiting the child, that child will be considered a victim of human trafficking.

Human trafficking differs from human smuggling, which is ‘the procurement, in order to obtain, directly or indirectly, a financial or other material benefit, of the illegal entry of a person into a State Party of which the person is not a national or a permanent resident’ (United Nations, 2000b). Inherent to the definition of human smuggling is the crossing of international borders, whereas for human trafficking situations, this does not necessarily have to be the case. It was not until the adoption of two separate UN protocols, supplementing the 2000 Palermo Convention, that there was an international legal effort to distinguish between human trafficking and human smuggling. Despite legal differences on paper, many researchers argue that the two phenomena are better thought of as two ends of a continuum. There is a grey zone between human trafficking and human smuggling, indicating that one situation can shift into the other.

Human trafficking is usually hidden. Naturally, offenders want to conceal their activities and victims are often afraid to come forward. Because of the hidden face of human trafficking, however, it can be difficult to determine what constitutes human trafficking. It includes a wide variety of activities, such as those mentioned below, and it must be remembered that new forms of exploitation, such as trafficking for forced surrogacy, may also arise:

▶ **Human trafficking for the purpose of sexual exploitation.** Within the sex industry, exploitation can occur in several areas, such as street prostitution and window prostitution; sexual exploitation in a private house, a massage parlour or a brothel or club; via webcam, (child) pornography, internet prostitution or escort services (see also Week 4).

▶ **Human trafficking for the purpose of labour exploitation.** This occurs for example in agriculture and horticulture, with au pairs, catering or cleaning services, in construction, crime, the drug trade, domestic work, abattoirs, or the textile or food industries (see also Week 5).
Human trafficking for the purpose of organ removal: this involves the removal of organs such as kidneys, heart, lungs and liver, or trade in other parts of the body (see also Week 6).

Human trafficking is a global phenomenon in the sense that it is not limited to a few countries; it occurs in all regions of the world. The prevalence of human trafficking can depend upon certain push-and-pull factors. Push factors include poverty, lack of democracy, gender inequality and violence against women, conflict and post-conflict situations, lack of social integration, lack of opportunities and employment, lack of access to education, discrimination, addictions and dissolution of a social network. Pull factors include increased ease of travel, higher salaries and standard of living in other places, active demand for workers in a certain county or sector, and high expectations of opportunities in other places.

Traffickers may act both individually and in a network, and it is argued that human trafficking is often interlinked with organized crime: human trafficking may be related to the activities of criminal groups. Trafficking networks may represent institutions that profit [often financially] from the exploitation of people – and may emerge because of changes in global politics and economies, the ease of travel and communications, and economic globalization.

In sum, human trafficking is a complex phenomenon: it can take different forms, it can occur for different reasons, and individual traffickers as well as criminal organizations may be involved. The way governments or non-governmental organizations look at the crime also determines what measures will be taken to combat it. In the end, a multidisciplinary approach is essential.

Seminar discussion:

- Human trafficking and human smuggling are different, although there is a grey zone between the two. How would you describe the difference between human trafficking and human smuggling in terms of who the victim is: the state or the person(s) involved?
- Taking into account the push and pull factors, how would you explain the difference between human trafficking and human smuggling?
- A person can be trafficked for the purpose of sexual exploitation, labour exploitation or for the removal of organs or forced commercial surrogacy. What other forms of human trafficking might exist?
► What is child trafficking?
► How is human trafficking related to other forms of organized crime?

Assignment (optional): Choose a case study from the media and write a two-page report on: a list of common indicators of human trafficking and the push and pull factors involved in that human trafficking situation. See also UNODC, Human Trafficking Indicators.

Readings (mandatory): Oppong [2012], Todres [2011], UNODC [n.d.a].

Readings (recommended):


Additional: The Whistleblower (2010) [movie]; Nefarious Merchant of Souls [documentary].

**Week 2: The legal definition of human trafficking**

Topics: Legal development of the concept of human trafficking, human trafficking as a violation of human rights, a view on the constituting elements of the human trafficking definition and the problems arising when assessing them in practice.

Aim of the lecture: To help participants:

► understand the legal definition of human trafficking in the UN Palermo Protocol [i.e. the scope and nature of the different elements of this definition and the relationship between them]
► understand the broad scope of ‘means’ under the human trafficking definition
◆ understand the key concepts of human trafficking, with special focus on the concept of ‘abuse of a position of vulnerability’ and the importance of a context-sensitive approach in relation to this concept
◆ gain insight into the role of debt in human trafficking processes and the connection with migration
◆ gain insight into the central questions that arise when human trafficking is brought before a criminal court.

Introduction to the topics: Trafficking in human beings is a gross violation of human rights. It is not without reason that the prohibition of slavery, servitude and forced and compulsory labour – all forms of human trafficking – is part of almost every international legal document on human rights. It took a long time, however, before human trafficking became part of the global political agenda. It was only in the last decade of the twentieth century that human trafficking became a subject of international concern, as the result of a process of elucidation in which human trafficking was framed as ‘modern-day slavery’.

The increased concern about the phenomenon of human trafficking led to the draft of the UN Palermo Protocol, in which the UN State Parties agreed upon a broad international definition of trafficking in human beings for the first time in history. Pursuant to Article 3 [a], human trafficking is considered as:

the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons [action], by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation. Exploitation shall include, at a minimum, the exploitation of the prostitution of others or other forms of sexual exploitation, forced labour or services, slavery or practices similar to slavery, servitude or the removal of organs.

[United Nations, 2000a, emphasis added]

This general international definition of human trafficking gave huge impetus to the harmonization of the concept of human trafficking throughout the world. As is apparent from the text, the definition covers not only the criminalization of sexual
exploitation, but also exploitation in other economic sectors, such as agriculture or domestic work. In addition, the definition of exploitation is non-exhaustive and thus is also open for other forms of exploitation, regardless of the place or sector in which the exploitation occurs.

This definition of when human trafficking takes place consists of three elements: when a person is subjected to one of the actions through one of the means with the purpose of exploitation. Pursuant to this protocol, the sum of these three elements means that human trafficking has occurred. However, a number of complex questions arise. For example, what is the relationship between trafficking and exploitation? When do people find themselves in a position of vulnerability? And is the consent of a victim relevant where means have been used?

