The professional self-perception of tomorrow’s journalists

An exploratory study of Dutch journalism student’s views on professional journalism and their aspirations to be a journalist.

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The professional self-perception of tomorrow’s journalists

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ABSTRACT

To offer a new outlook on how the journalistic community defines professional journalism, this research is the first to have investigated the opinions of Dutch first-year journalism students at the Utrecht School of Journalism, The University of Amsterdam and The University of Groningen. Students were asked to answer questions about their motivation to become a journalist, journalistic competence (traits and values) and societal roles, to quantitatively measure how the new generation of journalists defines professional journalism. To answer these questions the theoretical framework features a sociological perspective on the term professionalism through the works of Abbott (1988), Meyers (2010) and Hammer (2000). And consequently parses the occupational ideology described by Deuze (2005) and Zelizer (1992) consisting of institutional roles and professional values, which is inexplicably linked to the definition of professional journalism (Deuze, 2005, p. 444). To be able to test these ideologies that shape the ideas of professional journalism on a more individual level this analysis follows the operationalisation of professional self-perception offered by Stigbrand and Nygren (2013), Mellado, Hanusch, Humanes, Roses, Pereira, Yez and Wyss (2013), Wu and Weaver (1998) and Hovden, Bjørnsen, Ottesen, Schultz and Zilliacus-Tikkanen (2009) to gain a better understanding of how students from the Netherlands reflect on this occupational ideology. The main findings of this explorative study show that there is still a dominant view of what professional journalism should entail and this is underlined by the traits, values and roles shared by Dutch journalism students, albeit with a few major differences in the way Dutch students approach these traits, values and roles. This thesis’ findings thus bear witness to the professionalisation of journalism, fuelled by the ongoing growth-spurt of journalism education. Journalism students find the citizen-orientated role and watchdog role important but have a lesser regard for the consumer-orientated and advocacy role. Values such as ‘accuracy’, ‘integrity’ and ‘transparency’ received the highest score from Dutch journalism students and they expect the profession of journalism will offer them dynamic and varied work; and give them the opportunity to explain complex information to the public. Although this coincides with earlier research on journalism students from other countries, the results of this study also show that these journalists-to-be have a few thoughts of their own, on the way professional journalism should be practiced, such as a higher focus on investigative news stories and lesser regard for the traditional value of objectivity.

Keywords: professional journalism; professionalisation; Dutch journalism students; journalism education; professional self-perception
INTRODUCTION

For years, journalists have considered themselves to be indispensable cultivators of society. This has made them blind to the changing media environment. The dynamics of news production and consumption have altered and will keep on doing so in the near future. However, journalism as a profession is extremely slow in changing its ways. (Ad Scheepbouwer in Iedereen Journalist (2013).

This quote by Ad Scheepbouwer in the three-part documentary series Iedereen Journalist broadcasted by the NPO in 2013 exemplifies the current struggle professional journalists face today. Jo Bardoel (2010) even claims that journalism finds itself in the most devastating crisis yet (Bardoel, 2010, p. 232). According to Hermans, Vergeer & Pleijter (2011), the rising surge of new Internet outlets have made a professional journalist lose his or her traditional and unique position within society (Hermans, Vergeer & Pleijter, 2011, p. 50). Therefore, states Bardoel (2010), professional journalists must find a new model to compete with an overloaded pool of information-bearers (Bardoel, 2010, p. 235-238). The self-perception and confidence of journalists have seen better days. Economic downturns have only made matters worse, and prevented journalists from switching to a new sustainable model (Bardoel, 2010, p. 235). As scholars such as Hermans, Vergeer and Pleijter (2011) and Bardoel (2010) have explained a decrease in readership, declining advertising revenue and major cuts in media organisations have resulted in an explosive increase in the unemployment rate of journalists since the start of the credit crisis (Hermans, Vergeer & Pleijter, 2011, p. 3; Bardoel, 2010, p. 235). In the Netherlands this is at a record-high of 2,500 unemployed journalists at the end of 2014 (Villamedia, 2015). Even more striking is the fact that journalism is the industry with the highest unemployment rate: 15.1 per cent (in 2013) compared to the market average of 8.3 per cent (Villamedia, 2014).

In contrast to these statistics and the situation they illustrate is the fact that more students are getting Bachelor and Master degrees in Journalism and Mass Communication today, compared to just a decade ago. The Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication estimated that 51,550 American students obtained a Bachelor degree in Journalism and Mass Communication in 2009-2010 (Pardue, 2014, p. 50). The need for academically schooled journalists is current in the Netherlands too. Among media-institutions like newspaper outlets NRC Next, Volkskrant and TV Broadcaster NOS, demand for employees with a university background is increasing (Trajectum Online, 2010).
This study reaches out to that community of journalism students and is a first step towards making clear what journalism students in the Netherlands make of journalism as a profession and what motivated them to become journalists in the first place. This is what Deuze (2005) and Mellado et al. (2013) call: "the professional self-perception of a (student) journalist" (Deuze, 2005, p. 448; Mellado et al., 2013, p. 863). According to Sanders, Hanna, Berganza and Arand (2008), Frith and Meech (2007), and Yang and Arant (2013) investigating the views and attitudes journalism students have about their journalistic roles in society and the professional values they find important is useful because it allows us to better understand what the newest generation of journalists deem important when it comes to professional journalism, and what they expect from it as a career.

Studying journalism as a profession is hardly new and there are a number of competing visions at the core of journalism's self-definition. But most of these studies (Fedler, Carey and Counts, 1998; Aldridge, Meryl and Evetts, 2003; Delano, Tony & Henningham, 1995) focus on what the educators and practitioners of journalism have to say about the profession. International research on the journalistic views of students has only recently been conducted by authors like Sanders et al., (2008), Mellado et al., (2013) and Hovden et al., (2009). But student research in the Netherlands is scarce, perhaps non-existent. Again, there are a few studies examining the professional journalistic self-perception in the Netherlands, but they focus mainly on the practitioners of journalism. One of them is a study by Deuze and Dimoudi (2002) on the professional profile of online journalists. Another is by Hermans et al. (2011), who investigated the journalistic values of Dutch journalism practitioners. According to Deuze (2002) the absence of journalism student studies is regrettable, because the Netherlands is one of the countries with the oldest tradition of established media in society and a historically well-established west-European democracy (Deuze, 2002, p. 135). And according to topuniversities.com, among Anglo-American countries, the Netherlands is one of the most prominent when it comes to teaching journalism at universities (Top Universities, 2015). A lot can be said for hearing out the views of journalism students from a country with a well-developed press like the Netherlands on how they see the ideal form of journalism. As stated by Sanders et al. (2008) it will help us better understand the (changing) principles that underlie the practice of journalism as a profession (Sanders et al., 2008, p. 134). The insights gained from asking student journalists what they make of professional journalism may offer scholars, educators, practitioners and society at large a new perspective on what defines journalism as a profession and what still makes it relevant (Sanders et al., 2008, p. 134; Frith and Meech,
2007, p. 137; Yang & Arant, 2013, p. 34). Also, journalism students now studying journalism will likely enter that profession in the upcoming years. Analysing their views and attitudes towards professional journalism can offer these same journalistic communities a gaze in the future of how professional journalism will be practiced in the future. Or, put in other words, how journalism should move forward to get itself out of the crisis (Bardoel, 2010, p. 235) it finds itself in today.

Deuze (2006) summarises this quite succinctly: "how we educate them, and how we engage our students and ourselves in a meaningful (preferably non-hierarchical) dialogue, ultimately has an influence on how journalism gets done" (Deuze, 2006, p. 31).