The definition of human trafficking encompasses acts with the intention to exploit as well as the actual exploitation itself. The human trafficking process can consist of cross-border movement, but this is not a constituent element: human trafficking can also take place within borders. Perpetrators can act within a criminal network, but can also operate alone. The definition thus includes a variety of actions surrounding the exploitation of another person, which might not have occurred yet. The definition also consists of a wide array of means, which include not only ‘hard means’ (violence or the threat of violence), but also what might be described as ‘subtle means’ (such as deception and abuse of a position of vulnerability). The use of the term ‘subtle’ does not imply that these forms of coercion are less severe; it refers, instead, to the more manipulative ways in which people can be rendered subject to the influence of a trafficker. This ‘subtle’ element reminds us of the importance of approaching vulnerability in a context-sensitive way. A thorough analysis of concrete, individual situations is required in order to fully understand vulnerability and the dependency that comes with it.

A good understanding of the legal concepts underlying human trafficking provides insight into the scope of the crime and the issues that arise when human trafficking cases are investigated and brought before criminal courts. As a normative and binding document, the UN Palermo Protocol requires UN State Parties to adjust their definition of human trafficking in their national legal framework. Notice, however, that the definition of human trafficking can be implemented or applied in various ways in individual states. Moreover, on a regional level, several other human trafficking treaties have been drafted, building upon the definition in the Palermo Protocol. Discussion of these different
treaties falls beyond the scope of this week’s course, but under the recommended readings, you will find a collection of relevant international documents.

Seminar discussion:

▶ Is consent of a victim of trafficking to the intended exploitation relevant where any of the means set forth in Article 3 (a) of the Protocol have been used? Do you endorse this approach to consent and free will?

▶ How can poverty and/or debt be understood as a position of vulnerability and how does it play a role in the human trafficking process?

▶ How are the concepts of human trafficking and exploitation related? Does the UN definition of human trafficking require that exploitation actually took place?

Assignment (optional): Write a two-page report about the concept of free will and consent that underlies the UN Palermo Protocol; or write a two-page analysis of the influence of debt on free will and consent (in relation to the required article of O’Connell Davidson); or when Stoyanova (2013) is used, write a two-page paper explaining how international protocols translate into national legislation and what can be said about the implementation of the UN Palermo Protocol in Bulgarian law.


Readings (recommended):

Readings from national and international organizations: UNODC (2012a, 2012b).
**Week 3: Research and monitoring**

*Topics*: Research practices, data collection and analysis, monitoring, role of investigative journalism.

*Aim of the lecture*: To provide participants with:

- knowledge of how to investigate issues related to human trafficking, taking into account the various methodologies for researching the phenomenon and the influence that a particular methodology might have on research outcomes (for example, research outcomes might depend on the research question)
- the ability to apply knowledge on how to do research on human trafficking situations
- an understanding of the main challenges in doing research on human trafficking
- the ability to critically review research (quantitative and qualitative) on human trafficking.

*Introduction to the topics*: Attention – including media attention – to the subject of human trafficking has grown enormously in the first years of the twenty-first century, highlighting the real need for more knowledge on the nature and extent of human trafficking. However, as mentioned in the first week, human trafficking is usually hidden, and it is this hidden face of human trafficking that makes it difficult to identify incidents of human trafficking. Journalists need to be aware of what is known about the human trafficking phenomenon and how findings from researches can be interpreted (in the context of how these findings were arrived at and how reliable or valid they might be).

In light of the complexity of human trafficking, an understanding of the challenges in doing research on this hidden activity is extremely important. For example, trafficked persons belong to a “hidden population”, the scale and boundaries of which are unknown and for which a reliable sampling frame does not exist. The same applies to offenders, who go to great lengths to conceal their criminal activities. Such challenges affect not only the availability but also the reliability and validity of data.

The process of data collection can be both quantitative and qualitative, and the way the data are collected influences what is available. Qualitative research refers to any type of research that produces findings not arrived at by statistics or other
means of quantitative research, by means of a literature review, archive analysis and explorative fieldwork, for example. Quantitative research looks at numbers.

Estimates may be used to map the scale of human trafficking, but given the challenges, these estimates should be taken with caution. The problem is not that estimates do not exist but that the estimates are often inaccurate and unreliable. What is known about human trafficking (what is registered or researched) often depends on developments that are not necessarily related to the real scale of human trafficking, such as awareness in a particular country, the priority given to fighting it, the capacity of investigative agencies, and the way it is registered.

For these reasons, the results of any particular research activity should be placed in the context in which the findings were constructed. In general, rather than depicting the complete truth, research – statistics in particular – reveals a part of the hidden face of human trafficking and is more important for guiding further research and for evaluating and, if necessary, adjusting policies.

Nevertheless, through data collection, knowledge about victims, suspects and offenders can be obtained. Without this knowledge, human trafficking cannot be effectively fought. To address the problem effectively, we need answers to such questions as: Where does human trafficking occur? How large is the problem? What form does it take? Through data collection, anti-trafficking policies can be monitored to see to what extent goals are being achieved. This requires a self-critical approach and the participation of every sector of society, including the media. As has been mentioned in the module description, journalists can provide the wider public with evidence-based information on human trafficking. The fight against human trafficking will be more effective when it is based on reliable and accurate information.

In order to collect as much data as possible, it is important to share information from all areas where persons might come across victims or offenders (including investigative journalism). However, because of the sensitivity of the issue, information-sharing within and between non-governmental and governmental organizations can be problematic. To illustrate, an agency that facilitates care might not be willing to provide personal information about a victim to governmental institutions because of privacy issues. Such a problem may be reduced through a central, independent rapporteur or equivalent mechanism that collects and analyses data through which anti-trafficking policies can be
monitored. In line with the EU Directive on Human Trafficking (see Week 2), EU Member States have introduced (or are implementing) national rapporteurs or equivalent mechanisms. And at the UN level, there is the UN Special Rapporteur on Trafficking in Persons, who is appointed by the UN Human Rights Council.

In view of the often transnational dimension of human trafficking, data cannot be collected exclusively at a national level because it fails to provide insights into cross-border movements by victims and offenders. However, collecting data on an international level is often impaired by even more challenges than when data are only collected at a national level. There is no reliable or comparable international data on human trafficking. This is because of discrepancies in the definitions adopted at the national level (see also Weeks 1 and 2), differences in policies and institutions, in political and social priorities, in the methodologies used and in the research facilities available for data collection and analysis.

Seminar discussion:

- How could the scale and nature of human trafficking best be researched?
- What role(s) could investigative journalists have for contributing to an improved understanding of the nature and scale of human trafficking?

Assignment (optional): Write a two-page review (critical analysis) of a research activity on human trafficking. Research results can be found in the yearly reports of international organizations such as the International Labour Organization (ILO) and the United Nations Office of Drugs and Crime (UNODC), for example. Discuss how the results of this research were arrived at [based on what methodology] and how reliable and/or valid the findings are in light of the challenges in doing research on human trafficking at a national and international level.


Readings (recommended):


**Week 4: Human trafficking: sexual exploitation and the discourse surrounding prostitution**

*Topics:* Sexual exploitation, sex trafficking, discourse analysis.

*Aim of the lecture:* To provide participants with:

- an understanding of the phenomenon and root causes underlying sexual exploitation
- knowledge of global, regional and local markets that create a demand for sex work
- an ability to critically analyse the positions of actors that play a role in today’s discourse on sex work and prostitution
- an ability to discuss and understand different positions in the discourse on sex work and prostitution.

*Introduction to the topics:* This week’s focus is on human trafficking with the purpose of sexual exploitation. Sexual exploitation occurs everywhere in the world, and men, women and children can be involved. For a long time human trafficking with the purpose of sexual exploitation was the main focus for policy measures against human trafficking.

There are several factors promoting trafficking in human beings for the purpose of sexual exploitation. Following the article ‘Sex trafficking in Nepal: context and process’ (Hennink and Simkhada 2004), human trafficking for the purpose of sexual exploitation can be contextually determined, as seen in the recruitment of Nepali women to work in the sex industry in India. Many of the victims of sexual exploitation are young, vulnerable women. *Vulnerability* in this context can be understood broadly. It can refer to the cultural differences between men and women in a specific culture or society, which possibly place women in a more vulnerable position for being sexually exploited than men (gender-based social and economic inequality). As such, gender (in)equality may influence
the prevalence of human trafficking for the purpose of sexual exploitation. Vulnerability can also be related to individual circumstances and the socio-economic development of the region. Other factors might be related to the male demand for sex, the expansion of transnational sex industries, the globalization of capital and information technology (such as the internet), and armed conflict, military occupation and a concentration of military bases in various parts of the world.

Sexual exploitation is a global concern, and human trafficking for the purpose of sexual exploitation has become a major concern for many countries. Child prostitution is virtually anywhere considered as exploitation. The perception on sexual exploitation of adults (men and women), however, might differ between cultures and societies. In some (mainly Western) societies, the prostitution of adults is not always considered as human trafficking. Consequently, the prostitution environment is considered as a legal work environment in which the rights of the workers (the prostitutes) can be ensured by law, notwithstanding the vulnerability of both men and women to be exploited in this sector.

Because the factors promoting trafficking in human beings for the purpose of sexual exploitation can differ in various part of the world and the perceptions on sexual exploitation can also be different, knowledge about the cultural background in which the exploitation occurs is of utmost importance to understand the phenomenon of sexual exploitation, and subsequently the measures being taken to combat it.

Seminar discussion:

▶ What could be the role of culture in understanding the human trafficking phenomenon for the purpose of sexual exploitation?
▶ Can liberalization of prostitution counter the social stigma of being a prostitute? Should such a stigma exist?
▶ How could a different perception on prostitution influence the fight against trafficking in human beings?

Assignment: Write a 1,000-word paper on a specific case study of sexual exploitation, placing the phenomenon of sexual exploitation in a cultural and/or socio-economic framework and describing the factors that may influence
the prevalence of human trafficking. How do these perceptions influence the measures taken to fight human trafficking for the purpose of sexual exploitation?

Readings (mandatory): Gomez et al. [2001], Hennink and Simkhada [2004, particularly pp. 1–27].

Readings (recommended):

Additional: Dancing Boys of Afghanistan [2010], Human Trafficking in India [2011], Narsee and Cherney [2013], Radio Free Asia [n.d.].

Week 5: International labour migration and labour exploitation

Topics: International labour migration, push-and-pull factors, labour exploitation outside the sex industry.

Aim of the lecture: To give participants:

▶ an understanding of the root causes underlying international labour migration
▶ an understanding of the connections between globalization, international labour migration and human trafficking
▶ an ability to analyse the mechanisms underlying human trafficking for labour exploitation
▶ an ability to assess a case study and the case law on human trafficking for labour exploitation.

Introduction to the topics: Today’s world is a global village, consisting of areas with different levels of prosperity and wealth. Against this background and given people’s increased mobility, it is not hard to imagine that there has been a huge increase in migration in recent years, with people moving from one place to another in search of a better future. In week 1, it is mentioned that human trafficking can be approached from a variety of angles. This week, international labour migration is discussed, with a focus on its process and its links with human trafficking.
International labour migration is defined by the International Organization for Migration (IOM) as the movement of people from one country to another for the purpose of employment. Thus, pursuant to this definition, this form of migration always involves two or more countries, cross-border movement and a specific intention on the part of the employee: finding a job. In this week, the focus is, first, on the motivations of people moving from one place to another for the purpose of employment. Therefore, a closer look is taken at the theory of push and pull, which was introduced in Week 1. This theory enables us to understand the incentives that lead to cross-border migration for the purpose of work.

Insight into this mechanism is essential for understanding the ‘dark side’ of international labour migration: migration that ends up in exploitation. In the required article by Seo-Young Cho (2012), the various factors that can explain the existence of human trafficking are described. Cho addresses the linkages between migration and human trafficking, stating that most human trafficking victims are initially migration seekers. However, as she observes, ‘the pool of migrants is not identical to the pool of human trafficking victims’. A more thorough assessment of determinants that can explain human trafficking is needed. This week’s seminar focuses on these determinants, and explores which root causes can explain the prevalence of the phenomenon. In this context, the case of the Thai berry pickers in the northern parts of Sweden functions as an example of international labour migration turning into possible human trafficking.