Hence, the research question central to this study is:

**RQ: How do Dutch journalism students perceive journalism as a profession and what motivated them to become journalists in the first place?**

To answer this research question, and before moving on to what journalism students make of journalism as profession, Chapter I of the theoretical framework will break down the idea of professionalism and the processes that define what a (journalistic) profession is. Chapter I will also discuss boundary work (Gieryn, 1983) and the self-legitimisation that is at play within professional journalism. This is important to Wahl-Jorgensen & Hanitzsch (2009) because when talking about the idea of journalism and what a professional journalist is, or should be, one must first ask the question who is to become a journalist (Wahl-Jorgensen & Hanitzsch, 2009, p. 97-99). Journalism's ideology (values, norms and societal roles) and forms of education, which both give professional journalism raison d'être (Reese, 1999, p. 70-71; Bjørnsen, Hovden, Ottosen, 2007, p. 1) will also be further addressed in Chapter I. The next step is to find out if and how the ideals and values of journalism students compare to those typically identified by research (e.g. Deuze 2005; Hermans et al., 2011; Hanitzsch, 2007) in Chapter I. Do journalism students conform to the existing ideas about professional journalism or do they expect something entirely different? To partly answer these questions and to find out what other authors have researched when it comes to a student's views on journalism, Chapter II will deal with the three markers that shape a journalism student's professional self-perception identified by scholars such as Stigbrand and Nygren (2013), Sanders et al. (2008) and Mellado et al. (2013). These three markers include: (1) the professional competence of a journalist (which entails professional values and traits) (2) the role or function journalism fulfils in society and (3) students' journalistic motives (Stigbrand and Nygren, 2013, p. 102-105). These three
pillars of a journalism student’s professional self-perception also form the three sub-questions that this study tries to answer in gaining a clearer picture of whether journalism students consider journalism a profession, what makes it a profession and how they see themselves in it. These sub-questions are:

**SQ1:** How do Dutch journalism students define the role of a journalist in society?

**SQ2:** According to Dutch journalism students, what are the professional values and traits of a journalist?

**SQ3:** What are Dutch journalism student’s motives to become journalists?

To answers these questions this research uses a descriptive survey method and draws conclusions about the total population of journalism students in the Netherlands. It follows the operationalisation of a journalist’s professional self-perception provided by Hovden et al. (2009), Stigbrand and Nygren (2013), Sanders et al., (2008) and Wu and Weaver (1998). In short, they coin professional values and traits as journalistic competence and categorize 12 different values and traits according to three different competence dimensions: accuracy dimension, expressive dimension and the networking dimension. These same authors speak of four distinct journalistic roles: the citizen-orientated role, the watchdog role, the advocacy role and consumer-orientated role. These are underpinned by 16 different statements of the role journalism should fulfil in society: the watchdog. This framework was used in the analysis of Dutch journalism students.

In total, 91 Dutch journalism students, currently in their first year of study, filled in a paper survey handed to them between November and December 2015. The scope of this thesis is limited as the sample only included students from three of the most accredited journalism schools in the Netherlands – the University of Amsterdam, the University of Groningen and the Utrecht School of Journalism. Journalism is taught in the Netherlands as a Master degree and as Bachelor of Applied Sciences. These schools were chosen to ensure that both conducts of learning were included in the analysis. That way, this study could obtain a representative view of how journalism students from one country perceive journalism as a profession.

The analysis of this research starts (4.1) with a brief description of the social profile of these Dutch journalism students. The results were used to compare students’ answers on professional self-perception. This is followed (4.2) by an in-depth look at the ambition of these students and their reasons for studying journalism and pursuing a career in journalism. The third (4.3.) and fourth parts (4.4.) of the analysis focus on
Dutch journalism students’ views on journalistic societal roles, journalistic values and journalistic traits. Part 4.2., 4.3. and 4.4. of the analysis are essential when evaluating the professional self-perception of Dutch journalism students. Because this research includes both academically trained students (the University of Amsterdam and the University of Groningen) and students from a university of applied sciences (the Utrecht School for Journalism), the analysis also specifically highlights the differences between these students’ views, motives, journalistic roles, and journalistic competences.
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Chapter I: The profession of journalism

How journalism is considered a profession is an essential part of the theory of this thesis because, according to Reese (1999) scholars often turn to the professional aspects of journalism when trying to identify why journalism is important within society (Reese, 1999, p. 74 - 75). Or, as Zelizer (2004) calls the collection of these professional aspects: the idea of journalism (Zelizer, 2004, p. 31). If one is to understand the principles that have defined professional journalism in the past, this understanding can serve as a backdrop when analysing how Dutch journalism students reflect on these principles and perhaps offer an alternative look at how journalism should be practiced. Chapter I starts with a brief definition of the term profession (1.1.) using the terminology of Abbott (1988), Meyers (2010), Reese (1999) and Wahl-Jorgensen and Hanitzsch (2009). This is followed by an explanation of what makes journalism such a unique case (1.2.) when attempting to preserve its professional status. By first gaining a basic understanding of the term profession and investigating the aspects that underline it, this research can identify whether these characteristics can also be applied to journalism. Subsequently, section (1.3.) discusses the values and societal roles that have been ascribed to journalism over the past few decades, more commonly referred to by Deuze (2005) as the ‘occupational ideology of journalism’ (Deuze, 2005, p. 444). Once we know how journalism has defined its values in the past and what it’s role in society is, says Lewis, we can better understand how journalism legitimises itself (Lewis, 2012, p. 850). But this also has a more practical reason. Taking into account that Stigbrand and Nygren (2013) claim societal roles and values are two aspects of a journalism student’s professional self-perception (Stigbrand & Nygren, 2013, p. 102), this thesis can use these ‘classic’ values and societal roles as a framework when discussing what importance journalism students give them. Finally, in (1.4.) the theoretical framework will highlight the development of journalism education and the socialisation process that underlines it. This is an essential part of the on-going professionalisation of journalism (McDevitt, Gassaway & Perez, 2002, p. 98) and it cannot be ignored when researching journalism students, because they are in the midst of that professionalization (McDevitt et al., 2002, p. 98).
1.1. Defining a profession

In order to find out how journalism attempts to define its own profession, and what the borders are for entering that profession, one must first define what a profession is and what underlying principles decide whether individuals belong to that profession. A profession, claims Abbott (1988), is a "somewhat exclusive group of individuals applying somewhat abstract knowledge to particular cases" (Abbott, 1988, p. 8). To Abbott (1988), the professional characteristic of abstraction is the most important aspect here, and it generally means the practical skills of professionals that emerge from an abstract system of knowledge (Abbott, 1988, p. 9). "Only a knowledge system", says Abbott (1988, p. 9), "can redefine its problems and tasks, defend them from interlopers, and seize new problems". It is he concludes: "the ultimate currency of competition between professions" (Abbott, 1988, p. 9). What he means by this is that professions can be called that because they have a pool of knowledge to fall back on when solving problems that are for the common good. And they need this abstract knowledge, concludes Abbott (1988) to maintain the boundaries that defines their jurisdiction (Abbott, 1988, p. 8-9). Randall Beam (1990) extends Abbott's claims with a second definition of a profession. He too defines a profession as an organised systematic body of knowledge or technique, but adds that it must also "emphasise public service over economic gain", which ultimately benefits the public and feature "broad occupational autonomy and authority". According to McDevitt, Gassaway, and Perez (2002) this means that a profession must uphold a certain autonomy over other actors and a discretion in its appliance of expert knowledge in order to provide and keep providing a service to the public (McDevitt, Gassaway, Perez, 2002, p. 87). It must also "socialise members to a common culture", this culture basically the manifests the profession; and "produce unstandardised occupational products" (Randall Beam, 1990, in Reese, 1999, p. 74).

The term profession and the way it takes shape are usually explained in sociological terms. If one is to follow the economic tradition of the sociological approach of professionalism, as touched upon mentioned by Abbott (1988), professions take shape because certain individuals "control market forces for the benefit of the professionals themselves" (Meyers, 2010, p. 93). The members of a profession, says Meyers (2010), are the ones who deliberately group themselves under favourable conditions and thus create their own monopoly over expert knowledge (Meyers, 2010, p. 93). Although rather basic in its definition of how groups of professionals come into being, it does seem slightly limited in defining the process of professionalism for this
study. It does not specifically explain how these professionals actually obtain their monopoly. According to researchers belonging to the political tradition, like Max Weber, a profession is also primarily a legal condition, which means there are certain standards and rules, licensing and a specific discipline to which all professionals must ascribe. These are more often than not imposed onto a discipline by the government for the common good (Meyers, 2010, p. 93). The most important factor according to Reese (1999) is the restricted access to the "learned professions, by way of academic qualifications” as seen in law, medicine and engineering, which only add to protectionism in the applicable profession (Reese, 1999, p. 75). This means, citing Reese (1999, p. 75), that professionals start with a "common basis of shared experience", where they learn the abstract knowledge mentioned by Abbott (1988) and apply this knowledge to compete with other professionals and exclude non-professionals (Reese, 1999, p. 75).

This is what Hammer (2000) calls professional socialisation. It is essential when defining a profession because it explains how professions gain and maintain their monopoly over a certain field of knowledge (Hammer, 2000, p. 455). Hammer (2000) defines socialisation as a process in which “people selectively acquire the values, attitudes, interests, skills and knowledge – in short, the culture – that currently pertain to the groups in which they are, or seek to become, a member” (Hammer, 2000, p. 455). What this means is that professionals acquire everything they need to know about a profession, to fit in to that profession. This socialisation starts at school where graduation ultimately means a protected diploma to practice a particular profession. This process then continues at the organisation where students first start working. Medicine and law are excellent examples of professions in which socialisation is a key part of its professional standing (Hammer, 2000, p. 457-459). To some extent this shared college and work experience also applies to journalism and will be further discussed in (1.4.). The main reason for expounding on the concept of professional socialization later on, is because this research firsts needs to make out to what extent the above-mentioned professional requirements apply to journalism, before highlighting how these professional characteristics are reinforced by journalism education.