Seminar discussion:

▶ According to Cho (2012), what are the most robust push-and-pull factors? And how can those factors explain migration? Can you think of push-and-pull factors in your own country?

▶ How can the relationship between migration and human trafficking be understood?

▶ Which push-and-pull factors can be identified in the articles about the Thai berry pickers in Sweden (Saltmarsh, 2010; Woolfson et al., 2012)? What determinants made the workers in this case vulnerable to exploitation?

Assignment (optional): Write a short paper about the determinants of human trafficking that can be recognized in Saltmarsh (2010).

**Recommended readings:**

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**Week 6: Human trafficking for the purpose of the removal of organs**

**Topics:** Trafficking in human beings for the purpose of organ removal, the nexus organ trafficking–transplant commercialism–transplant tourism, the importance of frames in the political process, framing and deframing the debate on commercial organ donation.

**Aim of the lecture:** To help participants:

- understand the phenomenon of trafficking in human beings for the purpose of the removal of organs, and become aware of the nexus organ trafficking–transplant commercialism–transplant tourism
- understand the connection between forced organ removal and human trafficking
- understand the societal problems underlying transplant commercialism and transplant tourism
- recognize the role and possible influence of ‘frames’ in today’s debate on solutions to the worldwide shortage of organs
- develop the ability to critically analyse the discourse around the solution to the worldwide shortage of organs.

**Introduction to the topics:** In 2008 the Declaration of Istanbul was drafted, in which several definitions surrounding organ transplantation were introduced. As the Declaration states in its preamble, organ transplantation must be considered as one of the medical miracles of the twentieth century. It has saved and prolonged the lives of many patients around the world who, in previous generations, would not have survived.

But organ transplantation has become the victim of its own success, as Ambagtsheer et al. state in ‘The battle for human organs: Organ trafficking and transplant tourism in a global context’ (2013) [a required reading for this week]. The authors observe that the demand for organs has outstripped the supply,
making desperate patients look for ways to obtain organs from outside their home countries. This is where the risk of human trafficking can be identified. As research shows, most of the victims of this form of human trafficking are poor or otherwise vulnerable persons.

This week first focuses on the nature of the phenomenon of human trafficking for the purpose of organ removal. As is shown in required readings, the worldwide shortage of organs works as a catalyst for transplant tourism and transplant commercialism, and can increase the risk of persons being trafficked for their organs. This raises a question about the measures being taken to combat these shortages. What is the main consensus about the best policies, and how can the discussions surrounding this problem be understood?

In this context, the concept of altruism plays a central role. The literature shows that the debate on organ shortages is dominated by the strong belief that the mix of commercialism and donation is dangerous and could lead to an increase in the trade in human beings. Other authors are of the opinion that this ‘altruism paradigm’ should not prevent us from thinking about alternative solutions. Ambagtsheer et al. (2013), for instance, believe that the framing and construction of this problem should be critically evaluated, along with the focus on criminalization as a solution.

This week’s discussion therefore touches on an important subject for investigative journalists: the framing and construction of societal problems. The brief introduction on framing provided by Entman (1993) allows us to recognize the framing mechanisms in the debate on organ donation, leading to a more thorough understanding of this discussion, and subsequently stimulating an approach to this problem from different perspectives and a critical analysis of the opinions of different actors.

Seminar discussion:

▷ Which societal problem can explain the existence of an ‘economy in organs’?
▷ Which main ‘media frames’ can be identified in the opinions about organ donation and commercial donation?

Assignment (optional): Analyse and research the possibilities for commercial organ donation in Iran, the only country in the world where people are allowed to receive remuneration for donations.

Readings (recommended):


Week 7: The fight against human trafficking in an international framework

Topics: International cooperation, international partnership, partners in the fight against human trafficking.

Aim of the lecture: To provide participants with:

▶ knowledge of the five Ps characterizing the international fight against human trafficking: prevention, protection, prosecution, punishment and partnership
▶ an understanding of the international aspects of human trafficking and the need for international cooperation
▶ an understanding of the different modalities of international cooperation
▶ knowledge of international anti-trafficking activities.
▶ an ability to critically analyse international partnerships.

Introduction to the topics: The media in general, and investigative journalists in particular, can have an influential role in shedding light on the obstacles in the fight against human trafficking. What does the fight in a particular country or at the international level look like? Is it effective? What problems related to the human trafficking phenomenon do journalists see, and to what extent is this taken into account in human trafficking policy in a particular country or at the international level? What is known about criminal organizations that operate internationally, and how do states work together in the fight against human trafficking? Since many stakeholders may be involved, it is essential to indicate

9 See also: http://abcnews.go.com/Technology/organs-sale-living-cadavers-sell-kidneys-bangladesh-cash/story?id=15930876
According to international and regional legal instruments, states have specific responsibilities and obligations. Some examples of these binding agreements (such as the UN Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (2000); the Council of Europe Convention on Action against Trafficking in Human Beings (2005); the EU Directive on Trafficking in Human Beings (2011); the Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN) Declaration against Trafficking in Persons, Particularly Women and Children (2004); the Comprehensive Arab Strategy for Combating Trafficking in Human Beings (2012); and many more were mentioned in Week 2. Such legal instruments guide the international response to human trafficking by obliging states to make human trafficking a criminal offence and to address it by taking the necessary measures. This international response can be placed in the larger framework known as the five Ps:

► **Prevention:** the international obligation to take measures to prevent human trafficking: measures that address the root causes of human trafficking in countries of origin, transit countries and countries of destination (push-and-pull factors, see Week 1), for example. Other examples of preventive measures are related to awareness-raising by informative campaigns, such as educating potential victims of trafficking in schools.

► **Protection of victims:** the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, among other international and regional instruments, makes states responsible for providing protection to victims of trafficking. The physical, psychological and social recovery of victims needs to be supported, so a wide variety of stakeholders must be included in the fight against trafficking in human beings, such as health care and social welfare agencies, shelters, immigration services (for temporary residency) and lawyers. For those victims who would like to return to their country or town of origin, measures need to be taken for guidance in their return and the prevention of revictimization. Examples of such measures are monitoring mechanisms and risk assessments to consider to what extent the return to a victim’s place of origin is safe.