1.2. The case of professional journalism

If one is to compare the profession of journalism to sociologically determined professions, according to Meyers (2010) it is hard to see why journalism can be called a
profession at all. Firstly, journalists are not licensed, they lack a body of theoretical knowledge and there is no required and exclusive curriculum through which all (or even most) journalists must pass (Meyers, 2010, p. 92). Wahl-Jorgensen et al. (2009) concurs, saying that the problem with journalism is its expertise is “neither exclusive and nor is journalistic knowledge abstract” (Wahl-Jorgensen et al., 2009, p. 96). If we look at professional journalism in Abbot’s terminology of abstraction explained in section (1.1), journalists don’t solve problems or write news stories based solemnly upon an abstract pool of knowledge, which only these professionals have access to, by virtue of their education (Abbott, 1988, p. 8). Therefore, say Wahl Jorgensen and Hanitzsch (2009, p.96), “journalists are not experts at all but are simply question-asking generalists”. What Wahl-Jorgensen et al. conclude here, which was also put forth by Kaplan (2006), is that journalists report on and publish their products in the public arena. This in turn prevents journalism from claiming jurisdiction for the news it publishes (Kaplan, 2006, p. 176). To quote Kaplan (2006, p. 176-177): “The press lacks the power to stake out any special territory for its occupational expertise and, thus, cannot exempt any part of the public domain from the democratic clamour of competing interpretations.” In essence this means journalists are unable to exclude non-journalists, like stringers, bloggers, vloggers or any law-abiding citizen, from reporting the news. In fact, says Zelizer (2004), this makes everyone in a democracy entitled to call themselves a journalist and act as a journalist, without breaking the law (Zelizer, 2004, p. 7). Any expert knowledge a journalist does have is not backed or protected by any special qualifications or esoteric occupational language, making it highly susceptible to outside criticism (Kaplan, 2006, p. 177).

Furthermore, concludes Meyers (2010), if one were to follow the political and economical traditions of professionalism (described in 2.1.), journalists are not entirely autonomous in their professional conduct and often don’t serve as consultants, but as employees (Meyers, 2010, p. 92). This lack of (editorial autonomy) has further declined due to the increased importance of profits and the growing influence of media conglomerates (Gissler, 1997, p. 47). Also, according to Meyers (2010) the occupation of journalism lacks a respected legal body or organization (Meyers, 2010, p. 92) that both protects and scrutinises fair journalism conduct. There are, of course, certain journalism associations. The Netherlands, for example, has the ‘Raad van de Journalistiek’¹. However, according to Hermans, Vergeer and Pleijter (2011) these associations miss the

¹ The Raad van de Journalistiek is an independent organisation that aims at ensuring fair conduct in journalism. Although the Raad van de Journalistiek tries to regulate the way professional journalism is practiced, it can only express its opinion about certain cases. It cannot impose any sanctions like a Medical committee can, when it prohibits its professionals from practicing medicine if they are to show bad conduct (Raad van de Journalistiek, 2016)
legal clout to keep ‘professional’ journalists in check, even though journalists would probably be open to a more authoritative external body that would impose proper professional conduct on them (Hermans, Vergeer & Pleijter, 2011, p. 31). Finally, according to Meyers (2010), most journalists command neither a high-enough status nor income to guard any professional monopoly they might enjoy, which is a cornerstone of a profession if one follows the economic sociologic tradition (Meyers, 2010, p. 92 & 100).

Due to this lack of professional identity, the journalistic profession has been under severe pressure since it first claimed to be a profession (Reese, 1999, p. 77). And, says Hermida (2010), the rapid adaptation of the Internet, bloggers and Twitter have ramped up that pressure (Hermida, 2010, p. 300). These technology-facilitated developments have strengthened Zelizer’s (2004) argument that every citizen can become a journalist (Zelizer, 2004, p. 7). Therefore, the boundaries of what entitles someone to call himself or herself a journalist have become somewhat “fuzzy” (Wahl-Jorgensen & Hanitzsch, 2009, p. 98). And according to Lewis (2012), all this has forced journalists to reconsider what characteristics actually make their occupation a profession, in order to keep outside forces at bay (Lewis, 2012, p. 846).

Abbott (1988) mentions that one of the pitfalls of defining professionalism sociologically like Abbott (1988) himself and later Beam (1990), Reese (1999) and Meyers (2010) have, is that simply by calling something a profession for long enough will eventually make it one (Abbott, 1988, p. 8). With this remark Abbott (1988) echoes a paper written five years earlier by Thomas Gieryn (1983) on what he calls ‘boundary work’. In his study focusing on the British 19th century scientific community, Gieryn (1983) claimed that the emerging distinctions between ‘science’ and ‘non-science’ were partially constructed by a community of researchers. The self-interested rhetoric from scientists helped shape science (Gieryn, 1983; in Wahl-Jorgensen et al., 2009, p. 96). Or put more clearly by Wahl-Jorgensen & Hanitzsch (2009, p. 96): “the very act of answering the question ‘what is science’ helped to shape the modern notions of science, defining it by both what it was and what it was not” (Wahl-Jorgensen et al., 2009, p. 96). Gieryn’s (1983) term of boundary work is important because almost a decade later Zelizer (1992) applied it to professional journalism. According to Zelizer (1992), and as (1.2.) describes, journalism misses key credentials (Zelizer, 1992, p. 217) and, continue Wahl-Jorgensen and Hanitzsch (20009), it misses a strong abstract theoretical base to make a claim to be a profession that’s as strong as that of other professions (Wahl-Jorgensen, 2009, p. 97). This forces journalistic communities to articulate what ‘professional
journalism is’ and the very act of answering the question helps shape modern notions of journalism (Gieryin, 1983 in Wahl-Jorgensen & Hanitzsch, 2009, p. 96; Zelizer, 1992, p. 34). Therefore, says Zelizer (1992), the process of journalistic legitimisation while setting its professional boundaries is primarily a rhetorical one (Zelizer, 1992, p. 34 (Zelizer, 2004, p. 72). This is so much so that academics often speak of the ideology of journalism when identifying what professional journalism is (Deuze, 2005, p. 444) . Professional journalists refer to their collective knowledge when identifying themselves with the profession (Zelizer, 2004, p. 101). Deuze (2005) concurs with Zelizer and concludes that the whole arc of 20th century professionalisation in journalism can be seen as “the consolidation of a consensual occupational ideology” (Deuze, 2005, p. 444). And it also coincides with Aldridge and Evetts’ (2003) views that occupational professionalism, and journalism in particular, is ideological in nature and is defined as a representation of the values, societal roles and formal codes that allow members to validate and give meaning to their work (Aldridge & Evetts, 2003, p. 549). These values and norms, which are part of the ideology, are the very beliefs a particular group (in this case journalists) apply in their work. Professional journalists discuss and fall back on these beliefs because it helps them relate to the profession and justify the profession (Deuze, 2005, p. 445; Shoemaker and Reese, 1996, p. 11).

Deduced from earlier journalism research, Deuze (2005) distinguishes a number of building blocks that explain how practitioners, scholars and educators go about defining the ideology of journalism. First and foremost, journalists provide a certain public service to the public, whether they are providing necessary information, or scrutinising elected powers as the servants of democracy (Deuze, 2005, p. 447). Hanitzsch (2007) also stated that the only way we can measure the importance of journalism as a ‘semi-profession’ is according to its institutional roles in society, which are the first constituents of a prescriptive journalism culture (Hanitzsch, 2007, p. 371). In this case prescriptive means that journalists take for granted the idea that society needs them as journalists – and journalists alone – to fulfil their journalistic functions. According to Deuze (2005), and sticking with Hanitzsch’s (2007) choice of words, the second constituent of journalism’s professional culture are the values and norms that journalism follows to fulfil its democratic functions in society (Deuze, 2005, p. 447-450). One of these values is the almost sacred notion of objectivity identified by authors such as Schudson (1978) and Reese (1999). They describe journalists as being impartial and objective in their work, making them credible and distinguishing them from ‘non-journalists’ (Deuze, 2005, p. 448). Journalists are also said to be autonomous in their work and independent of any economic or political power when reporting
Beam (1990) already indicated that a profession must always favour public service over economic gain (Randall Beam, 1990, in Reese, 1999, p. 74), but Gissler (1997) proved this professional value is becoming increasingly difficult to sustain because of the rising power of media conglomerates and increased commercial control over newsrooms (Gissler, 1997, p. 47). Lastly, a recurrent value in journalism studies is that journalists must have a sense of **immediacy** and **speed**. Their work is to highlight the most important actualities of our reality and disseminate them as quickly as possible (Deuze, 2005, p. 449).

According to Sjøvaag (2010) what makes these ideological pillars important is that they serve as a social contract between journalism and the public. The continuous emphasis of these ideological characteristics of journalism clarifies to society at large why journalism is important and why it could even be called a profession (Sjøvaag, 2010, p. 874). Despite the journalistic social contract not specifically being set in stone and the fact that journalists don’t swear an oath like other professionals have to, it doesn’t mean that this social contract doesn’t exist (Sjøvaag, 2010, p. 874-875). As Wahl-Jorgensen et al. (2009) point out, this rhetorical - Meyers (2010) even prefers to call it philosophical (Meyers, 2010, p. 94) - way of defining their own profession according to a certain ideology (Wahl-Jorgensen & Hanitzsch, 2009, p. 92) is perhaps more inherent to the profession of journalism than any other profession. This ideology isn’t static in nature. Lewis (2012) states that, because of its “malleable and evolving character” (Lewis, 2012, p. 842), journalism has a natural tendency of continuously redefining its own boundaries (Lewis, 2012, p. 842). It marginalises certain ideas or values and codifies others, which, in effect, reinforces or changes the boundaries of what society sees as professional journalism (Deuze, 2005, p. 445). This adaptable character makes this exploration of professional journalism, consisting of specific ideological values and roles and discussed by journalistic communities in both the past and the present, all the more important. It gives the practitioners, educators and scholars of journalism an insight in the social preliminaries that, despite having a weak professional standing, still give a journalist cultural significance and an authoritative voice within society, eventually legitimizing the profession (Lewis, 2012, p. 837). This is why the aforementioned pillars of a journalistic ideology (Deuze, 2005, p. 447) will be discussed in more detail in the next sub-section. Highlighting what’s been said about this ideology is necessary because it allows this research to fall back on this basic understanding of professional journalism when asking journalism students what they make of this ideology. If their thoughts differ, this research can identify a possible change in journalism’s boundaries that might redefine what professional journalism actually is.
The remainder of this chapter (1.3.) will further explain the crucial role played by journalists in a well-functioning democracy. This is followed by a more in-depth look at the values or traits considered vital for a journalist to have if he or she is to fulfil that role in society.

1.3. The ideology of journalism: institutional roles and normative values

According to Kaplan (2002) journalism's main authority as a profession originates from its service to the public discourse (Kaplan, 2002, pp. 184–197). Specifically speaking, adds Donsbach (2008), the journalistic field has long taken for granted assumptions about its exclusive right of providing society with the information it needs to make democratic decisions. These taken-for-granted assumptions of their role in society influence journalists’ behaviour on the job (Donsbach, 2008, p. 2605). If one is to understand professionalism in journalism and the ideology that is inextricably linked to it, one must first be introduced to these roles.

According to Reinemann (2014) the large body of literature on institutional roles contains similar typologies that either stress normative expectations from society - like being a bearer or interpreter of information - or a certain contribution to the democratic system, whether as an advocate of public policy or a critic of the political status quo (Reinemann, 2014, p. 338). Previous literature on the institutional roles of journalism start with the claim that journalists must have a neutral stance in society, first suggested by Cohen in 1963 and later supported by Johnstone, Slawkisi and Bowman (1972). According to Cohen (1963) one of a journalist's functions in society is remaining detached while reporting. Journalists' main objective is to be an informer for the public domain, making their chief responsibility telling the news as it is and letting their readers make their own judgements (Cohen, 1963, p. 22). Tied to this neutral function of journalism is the professional value of objectivity, which journalists have been preoccupied with since the end of the 19th century (Schudson, 1978, p. 321). If journalists are to disseminate information in a totally opinion-free manner, they must be neutral, objective, fair and (thus) credible, insists Deuze (2005). This is seen as a key element of professional journalism and one that is ingrained in the professional identity of journalists (Deuze, 2005, p. 448). However, according to Merritt (1995), objectivity leads to a kind of detachment from society that makes its professionals immune to any kind of comment or critique (Merritt, 1995, p. 127-130). Becker, Vlad and Gans (2003, p. 26) explained that “it can transform a journalist from an autonomous interpreter of events into a passive reporter”. Eventually, journalists might become more favourable to
the interests of their sources than to those of the public, therefore failing to fulfil other functions in society that underscore a healthy democracy (Merritt, 1995, p. 127–30; Becker et al., 2003, p. 26).

The value of objectivity and the neutral role outlined by Cohen (1963) is a crucial part of the dialogue around professional journalism, but it falls short in explaining all journalism’s functions in society. Hanitzsch’s (2007) three-dimensional approach when explaining the way journalistic communities talk about their roles in society is more useful for this research. This is because these dimensions indicate all the different ways that previous research focusing on professional journalism (Gans, 1979; Schramm, 1964; Lee, Pan, Chan & So, 2001; Wu, Weaver & Johnson, 1996; Weaver & Wilhoit, 1996; Underwood, 2001) has sought to identify and make sense of recurring journalistic institutional roles. Gaining a better understanding of Hanitzsch’s (2007) dimensions also gives this research a clearer view of which institutional roles are most important when investigating journalism students. As will be explained in the paragraph below, this research will use the following institutional roles to explain the professional ideology of journalism: the citizen-orientated role, the watchdog role, the advocacy role and the consumer-orientated role.

According to Hanitzsch (2007), journalists speak of their work in terms of different role dimensions. The first dimension is defined by the amount of intervention journalists apply in their work. The main question related to this notion of ‘interventionism’ is whether the journalist should stay detached and impartial while reporting on the news, or take a more active and committed stance and engage with the public discourse to promote social change (Hanitzsch, 2007, p. 373). Hanitzsch’s second dimension is ‘power distance’: it is through this dimension that earlier identified roles such as the watchdog role (Gans, 1979, p. 295; and Schramm, 1964, p. 127) and the partisan or advocacy role (Lee et al., 2001, p. 249; Wu, Weaver & Johnson, 1996, p. 544) of journalism take shape. These roles are diametric opposites of the power distance dimension described by Hanitzsch (2007, p.). According to McQuail (2005), the watchdog role explains journalism as an all-seeing eye that checks whether political, economic, judicial and other authorities operate fairly and according to the law, thereby contributing to a well-functioning democracy (McQuail, 2005, p. 286). The advocacy role on the other hand sees a journalist more as a loyal mouthpiece of political parties and organisations that passes on what is considered necessary and useful information to citizens (Lee et al., 2001, p. 249; McQuail, 2005, p. 286).

These first two dimensions, together with notion that journalists should be neutral observers mentioned earlier by Cohen (1963), are useful because they offer a
first glimpse of journalism’s professional standing and role within a democracy. However, it only offers an insight into the political functions of journalism. Hanitzsch also offers a third dimension, which gives a more general understanding of the way journalists look at their profession in terms of adding value for the public. Hanitzsch (2007) calls this the ‘market orientation approach’, in which the media addresses the public as either citizens or consumers (Hanitzsch, 2007, p. 374-375). According to Hanitzsch (2007), the latter is increasingly displacing the former due to the rise of profit-driven conglomerates and an increasing amount of televised and published infotainment (news functioning as entertainment) (Hanitzsch, 2007, p. 375).

Institutional roles related to this last dimension are ‘the disseminator’ (Weaver & Wilhoit, 1996, p. 138-140), or ‘interpreter’ (Anderson and Ward, 2007, p. 65; Mcquail, 2005, p. 286) of information and the ‘entertainment function’ of journalism (McQuail, 2005, p. 500-501). According to Wahl-Jorgensen et al. (2009) seeing journalists as informers or interpreters means they should provide truthful information on which citizens can make informed political, personal, economical or other choices (Wahl-Jorgensen & Hanitzsch, 2009, p. 238-239). Or, as Anderson and Ward (2007, p. 65) put it: "high-quality, independent news journalism which provides accurate and thoughtful information and analysis about current events is crucial to the creation of and enlightened citizenry that is able to participate meaningfully in society and politics”.

Hence the information journalism provides has an indispensable value to democracy and society. However, Donsbach and Patterson (2004) tell that the media also offer a form of relaxation and that the entertainment function has increasingly fused within the newsroom (Donsbach and Patterson, 2004, p. 50). Underwood (2001) doesn't necessarily consider this role to be pure entertainment, but a journalistic orientation to the logic of the marketplace, essentially meaning that journalists have the responsibility to know what kind of news sells. Underwood (2001) expresses this function, which he calls ‘service journalism’, a reaction to the public’s demand for greater individual autonomy. This has induced a vast increase in consumer news and ‘news-you-can-use items’ (Underwood, 2001, p. 102). For the purpose of this study the disseminator and interpreter role are coined as citizen-orientated, and the entertainment role as consumer-orientated. This is because, as the market orientation approach by Hanitzsch (2007, p. 374-375) suggests, this dimension specifically determines how the content provided by a journalist enriches the public, either as citizens or consumers.