► **Prosecution of offenders:** as a key feature of the rule of law, states have the international obligation to investigate, prosecute and punish the offenders. International cooperation might focus on investigations led by international intelligence, improvements in the exchange of information, and operational...
cooperation. An example is a joint investigation team (JIT) as part of an international approach to organized transnational crime, made up of members from two or more EU Member States. Criminal investigations are held within one or more of the Member States, with Europol helping Member States to share information. Europol can also provide experts and technical resources for international teams of investigators. However, human trafficking is a difficult offence to investigate because of some features specific to the phenomenon. To illustrate, victims are not always able or willing to come forward, and if they do, they might not always be cooperative in the investigation and prosecution of their traffickers. Additionally, human trafficking is an offence in which the victims do not always perceive themselves as victims, which can pose a barrier to their cooperation in an investigation.

- **Punishment of offenders**: states have an international obligation to punish those who commit human trafficking acts on their territory. However, offenders might operate in more than one country, might be prosecuted in different countries and might be brought to justice before different courts. Therefore, sharing knowledge across borders is essential, since after all, countries are bound by the same international rules. There are already several initiatives for sharing legal knowledge, which include legal texts and information on case law, such as the UNODC case-law database [10](http://www.unodc.org/cld/index.jspx) (see Week 2).

- **Partnership**: many agencies are involved in the fight against trafficking, but ultimately they have to come up with a joint solution. Because joint efforts within and between countries is essential, the efforts of governmental and non-governmental organizations need to be integrated.

Because of the often transnational nature of human trafficking, anti-trafficking efforts cannot be based solely on domestic responses. Accordingly, an important objective of the UN Palermo Protocol, as stated in Article 2(c) [United Nations, 2000a](http://www.unodc.org/cld/index.jspx), is to promote cooperation among States Parties in order to effectively combat human trafficking.

**Seminar discussion**:

- In an international fight against trafficking in human beings, the five Ps are central. Some measures have already been mentioned for each of the five Ps. What are other examples of measures for each of them?
What are the challenges to international cooperation and what measures can be taken to overcome these challenges?

How are the lessons learned in the previous weeks relevant for outlining the framework of each of the five Ps?

Assignment [optional]: Write a two-page report on one of the following.

Try to find a specific case study on a human trafficking situation in the media and link it to the fight against human trafficking on a national or international level by answering the following questions:

What is the human trafficking situation about (victims and traffickers involved, type of exploitation and so on)?

Where did the human trafficking situation take place (country)?

What is done against a human trafficking situation such as illustrated in the case study in that particular country? (Who is involved in the fight against trafficking and in what way?)

How do the measures taken on the national level relate to the international fight against human trafficking?

What else could be done against such a human trafficking situation and how would you, as a journalist, point this out?

Alternatively: some scholars argue that anti-trafficking policies might have unintended effects on migrants without legal residence status, who could be vulnerable to being trafficked. What is the role of the ‘war’ on human trafficking in the exclusion and criminalization of unauthorized migrants, and how does the synthesis of agendas for migrant control and national security work in practice? (An answer can be based on a specific case study of a human trafficking situation in the media. Knowledge about both the human trafficking phenomenon and its relation to human smuggling should be incorporated.)

Readings [mandatory]: Gekht [2008], Mattar [2005].

Readings [recommended]:

Academic literature: Buck [2007], Council of Arab Ministers of Justice [2012], Gray et al. [2012], Grubb and Bennett [2012], Helmberg [2007], Obokota [2010], Protection Project. [2012], Reynolds [2011], Rijken [2006].


**Week 8: The role of the media and ethical dilemmas**

*Topics:* responsibility of investigative journalists in the fight against human trafficking, community awareness, ethical dilemmas, putting into practice.

*Aim of the lecture:* To provide participants with:

- an understanding of the role of the media in the fight against human trafficking
- an understanding of the ethical dilemmas for investigative journalists working in the field of human trafficking
- an ability to apply an ethical code of conduct in the field of investigative journalism when putting into practice the lessons learned on human trafficking from the seven previous lectures.

*Introduction to the topics:* In general, the media have an indispensable role – not only in educating people but also in creating an awareness of human trafficking. Being aware of the phenomenon is one of the first steps to be taken in the fight against human trafficking. People must be aware of it – and be willing to see it – in order to actually see it. Human trafficking will be recognized as a story that calls for investigation. In addition to raising awareness, the media, which have been widely recognized as an important tool of change, have the capacity to mobilize public support and involvement. However, not without danger.

Investigative journalists may be confronted by many challenges in portraying ‘the real story’ (see also week 3). However, it is essential to take a well-informed and balanced decision on how to get as close as possible to the truth while at the same time taking into account the ethical dilemmas involved in researching and reporting on human trafficking.
To illustrate, access to respondents for research purposes is sometimes done under economic, institutional or emotional pressures that could harm the victim’s (or the suspect’s) physical and mental health. Therefore, a central principle in field-based research is ‘informed consent’, in which the respondents are made aware of the content and objectives of the research and in which they are given the possibility to accept or reject their participation in the research. A central question here is to what extent journalists should have victims as their respondents/main source of data, taking into account the possibility that an interview might hold risks for the victim. Improper methods of data collection that go beyond international ethical standards are related to unethical interviewing techniques, for example by posing direct questions about the human trafficking experience (through which the victim could become re-traumatized) without any regard for the safety and health of the victim.

An investigative journalist gathers information in order to have a substantial amount of data for building a story. Journalists might gather this information on their own or it might be provided by others. Because research can be considered as a form of intervention, journalists need to be aware of the ethical dilemmas involved and should be able to use proper data-collection techniques. There are several codes of ethics available from different disciplines or professions, which can provide guidance in this regard (see recommended readings), but as a starting point in assessing the ethical issues, journalists need to consider their responsibilities in regard to respondents: explaining the purpose of the research, conducting risk assessments (how might the research put people at risk?), ensuring confidentiality (how can you guarantee confidentiality?), ensuring informed consent, taking into account the access to and ownership of the data (who has access to what kinds of data and for what purposes), being aware of boundaries to data collection (to what lengths are you willing to go in order to get the information?), and taking note of other ethical issues that ensure respect and sensitivity towards those who are being studied.