The diversity of these role perceptions and the different names researchers give them (informative, neutral, interpreter, entertainment, advocate, adversary, watchdog etc.) are exactly why Strömbäck (2005) insists that these institutional roles are ideals
and never appear anywhere in pure form (Strömbäck, 2005, p. 337). In reality, continues McQuail, journalists adhere to different roles and have different perceptions of their role in society. They can put more or less emphasis on the different roles, creating different role-perception configurations for different journalists (McQuail, 2005, p. 287). Deuze and Dimoudi (2002), for instance, concluded in their analysis of German, Dutch and Flemish online journalists that their sample favoured entertainment and advertising roles over investigative ones (Deuze & Dimoudi, 2002, p. 94-95).

However, the emphases journalists put on their different roles say a lot about how they see their professional role within society (Deuze, 2005, p. 447-448), and, ultimately, how they communicate their professional position. So although the specific four institutional roles described in the previous section are hardly definitive, they are, nonetheless, the most commonly referred to by journalism studies.

In addition to research into the democratic functions that position journalism as a profession, there are other scholarly articles that deal with the sets of values and traits that journalists consider important in being able to successfully fulfil these functions within society (Ward, 2005, p. 309). The paragraph below sketches the most notable values and professional traits identified in previous research. Together with the democratic functions of journalism outlined in the previous section, these constitute the background information this study relies on to analyse what journalism students make of them in the 21st century.

Apart from the value of objectivity, there have been numerous researches on other possible cornerstones of journalism that indicate how professional journalists should go about their work when fulfilling the afore-mentioned functions they have in society. Kovach and Rosenstiel (2007), for instance, describe nine elements of journalism. Among other elements, journalists must feel a professional obligation to tell the truth, as well as a need to keep news proportional. They must maintain autonomy and be disciplined in verifying facts (Kovach and Rosenstiel, 2007, p. 13). Those nine ‘commandments’ of journalism listed by Kovach and Rosenstiel (2007) veer towards a concept introduced by Weaver and Willnat (2014), who insist that journalists must feel they have editorial autonomy, freedom and independence (Weaver & Willnat, 2014, p. 13). Indeed, as section (1.1.) illustrated, Randall Beam (1990) observed that a profession must feature broad occupational autonomy and authority for others to call it a profession at all (Randall Beam, 1990, in Reese, 1999, p. 74). Because professional journalists rely on certain norms and values when identifying themselves with the profession (Deuze, 2005, p. 445) –like the value of occupational autonomy mentioned
here by Reese (1999) - it may come as no surprise that, quoting Deuze (2005, p. 448): “reporters across the globe feel that their work can only thrive and flourish in a society that protects its media from censorship; in a company that saves its journalists from the marketers”. Earlier, Gissler (1997) and (2010) stated that editorial autonomy has only declined due to increased commercialism and the growing influence of media tycoons (Gissler, 1997, p. 47). According to Deuze (2005), journalists often turn to this ideological value to raise their professional status when they feel threatened by new developments (Deuze, 2005, p. 456). Therefore, the trend described by Gissler (1997) makes autonomy an even more important professional value to study here because Dutch journalism students might set even more store by it. Journalism students might feel the need to stress their professional standing in terms of their autonomy because economic stakeholders and advertisers increasingly influence the newsworth of today's journalists (Bardoel, 2010, p. 235), hence pressuring the service journalists are able to deliver to society (McDevitt, Gassaway, Perez, 2002, p. 87).

In a recent research covering the professional identity of Dutch journalists, Hermans, Vergeer and Pleijter (2011) offer an all-encompassing overview of the classic values described in previous literature. They name **objectivity** (Schudson, 1978) **autonomy** (Deuze, 2005; Weaver & Willnat, 2014) **accuracy** (Singer, 2003) and **neutrality** (Cohen, 1963) as key values that define journalism as a profession. The term accuracy described by Singer (2003) represents the responsibility of news media to report the news in a full and fair manner (Singer, 2003, p. 153). This entails not excluding key facts from a story and being able to identify news stories that will have the most relevance for the public. According to Hermans et al. (2011), these values allow journalism to both function and safeguard its professional conduct (Hermans, Vergeer & Pleijter, 2011, p. 31) to eventually maintain a respected position in society. As a last addition to these values, Weaver and Wilhoit (1996) claim that journalists must also have a sense of **immediacy**. News pressures journalists with a need to be first (Weaver and Wilhoit, 1996, p. 263). According to Deuze (2005) their work involves “notions of speed, fast decision-making, hastiness, and working in accelerated real-time” (Deuze, 2005, p. 449). The downside of this need for speed, claims Deuze (2005), is that fact-verification and consistency (accuracy) can be compromised (Deuze, 2005, p. 457). This is an interesting proposition, because it implies that the journalistic values interplay with one another, in the same way that the four functions of journalism in society are not mutually exclusive. In other words, one does not rule out the other. The only thing that changes, as is also the case with journalistic roles in society, is the importance that different communities attach to journalistic values and traits over time (Deuze, 2005, p. 450).
The reason these four functions (citizen-orientated, watchdog, advocacy and consumer-orientated) and the professional values and traits (objectivity, autonomy, accuracy, neutrality and immediacy) were extensively discussed in the previous paragraphs is because this research must have a workable pallet from which to interpret Dutch journalism students’ views of the ideology of journalism. If there is such a thing as a dominant occupational ideology (Deuze, 2005, p. 444) one would expect journalism students to find these societal roles and professional values very important when identifying themselves with the profession. That’s because professional journalism passes down its values and ideals – the ones that give it its professional credibility - to journalism students (Reese, 1999, p. 71) via journalism education.

1.4. Professional socialisation

As the previous sections suggest, the concept of professional journalism rests mainly on the occupational ideology that it has communicated over the past century (Deuze, 2005, p. 444) and it does so because it misses key professional characteristics provided, or required even, by sociological research (Meyers, 2010, p. 91; Hammer, 2000, p. 456). The only underlying process of professionalisation that does seem to fully apply to journalism is the professional socialisation mentioned in section (1.2.). Professional socialisation has been present in newsrooms for some time (Wahl-Jorgensen & Hanitzsch, p. 91). According to Deuze (2004), news editors or reporters are socialised by editorial hierarchies, management, newsroom-specific codes of conduct, budgets, deadlines and the expectations of colleagues and seniors. These aren’t official rules and they can vary per organisation, even per newsroom, but it is very hard for newcomers to ignore them or behave differently (Deuze, 2004, p. 176). In this respect journalism indeed seems to fulfil part of the socialisation process of professionalism.

The boundaries of journalism as a profession are vague (Stigbrand & Nygren, 2013, p. 18), more so than any other ‘qualified’ profession. Because of this, says Reese (1999) the journalistic community has recently fortified its ‘profession’ by means of educational socialisation. Among journalism’s self-assuring ideology and organisational standards, this is a natural response in filling the professional vacuum that still exists (Reese, 1999, p. 75; Hallin & Mancini, 2004, p. 33). Stigbrand and Nygren (2013) concur by explaining that this is to keep others outside the group (Stigbrand & Nygren, 2013, p. 16; Lewis, 2012, p. 844). The journalistic roles and values explained in section (1.3.) are being transferred to a new generation of journalists via educational programmes (Sanders et al., 2008, p. 134).
The number of schools of journalism has increased quickly in recent years. In the Netherlands alone, there are 14 schools and universities offering journalism programmes, with dedicated departments, research and teaching programmes in journalism (Centraal Register Opleidingen Hoger Onderwijs, 2015). According to Deuze (2005) the increase of schools that teach journalism suggests that journalism as a discipline, is to some extent, “based on a shared understanding of key theories and methods” (Deuze, 2005, p. 442). The rapid increase in university-based journalism programmes is what Splichal and Sparks (1994) like to call a ‘graduatisaiton of journalism’. It represents an important shift in the educational background of journalists and according to Mellado et al. (2013) may become an influential factor in any changes in journalism culture (Splichal & Sparks, 1994, p. 114; Mellado et al., 2013, p. 1-2). However, the problem with this graduatisation, according Deuze (2005), is that there is very little (international) consensus and disciplinary dialogue in journalism studies. This means that the pool of knowledge students learn at university is not the same everywhere in the world. The profession of journalism is, in other words, not universal (Deuze, 2005, p. 442-443). This is a key reason that journalism education is still regarded as a hybrid degree, serving diverse needs and not educating students purely and exclusively for the profession of journalism (Reese, 1999, p. 75). This weakens the premise that could fully exclude others from practicing journalism. Even if journalism is considered a ‘semi-profession’, its education remains an important factor of any further professionalisation (Deuze, 2006, p. 27) because, says Deuze (2006), it passes on the classical model of the profession to journalism students, defined by the occupational ideology and its privileged role in democratic society (Deuze, 2006, p. 25).

Educational socialisation is important to mention in this research because the Dutch journalism students part of this research are part of that socialisation process. The analysis of the students’ views on the occupational ideology of journalism can make us better understand the increasingly important role professional socialisation plays in journalism, which, at the end of the day, as Yang and Arant (2013) assert, might determine the way professional journalism is defined in the future (Yang and Arant, 2013, p. 34). Deuze (2006) accentuates the point made by Yang and Arant (2013) that learning from journalism students may change the way the journalistic community views professional journalism. He makes a distinction between the follower and innovator modes of journalism education (Deuze, 2006, p. 25). The follower mode readies student journalists with practical know-how and vocational training to blend in the ‘real’ newsroom – much like professional socialisation. The innovator mode, meanwhile, equips them with a dose of critical reflection on the status quo. He says
(Deuze, 2006, p. 25) that “the media industry often says it wants the latter but expects the first”. This means journalism students might echo occupational ideology because the profession of journalism “produces its producers” (Wahl-Jorgensen & Hanitzsch p. 91). But they might also have their own non-conforming views of what professional journalism should entail, as well as how it should be practiced. Both conforming and non-conforming views are of interest in this research to add value to a more contemporary definition of professional journalism.
CHAPTER II: Professional self-perception

Having laid out the ideology and socialisation of a professional form of journalism, it is important to know how journalism students review these aspects of journalism. As Yang and Arant have explained, analysing journalism students such a way helps us understand whether the occupational ideology, and thus the professional boundaries, have or will change during the next few years (Yang and Arant, 2013, p. 34). Perhaps journalism students have a different view of the way journalism is practiced today than academics and its current practitioners. If one is to follow Zelizer (2004), it is clear that there is no defining set that can convey all there is to know about journalism. We cannot explain all of journalism's workings in one way at any given point in time. The collection of interpretations, from whatever interpretive community (students, practitioners, educators or scholars) about any given subject (journalism as text, institution, service etc.) eventually becomes the idea of professional journalism (Zelizer, 2004 in Overholser et al., 2005, p. 76 – 77). All interpretive communities have to offer is a glimpse of how they see professional journalism, in so much this thesis offers a glimpse as to how the interpretive community of students sees it (Overholser, Hall Jamieson, 2005, p. 76 – 77). As Wiik (2014, p. 661) summarises: “Asking different people from within the journalistic community offers a unique opportunity to follow ideological changes in the journalistic collective over time.”

The final chapter of the theoretical framework will identify how other researchers have attempted to analyse the professional identity of journalism students, before moving on to do the same for Dutch journalism students. Firstly, this thesis introduces what Stigbrand and Nygren (2013) call the professional self-perception of (student) journalists and the three aspects it contains: namely their view on journalistic roles in society, journalistic values and traits and their motives to become journalists. This is followed by some of the most recent research on the professional self-perception of students (including: Hovden et al., 2009; Sanders et al. 2008; Wu & Weaver, 2000; Stigbrand and Nygren 2013; and Mellado et al., 2013). The definition and parameters of professional self-perception, which these researches used to survey journalism students, are the basis for this study’s analysis. They also serve as a vantage point from which to interpret the results obtained from Dutch journalism students.
2.1. The dimensions of professional self-perception

According to Gecas and Burke (1995) the study of professional identity is very much linked to that of personal identity, which Gecas and Burke (1995) define as “the various meanings attached to oneself by self and others” (Gecas and Burke, 1995, p 42; in Slay & Smith, 2011, p. 87). In essence, this means that the professional identity (or coined in this thesis as professional self-perception) of an individual is shaped by the attributes, beliefs, and values these individuals describe to define themselves when identifying themselves with a certain profession (Slay & Smith, 2011, p. 87). This coincides very much with the earlier described ideology and processes (Chapter I) that explain to society what professional journalism is. Professional self-perception describes this ideology on a more individual level. In fact, Cardoso, Batista and Graça (2014) make the distinction between these two types of professional identity, namely: the individual dimension (seen here as professional self-perception) and the collective dimension (the collective knowledge or ideology of a profession) (Cardoso, Batista & Graça, 2014, p. 83). The collective level is actually the combined identity of professionals who relate to the profession on an individual level (Cardoso, Batista & Graça, 2014, p. 84-85). This thesis aims at analysing journalism students’ self-perception, and asks them personal questions about how they relate to professional journalism. This research will therefore put more emphasis on the individual level of professional identity. According to Cardoso, Batista and Graça (2014) the individual dimension of professional identity covers two aspects: a personal aspect, which has to do with the professional values, beliefs, traits and characteristics that an individual deems important (Cardoso, Batista and Graça, 2014, p. 83); but also a social aspect, which explains what meaning individuals give their profession in relation to another group (Cardoso, Batista and Graça, 2014, p. 83).

Stigbrand and Nygren (2013) expand this notion of professional identity described by Cardoso, Batista and Graça (2014) and link it to the ideology of journalism described in Chapter I. They too suggest that the individual professional self-perception of a (student) journalist - who is considered here to be the professional - has two aspects but they approach it quite differently. Like the social aspect described by Cardoso, Batista and Graça’s (2014) the external dimension is the journalist’s identity in relation to other groups in society. According to Stigbrand and Nygren (2013) for journalists this external dimension pertains to professional roles for audiences, sources, and political systems (Stigbrand & Nygren, 2013, p. 102). This stems from the initial idea (Deuze, 2005) that journalists gain their professional standing on the back of the
contribution they make to society (Deuze, 2005, p. 453). The internal dimension of a (student) journalist's self-perception relates to the values and traits that are important for a (student) journalist. The individual evaluates these professional values and traits and puts them in relation to him or herself. Together with the external dimension of professional self-perception described by Stigbrand and Nygren (2013) these two dimensions define how different individuals describe their professional 'self', according to the profession they find themselves in or for which they are still studying. The (internal) values and traits and (external) societal roles thus form the basis for the professional self-perception of (student) journalists.

However to be able to give a more in-depth depiction of journalism student's self-perception Stigbrand and Nygren (2013) also included journalistic ambition as a variable in their study of Scandinavian, Polish and Russian students. They did so in order to understand how a (student) journalist views himself or herself professionally in terms of his or her motivation. (Stigbrand & Nygren, 2013, p. 98-101). Stigbrand and Nygren (2013) do not make clear why they added motivation to the equation of a journalism student's professional self-perception, but the differences Stigbrand and Nygren (2013) found between the ambitions of Scandinavian, Polish and Russian journalism students (Stigbrand & Nygren, 2013, p. 98-101) give a more specific and personal insight into where and how journalists see themselves within the professional boundaries of journalism. Or in other words, how their personal aspiration compares to the views they have of professional journalism. The notion that journalistic motivation is somehow linked to the professional identity of a (student) journalist somewhat contradicts Reese's (1999) and Deuze's (2004) conclusions that to become a journalist, newcomers only need to socialise the existing journalistic values and roles described in Chapter I (Reese, 1999, p. 74; Deuze, 2004, p. 176). This view is naïve, according to Frith and Meech (2007), who claim it is an overstatement to suggest graduate journalists can simply take their place in newsrooms, accept the values and roles bestowed upon them, and flourish (Frith & Meech, 2007, p. 161). They used two examples of young graduates who left the newspaper they worked for: “In both cases we had a sense that the journalists concerned felt that the interest of being a journalist no longer compensated for the grind of what was, after all, a routine job” (Frith & Meech, 2007, p. 161). Frith and Meech continue that there seems to be different sense of self-worth competing with the aforementioned occupational ideology that carves a (student) journalists’ professional outlook. And according to Frith and Meech (2007) that is his or her journalistic motivation.