For example, to what extent does a journalist need to tell the whole truth about a human trafficking situation when this might endanger the victim (such as when a story can be traced back to a particular victim)? Another example is the commonly held assumption that a trafficking victim is a young, naive woman who is looking for a better life away from home, and ends up in prostitution. As we have seen in the previous lectures, this is not always the case: human trafficking is a complex
phenomenon characterized by a wide variety of actions, victims, traffickers, stakeholders, and agencies and individuals fighting against it.

Furthermore, an investigative journalist needs to be aware of the danger of publishing information, particularly incorrect information, as this could actually work against the fight against trafficking. Whereas the media can create awareness about the human trafficking problem, it is essential to avoid falling into the trap of reinforcing stereotypes. In the end, only accurate, reliable and sufficient information provides a solid foundation for anti-trafficking measures.

Seminar discussion:

▶ Taking into account some of the ethical dilemmas involved, should the media use victims as their respondents? How far should journalists go to gain access to these respondents? And what alternatives are there if journalists cannot talk to the victims?

▶ What are the ethical standards that should be observed while carrying out investigative journalism related to human trafficking?

Assignment (optional):

▶ Analyse the main ethical dilemmas for journalists covering human trafficking stories.

▶ Develop minimum standards for investigative journalism on human trafficking (taking into account the ethical dilemmas involved in collecting and publishing information).


Readings (recommended):


Additional: TEDX talk by the Dutch Rapporteur on Trafficking in Human Beings and Sexual Violence against Children, Two Little Girls (TLG).
References


Council of Europe. 2005. *Convention on Action against Trafficking in Human Beings*. http://conventions.coe.int/Treaty/en/Treaties/Html/197.htm (Also available in Albanian, Armenian, Azerbaijani, Bosnian, Bulgarian, Dutch, French, Georgian, German, Greek, Hungarian, Italian, Latvian, Macedonian, Norwegian, Polish, Portuguese, Romanian, Russian, Serbian, Slovakian, Slovenian, Spanish, Turkish, Ukrainian.)


Gray, G., Crowl, H. and Snow, K. 2012. What’s our responsibility? How individuals and organizations can proactively address human trafficking. Journal of Applied Research on Children: Informing Policy for Children at Risk, Vol. 3, No. 1. http://digitalcommons.library.tmc.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1073&context=childrenatrisk&sei-redir=1&referer=http per cent3A per cent2F per cent2Fscholar.google.nl per cent2Fscholar per cent3Fas_ylo per cent3D2012 per cent26q per cent3Dhuman per cent26trafficking per cent26organ per cent26trips per cent26rights per cent26approach per cent26hl per cent3Den per cent26as_sdt per cent3D0 per cent26c25 &search= per cent22human per cent20trafficking per cent20human per cent20rights per cent20approach per cent22


Human Trafficking in India. 2011. (short video) www.youtube.com/watch?v=9yJWvphlsa3A


Nefarious Merchant of Souls (documentary). See: http://nefariousdocumentary.com/


TEDX. Talk by the Dutch Rapporteur on Trafficking in Human Beings and Sexual Violence against Children. www.youtube.com/watch?v=Fwo20Cw5zy0


Two Little Girls (TLG) Campaign 2013, www.twolittlegirls.org/


This course aims to analyse the context in which journalists and communicators are working at local, national, regional and international level, and to help them to identify potential risks, to learn safe protocols and to know about those institutions and procedures that can help them.
**Level:** This course is aimed at undergraduate students studying journalism.

**Background and rationale:** The rights to speak freely and to be able to access information are crucial for the development processes of any society, and underpin its ability to exercise scrutiny and to demand accountability from power holders and its core institutions. The work of journalists and communicators is key to ensuring that such democratic processes are possible. Freedom of expression is a precondition for the safety of journalists because it allows them to expose injustice and non-civil processes without fear of reprisals. An assault on a journalist or communicator is therefore an attack on society itself, as it undermines the right of its citizens to be informed, to learn, to communicate and to make free, independent and informed choices.

In recent years threats, attacks and crimes against journalists worldwide have increased and no region of the world has been exempt. In addition, intimidation against journalists and communicators, including those who use internet platforms, is often undertaken with impunity because there is a lack of attention accorded to such actions by governments and judicial authorities. Such a climate of impunity further endangers journalists and communicators because a lack of sanctions against perpetrators of intimidation and violence makes journalists and communicators easier targets.

Different analyses from various national and international human rights organizations are consistent in saying that attacks and threats directed at journalists and communicators alongside a climate of impunity create obstacles to their ability to facilitate and uphold the right to information for citizens. Consequently, threats, intimation, censorship, self-censorship, kidnappings, attacks, disappearances and deaths of journalists and communicators should all be condemned, because freedom of expression and the right to disclose information cannot be guaranteed without there being a safer environment for journalists to work within.

These are complex issues, but they are also urgent issues. They demand urgent action.
Governments must fulfil their responsibility to try to provide a safe working environment for journalists. The media, legal institutions, and other organizations also have a duty to scrutinize the performance of governments in this respect.

It is also important for journalists to understand the hazards and threats that they may face. Schools of journalism have a key role to play in informing such understanding. Universities and journalism education institutions should include journalism safety in their curricula. A properly functioning curriculum should contain at least one module that is devoted to the subject.

This training module aims to become a useful resource to journalism educators and can be adapted according to local circumstance and norms. It integrates different pedagogical approaches, and it includes basic skills and tools that will allow students and employees to analyse their practices and to change them when necessary.

This module is distributed in the following five units:

▶ the relationship between safety of journalists and communicators and freedom of expression
▶ diagnosis of the safety of journalists (global, regional, national, local)
▶ identification of risks and limitations of journalism’s practice
▶ security and support tools
▶ digital safety.
Course outline

Unit 1: Rights and legal context

Duration: two hours (one session)

Key topics:
- the relationship between freedom of expression and the safety of journalists and communicators
- access to information
- impunity and the rule of law.