In Chapter I this thesis outlined how certain scholars explain professional
journalism in terms of its professional values and the roles it fulfils in society. Also, Deuze and Dimoudi (2002) concluded that professional journalism can, and has, changed in its ideals in the eyes of journalists (Deuze & Dimoudi, 2002, p. 94-95). But judging from Frith and Meech's (2007) findings, for some generations of journalists it has also changed as a career. Bardoel, Vos, Vree and Wijffjes (2005) concur. They claim that 25 years ago journalism was a respected profession. But today more and more journalists, and students who are training to become journalists, see journalism as a profession in an entirely different light to earlier generations of journalists (Bardoel et al., 2005, p. 118). To quote Bardoel et al. (2005): “Young journalists don't feel the need to devote their soul and to commit to a particular newspaper, radio station or television channel. They are not as obsessed with their careers as their forerunners. They define the profession of a political journalist completely differently” (Bardoel et al. 2005, p. 118). Thom (2004) points out how compelling it is that, compared to earlier generations, a change in journalism student’s journalistic ideals (pinned by changing views on journalistic values and journalistic roles) possibly goes hand-in-hand with a change in journalistic ambition (Thom, 2004, p. 30-32; Bardoel et al., 2005, p. 118; Deuze & Dimoudi, 2002, p. 96). Furthermore Wu and Weaver (1998) found a remarkable link between when the study choice is made (which they saw as an element of motivation) and the ideals of Chinese students. The earlier those students decided to study journalism, the more they preferred informative journalistic roles and neutral journalistic values. This suggests that the amount of motivation students bring to college has a bearing on how they experience college and how it shapes their expectations of journalism (Wu and Weaver, 1998, p. 526). This certainly makes journalism students' motivation - which comprises their aspirations and expectations of journalism as a career - an interesting variable to include in this thesis, because it gives a more profound understanding of how and why these students relate to the occupational ideology of journalism. Or put differently: these three aspects (societal roles, values and motivation) form the building blocks that (student) journalists fall back on when identifying with the profession.

2.2. External dimension

According to Stigbrand & Nygren (2013) the first element of a (student) journalists' self-perception, in much the same way as it is a building block of journalism's occupational ideology (Deuze, 2005, p. 447), is the role they feel that a journalist must fulfil in society.

Therefore the first sub-question of this thesis is:
Recent research has sought to answer this question by analysing journalism students from other countries. Apparently, the classic journalism roles described in Chapter I (like the watchdog role, the citizen-orientated role, the advocacy role and the consumer-orientated role) still figure prominently. Sanders et al. (2008), for example, compared journalism students’ views on journalistic roles with earlier results from the Delano and Henningham (1995) survey of the practitioners of journalism. What they found was that compared to British journalists researched a decade earlier, British journalism students had a much weaker preference for entertainment. The disseminator role was considered equally important than in the Delano and Henningham (1995) survey (Sanders et al., 2008, p. 143). The fact that journalism students’ perception of journalistic roles can differ per country was further exemplified by Hovden et al. (2009). Among other results, they found a stark contrast between the importance that Nordic students attach to the watchdog role of journalism (Hovden et al., 2009, p. 160). Stigbrand and Nygren (2013), on the other hand, concluded that journalism students’ outlook on the role that journalism should play in society was very similar to the views of its current practitioners. In their results they wrote that informative and investigative roles remain the most important, while the commercial function of journalism is secondary (Stigbrand & Nygren, 2013, p. 105). Like Hovden et al. (2009) and Sanders et al. (2008), they categorised media roles according to a range of statements and the importance that journalism students allocated to them. A selection of these were: ‘disseminate news quickly’, ‘expose social evils’, ‘facilitate social reform’ and ‘provide entertainment’ (Stigbrand & Nygren, 2013, p. 106; Hovden et al., 2009, p 160-161; Sanders et al., 2008, p. 142). What these researches on journalism students all have in common is that they work according to the same set of roles, underscoring the accuracy of the classic journalism roles introduced in Chapter I, albeit in a different form. Like the more classic literature on institutional roles, the research studies outlined above identify four contemporary societal roles, which will also be used in the analysis of this research. These are: 1. **Advocacy** (advocacy and changing public opinion); 2. **Watchdog** (authoritative voice against power); 3. **Consumer-oriented** (entertainment role); 4. **Citizen-oriented** (information-provider, stimulating the public debate). Mellado et al. (2013) pointed out that these roles do not exclude one another. A student who thinks it is important to be a neutral observer can also score high on a consumer-oriented role (Mellado, 2013, p. 3). Deuze (2002) concluded that in order to uncover the external dimension of student journalists’ self-perception, you only have to ask them the
importance they attach to a range of statements as each corresponds to a certain journalistic role (Deuze, 2002, p. 140).

2.3. Internal dimension

Further following Stigbrand and Nygren's (2013) model of professional self-perception the internal aspect is professional values and traits (Stigbrand & Nygren, 2013, p.102). As Chapter I showed, professional values are an important research topic when investigating journalists' views on professional journalism. However, when assessing journalism students, authors like Hovden et al. (2009) and Stigbrand and Nygren (2013) speak of journalistic competence (Stigbrand & Nygren, 2013, p. 102; Hovden et al., 2009, p. 159). According to Deuze (2006) journalistic competence comprises the ideas individuals have about journalistic values but also the traits that (student) journalists feel a journalist must have, all of which are inextricably linked to these professional values (Deuze, 2006, p. 28). Or, as Hovden et al. (2009) mentioned: "Competence can be divided into theoretical, practical and tacit knowledge and also includes personal values and traits," (Hovden et al., 2009, p. 159). This research follows Hovden et al. (2009) and Stigbrand and Nygren's (2013) use of competence (Stigbrand & Nygren, 2013, p. 102-105; Hovden et al., 2009, p. 159-160) in the assessment of Dutch journalism students' answers to the second sub-question:

SQ2: According to Dutch journalism students, what are the professional values and traits of a journalist?

The surprising thing about these studies is that classic professional values like accuracy, objectivity and neutrality, described by Hermans, Vergeer and Pleijter, (2011), Schudson (1978), Deuze (2005) and Weaver and Wilhoit (1996) are but one of the three dimensions in Stigbrand and Nygren's (2013) and Hovden et al.'s (2009) analyses of Scandinavian and Russian journalism students. They describe three overarching categories, underpinned by a range of values and traits. The three categories and a few of these values and traits can be found below and will be more elaborately explained in the methodology section:

- **accuracy** - being ‘sincere’ and ‘accurate’, ‘thorough’ and ‘having a sense of justice’;
- **expressiveness** – ‘having a desire for self-expression’, ‘compassion’ ‘autonomy’ and ‘curiosity’;
- **networking** – ‘good looks’ and ‘having a certain charm’, ‘respectful of the authorities’ and ‘capable of making new contacts’.

Stigbrand and Nygren (2013), as well as Hovden et al. (2009) found that students in five different countries said that accuracy was the most important category. Expressiveness came second, with networking the last (Stigbrand and Nygren, 2013, p. 123-124; Hovden et al., 2009, p. 149). As Hovden et al. (2009) mention, not much has been researched when it comes to the knowledge, skills and traits (competence) that are deemed important qualifications in journalism (Hovden et al., 2009, p. 159).

Professional journalistic values (outlined in Chapter I) are a recurrent part of journalism’s occupational ideology and journalism studies in general. But to cater for a more encompassing definition of the characteristics that define a professional journalist, these professional values have been linked to a (student) journalists’ traits to make out journalistic competence, described by Hovden et al. (2009, p. 159-160) and Stigbrand and Nygren (2013, p. 102). For the purpose of this study, these traits and values are grouped in a similar manner.

As part 2.1. of this chapter explained, the third building block of journalism students’ professional self-perception, is their motivation to become journalist. The interaction - between motivation and the importance that journalism students attach to certain institutional roles, values and traits - is exactly why including this third variable is so important in this analysis. If journalistic roles and journalistic competence says something about journalism students’ ideas about the profession, then motivation should say something about how they identify with that profession and the likelihood that they see themselves working in it. Therefore the third sub-question of this thesis is:

**SQ3: What are Dutch journalism student’s motives to become journalists?**

Research on journalism students’ professional motivation is not new. In 1994 Splichal and Sparks (1994) found that 21.6 per cent of their student target group in 22 countries were motivated by ‘the chance to change society’, whereas only 4.5 per cent chose journalism ‘because of a good salary’ (Splichal & Sparks, 1994; in Hanusch & Mellado, 2014, p. 1158). Six years later Sanders et al. (2008) produced similar results in a study that found that British students felt ‘a good income’ or ‘good prospects’ motivated them the least (Sanders et al., 2008, p. 139). Wu and Weaver (1998) compiled two indices to better gauge students’ expectations of journalism. The first measured professional development-orientated motives such as ‘a chance to help social development’ and ‘a
chance to develop personal abilities’. The second gauged personal reward-oriented motives, such as ‘expectations of quick fame’, ‘travel’ and ‘social status’ (Wu and Weaver, 1998, p. 520). Hovden et al. (2009) and Stigbrand and Nygren (2013) extended Wu and Weaver’s research by dividing the development-orientated motives into two different categories. Therefore, their total framework of journalistic motives consists of three families, which were also used for this analysis: idealist motives, practical motives, and personal motives (Hovden et al., 2009, p. 154-155; Stigbrand & Nygren, 2013, p. 98). In Hovden et al.’s (2009) survey, students were presented with 20 different reasons they’d want to work as a journalist and they were asked to rank them. Hovden et al. (2009) concluded that journalism students from Scandinavian countries could be labelled as Practical Idealists, preferring a mix of practical motives (for instance, ‘having varied and lively work’, ‘having a job with freedom’ and ‘independence’) and idealist motives (for instance ‘fighting injustice’ and ‘working with political issues’). Personal motives (such as ‘status’, ‘wages’ and ‘the possibility of becoming a celebrity’) played a less significant role (Hovden et al., 2009, p. 154).