Learning objectives:
- to identify the main international documents related to freedom of expression and the right of access to information
- to discuss the importance of freedom of expression as a human right and the protection of journalists and communicators
- to debate the relationship between impunity and the rule of law.

Pedagogical approaches:
- to review several international documents and sources of information about the right to freedom of expression in order to discuss the importance of this human right from a local, regional and global perspective
- to describe the singular role of journalists and communicators in society and to recognise the safety of journalists as a basic prerequisite for the exercise of freedom of expression
- to discuss the relationship between impunity and rule of law in relation to the safety of journalists and communicators.

Activities:
- Review the right of freedom of expression using several key reference books.
- Identify the concept of freedom of expression in these instruments:
  - Universal Declaration of Human Rights
International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights

And, according to your region:

- African Charter on Human and Peoples’ Rights
- American Convention on Human Rights
- American Declaration of the Rights and Duties of Man
- Arab Charter on Human Rights
- and in the constitution of your country.

Identify, in your country, any limitation, warning or restriction as stated in the constitution.

Debate whether the right of access to information is part of freedom of expression.

Try to find out whether your country has introduced an access to information law.

Identify the role of journalists and communicators in society. Describe the main characteristics.

Discuss whether constitutional restrictions on freedom of expression could affect the role of journalists.

Consider how effectively existing law and conventions are enforced in order to facilitate the work of journalists.

Resources for this unit:

- African Charter on Human and Peoples’ Rights: www.unhcr.org/refworld/type,MULTILATERALTREATY,OAU,,3ae6b3630,0.html
- American Declaration of the Rights and Duties of Man: www.cidh.oas.org/Basicos/English/Basic2.american per cent20Declaration.htm
Unit 2: Diagnosis of the safety of journalists

Duration: four hours (two sessions).

Key topics:

► the context of the safety of journalists at global, regional, national and local level
► the importance of improving safety for journalists.

Learning objectives:

► to identify the level of security among journalists at global, regional, national and local level
► to examine the context in which journalists work, from the perspective of their security
► to debate the importance of the safety of journalists in different circumstances.

Pedagogical approaches:

► to review the state of freedom of expression and the practice of journalism at the global, regional, national and local level world-wide to identify the context in which journalists are working
► to sensitize the group to the conditions in which journalists are working through knowledge exchange and discussions of various existing reference materials and texts.

Activities:

► Review at least two of the most recent global reports on freedom of expression, freedom of information and freedom of the press.
Identify in which countries the rate of violence and threats against journalists is higher, and the diverse sources of attacks (war, drug lords, corruption, politics, misogyny, mining industries and so on).

Discover which countries in your region are experiencing violence and threats against journalists and communicators at a high level, and identify the main causes of risks to their safety.

Identify references to your own country within these reports.

Discuss whether a national perspective is the appropriate one.

Search national reports on the issue of the safety of journalists and communicators and evaluate their diagnosis in comparison with international reports.

In relation to your local context, and if it is possible to trust other participants, debate the state of journalism in your country/region/community and whether there are direct or indirect threats against journalists and communicators.

Write about this situation.

*Resources for this unit:*

Regional and national resources:

▶ www.article19.org/
▶ http://ifex.org/
▶ www.newssafety.org/regionselect.php

Unit 3: Threats against journalists

Duration: three hours (two sessions).

Key topics:

▶ types of threats against journalists
▶ the causes of threats
▶ how to reduce and respond to threats
▶ the specific threats faced by women who work as journalists.

Learning objectives:

▶ to identify the threats facing journalists and communicators
▶ to rank threats against journalists and to identify potential ways of reducing them
▶ to identify and assess the particular situation of women journalists
▶ to identify organizations at the national and international level contributing to the free exercise of journalism.

Pedagogical approaches:

▶ to plan the coverage of a high risk situation and discuss the major threats that will be faced by journalists
▶ to discuss and build consensus on the measures to be taken to reduce risks during press coverage, including institutions that could give support.
Activities:

▶ Identify a high-risk situation.
▶ Discuss the ways of covering the situation.
▶ Revise the pathway proposed and compare it with the recommendations given by various organizations such as CPJ: http://cpj.org/reports/2012/04/security-assessment-form.php
▶ Plan the coverage.
▶ Identify news mentioning threats to the free work of journalists such as lawsuits, threats and reprisals, killings, attacks, censorship, disappearances, detentions, expulsions, harassment. Have you faced a situation like this?
▶ Read one of the chapters of the following reports and discuss it with other students, emphasizing the issue of security: http://cpj.org/attacks_on_the_press_2011.pdf
▶ Compare the following two stories about violence faced by women journalists:
  ▶ www.newssafety.com/stories/insi/wrw.htm

Resources for this unit:


Unit 4: Towards good journalistic practices

Duration: four hours (two sessions).

Key topics:

▶ reducing risks
Learning objectives:

▶ to understand the importance of safe coverage based on good planning
▶ to appreciate the importance of developing a network of trusted contacts
▶ to recognize the existence of organizations and institutions to protect journalists, while stressing that the responsibility for immediate safety depends on the individual
▶ to prepare quality journalistic articles analysing the safety of journalists and the importance of respect accorded to all journalists, communicators and local support staff working on a story.

Pedagogical approaches:

The aim of this unit is to prepare high-quality journalistic materials and tools to be used in order to improve the safety of journalists. It is also aimed at reviewing common elements included in the existing manuals on the safety of journalists as well as other theoretical and practical tools, and rewriting them for a diverse range of formats such as text, audio, video and blog. The trainer will insist that safety tools are included within these articles.

Activities:

▶ Prepare a journalistic feature on an event involving risks for journalists. Check whether it is related to the coverage proposed in the previous unit, and explain how it is related and in what ways.
▶ Explain in which format this feature will be produced and justify the choice.
▶ Explain which journalistic method will be used.
▶ Present and discuss with the tutor and other students the development of this feature article from a safety perspective.
▶ Present the final project.
Resources for this unit:


**Unit 5: Digital safety**

*Duration:* four hours (two sessions).

*Key topics:*

▶ surveillance (including browser records, telephone records, malware, ISP records, app records, email records)
▶ disclosures that put the journalist (or sources) in danger
▶ data mining of their published content
▶ threats by telephone or email
▶ data storage on devices, servers and in the cloud
▶ attacks on websites
▶ sensitive data (such as identities of sources)
▶ various responses (monitoring and reporting, safety, hygiene, solidarity, legal issues).

*Learning objectives:*

▶ to identify the importance of digital safety for journalists and communicators
▶ to identify different tools to reduce threats, cyber attacks and digital snooping
▶ to prepare a contingency plan to reduce vulnerabilities.

*Pedagogical approaches:*

After considering the importance of the internet and other forms of digital communication for journalists and communicators in their work, it is necessary to understand the paramount importance of safety in a digital context, with the express objective of using computers in order to experiment with different tools to reduce vulnerabilities and threats in cyberspace.
Activities:

Read one of the documents *Digital Security and Journalists: A Snap Shot of Awareness and Practice in Pakistan* or *Digital and Mobile Security for Mexican Journalists and Bloggers* [see resources section]. After reading the report:

▶ Enlist personal information and documents and try to answer the following question: from whom are you protecting this information and documents?

▶ Use a freeware anti-virus, spyware and firewall program on your personal computer.

▶ Evaluate how you store important information (hard disk, USB, CD, cloud).

▶ Try a strong password, considering length, complexity and practical attributes, not personal.

▶ Discuss the importance of encrypting information and documents.

▶ Try a freeware open source encryption program and decide to encrypt or not some documents, USB or hard disk.

▶ Select documents and information to back up and compare these with the original list in this unit.

▶ Discuss the importance of storing or destroying information.

▶ Identify the privacy level in your email account and then strengthen it.

▶ Consider switching your email account for a secure provider.

▶ Explain your habits in social networks. Do you post personal information in your accounts?

▶ Consider the strength of your passwords in social networks and using separate accounts for different activities.

▶ Identify privacy settings in your accounts in social networks, and consider which data could be dangerous to others.

▶ Apply the same considerations to mobile and smartphones.

▶ Write a personal plan or check list to reduce vulnerabilities, threats and risk in cyberspace and complete the task enlisted.

Resources for this unit:

- https://securityinabox.org/
V. APPENDICES
APPENDIX 1: USEFUL RESOURCES IN JOURNALISM EDUCATION

▶ BBC Academy: College of Journalism. www.bbc.co.uk/academy/collegeofjournalism (Outside of the UK, institutional and individual subscription is available through the Oxford University Press.)
▶ DW Akademie: www.dw.de/dw-akademie/training/s-12125
▶ Poynter: www.poynter.org/
▶ Journalism.org, Pew Research Center’s Project for Excellence in Journalism: www.journalism.org/.
▶ J Prof: the website for teaching journalism: http://jprof.com/
▶ Analyticjournalism.com: It’s not ‘all about story; if you don’t have anything to say: www.analyticjournalism.com/
▶ eJournalist: www.ejournalism.au.com/ejournalist.htm
▶ OSISA Journalism Summer School: http://jss.osisa.org/
APPENDIX 2: BACKGROUND INFORMATION ON THE BUREAU OF THE DUTCH NATIONAL RAPPORTEUR ON TRAFFICKING IN HUMAN BEINGS AND SEXUAL VIOLENCE AGAINST CHILDREN

The Hague Ministerial Declaration on the European Guidelines for Effective Measures to Prevent and Combat Trafficking in Women for the Purpose of Sexual Exploitation (the ‘Hague Declaration’) was adopted at an EU ministerial conference on trafficking in 1997. One of the recommendations made in the Declaration was that member states should appoint national rapporteurs to monitor the efforts being made in each country to combat human trafficking, and on 1 April 2000, the Dutch government appointed the National Rapporteur on Trafficking in Human Beings and Sexual Violence against Children. The current Rapporteur, Mrs C. E. Dettmeijer-Vermeulen, is assisted by a team of staff members who together constitute the Bureau of the National Rapporteur.

The Rapporteur’s main task is to report on the nature and extent of human trafficking, and sexual violence against children, in the Netherlands, and on the effects of the policies pursued by the government. Available through the Bureau’s website, www.nationaalrapporteur.nl (in Dutch) and www.dutchrapporteur.nl (in English), the reports contain information on relevant regulations and legislation, as well as information on prevention, criminal investigations regarding human trafficking and sexual violence against children, prosecution of perpetrators, and victim support. They also contain policy recommendations aimed at improving the fight against human trafficking and sexual violence against children.

The Rapporteur works independently and produces reports for the Dutch government and other organizations. The National Rapporteur’s independent position guarantees the protection of sensitive data on victims, suspects and perpetrators, and also helps to ensure that the Rapporteur has access to sufficient data for analysis, and by extension, to ensuring that effective policy is formulated.

The Bureau of the Dutch Rapporteur keeps in contact with and gathers information from the individuals, organisations and authorities involved in the prevention and combating of human trafficking and sexual violence against children and those that provide assistance to victims.
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This publication – the latest in the UNESCO Series on Journalism Education – is a strategic response to the pedagogical challenges facing journalism education globally, especially in an age of rapid technological evolution. Since the global financial and economic crisis surfaced in 2008, media institutions, particularly in developed countries, have come under pressure to adjust to the new realities. More importantly, however, this new global reality poses important challenges for journalism education and how it can take such challenges on board, particularly in a strategic rethink of journalism curricula.

Furthermore, this publication is an important step in looking again at the UNESCO Model Curricula for Journalism Education developed in 2007. The piloting of the Model Curricula by some seventy journalism training institutions in over sixty countries has thrown up even fresher – and perhaps more significant challenges – for journalism education to adapt to specialized knowledge and skills acquisition. There is a demand for new and often specialized literacies reflecting a fast-changing social, political, economic and technological order. As a result, contemporary newsrooms and classrooms must not only learn to navigate the treacherous waters of financial and economic sustainability but also – as part of that sustainability agenda – take on board the particular literacies of science communication, data mining, human trafficking, gender, etc. These issues are, among others, the subject matter of the syllabi presented here.