While laying the groundwork for the operationalisation of (student) journalists’ self-perception, the Hovden et al. (2009) study is particularly important because the Scandinavian culture of journalism can be seen as closest to that of the Netherlands (Hallin and Mancini, 2004, p. 143). If one is to follow Hallin and Mancini’s categorization of media systems, both the Dutch and Scandinavian media/political system can be labelled as a ‘Democratic Corporatist’ model (Hallin and Mancini, 2004, p. 143). Countries in the Democratic Corporatist media system have a high regard for journalistic objectivity and autonomy, as well as strong public service orientation. Furthermore, both the Dutch and Scandinavian media systems have a high degree of journalistic professionalisation. Therefore one would expect this analysis of Dutch journalism students’ professional self-perception to show similar results to those in Hovden et al.’s (2009) study. The operationalisation of professional self-perception used by the afore-mentioned authors (Hovden et al. 2009; Stigbrand & Nygren 2013; Wu and Weaver, 1998 and Sanders et al., 2008) will be discussed in more detail in the methodology section on the analysis of Dutch journalism student’s professional self-perception.
METHODOLOGY

This chapter discusses the methodology this research used to measure the professional self-perception of Dutch journalism students. As explained in Chapter II, professional self-perception has three facets: journalism's role in society (external dimension); journalistic competence (internal dimension); and journalistic motives. To measure these three variables this research uses a survey research method. The first section of this chapter (3.1.) describes why the survey research is a good fit with this research. It also describes the uniqueness of this survey, the selection criteria of the respondents and the steps taken to collect the required data. This is followed (3.2.) by an explanation of why a paper survey was chosen as opposed to an online survey, and then by an outline of the survey elements (3.3.). Appendix 2. shows the Dutch questionnaire, which was handed out to the sample of journalism students. Finally (3.4.) presents some of the limitations connected to this research.

3.1. Sample

According to Fowler (2013) and Boeije, t’ Hart and Hox (2009), the purpose of a survey is to collect and analyse data from a large number of people. The variables that are researched should include a vast amount of topics and categories, in order to come to well-founded conclusions about the attitudes, opinions and future plans of respondents (Fowler, 2013, p 1-2; Boeije et al., 2009, p. 215). Furthermore, Ferber (1980, p. 2) states that a survey: “is a method of gathering information from a number of individuals,” and “This way, the results can be reliably projected from the sample to the larger population.” In other words, if a survey is conducted fairly, and all respondents in the target population have an equal chance of being included in the research, then from the sampled respondents one can draw presumptive, generalised conclusions about the whole targeted population (Boeije et al., 2009, p. 223-224). This fits the profile of this research because this analysis makes generalised conclusions about the population of Dutch journalism students, based on a smaller sample of voluntary respondents compared to the entire pool of journalism students currently studying journalism in The Netherlands. The topics and statements are responded to individually by journalism students, to make it possible to draw conclusions about their views on journalistic motivation, journalistic competence and the perceived role of journalism in society (the three variables this research used to determine a journalists' self-perception).
This study uses a cluster survey. According to Boeije et al (2009), researchers often use this type of survey when a group of respondents share common characteristics (Boeije et al., 2009, p. 227). This is certainly the case in this research because all respondents have one thing in common; they all study journalism. However, even though all respondents in the sample are studying the same subject, they are not doing so at the same university, and they definitely don't share the same social-demographics. Therefore, in addition to drawing generalised conclusions about all Dutch journalism students, this thesis also looked at the differences between individual groups of respondents within the sample. Bearing all this and Fowler's (2013) essay in mind, a cluster survey research was deemed the best choice for this particular study (Fowler, 2013, p. 33). The professional views of journalism students who have just started studying at journalism schools are of interest here. Hence, the surveys were handed out to first-year Dutch journalism students who are currently enrolled in a journalism programme at three different educational institutions.

As noted in the previous chapter, the survey belonging to this research is based largely on earlier research into journalism students conducted by Wu and Weaver (1998), Sanders et al. (2008), Hovden et al. (2009), and Stigbrand and Nygren (2013). They quizzed American, Chinese, British, Spanish and Scandinavian students on their views of professional journalism, as well as their motives for studying it. The results obtained by these authors were used as comparative material to put the results of Dutch journalism students into perspective. To help make such comparisons between results possible, parts of the survey design of these authors – namely those covering journalistic motivation, competence and societal roles – were included in the survey of this research. Given that this research builds upon earlier material by the afore-mentioned authors, this explorative research is unique in two ways. First of all, it offers insights into what Dutch journalism students from three different universities think about journalism. The most contemporary study focusing on the professional self-perception of journalists is Hermans, Vergeer and Pleijter’s (2011) analysis of journalism practitioners. An earlier study by Deuze, Neuberger and Paulussen (2004) is similar to this research, but they give a more descriptive account of journalism education in the Netherlands before moving on to the views of the practitioners of Dutch online journalism. There is no research up till now that focuses specifically on Dutch journalism students and their views on the profession of journalism. This explorative research therefore serves as a starting point for future research covering professional journalism in the Netherlands. After establishing how future journalists in the Netherlands define journalism and what they expect of it, this research can be used by journalism educators to tailor their
journalism curricula to better serve the needs of Dutch journalism students. And, as Deuze (2006) says in his essay on global journalism education it can also give the practitioners of journalism a better understanding of whether, and in which ways, journalism is changing as a profession (Deuze, 2006, p. 25).

Several universities and universities of applied sciences in the Netherlands offer Master and Bachelor degrees in journalism. **Figure 3.1.** is an overview of journalism studies in the Netherlands approved by DUO (Dienst Uitvoering Onderwijs, a governmental body of the Dutch Ministry of Education; CROHO, 2015). The sample frame (Ferber, 1980, p. 10) for this study is highlighted in bold typeface. It consists of two universities and one university of applied sciences, namely: The University of Groningen (RUG), The University of Amsterdam (UvA) and The Utrecht School for Journalism (USJ). These universities were chosen because both the RUG and the UvA have been nominated best masters of Journalism in the Netherlands (Keuzegids Masters, 2015) and the USJ because it is the oldest and most renowned school of journalism in the Netherlands (School voor de Journalistiek, 2015).

**Figure 3.1.** A sample frame of journalism universities and universities of applied sciences. Source: Centraal Register Opleidingen Hoger Onderwijs, 2015 (CROHO), retrieved from Dienst Uitvoering Onderwijs (DUO).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NAME OF STUDY</th>
<th>UNIVERSITY</th>
<th>STUDY TYPE</th>
<th>DURATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Journalism and Media</td>
<td>University of Amsterdam</td>
<td>Master</td>
<td>1.5 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journalism Studies</td>
<td>University of Groningen</td>
<td>Master</td>
<td>1.5 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journalism</td>
<td>Vrije Universiteit Amsterdam</td>
<td>Master</td>
<td>1 year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journalism</td>
<td>Radboud University Nijmegen</td>
<td>Master</td>
<td>1 year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journalism and New Media</td>
<td>Leiden University</td>
<td>Master</td>
<td>1 year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journalism</td>
<td>Utrecht University</td>
<td>Master</td>
<td>1 year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media and Journalism</td>
<td>Erasmus University Rotterdam</td>
<td>Master</td>
<td>1 year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journalism</td>
<td>Utrecht School for Journalism</td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>3 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journalism</td>
<td>Christian School Ede</td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>3 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journalism</td>
<td>Fontys Tilburg</td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>3 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journalism</td>
<td>Windesheim University of Applied Sciences</td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>3 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journalism</td>
<td>The Hague University of Applied Sciences</td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>3 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journalism in a Cross-medial News Environment</td>
<td>Media Academy Hilversum</td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>3 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journalism</td>
<td>INHOLLAND Rotterdam</td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>3 years</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Study coordinators from all three universities were contacted by e-mail to ask whether they’d let their first-year students participate in the survey. Only those respondents from classes that agreed to participate were given a paper questionnaire. Therefore, this research is not based on a random sampling method, but on a so-called ‘non-probability snowball sampling method’ (Boeije et al., 2009, p. 228). Lists of newly enrolled first-year students are considered exclusive information by universities and are not publicly available. Therefore, this research could not draw on a random sample from ready-to-use sample lists. Instead, it made a selection of universities that were willing to participate (Boeije et al., 2009, p. 228). This did mean leaving some of the target population out of the analysis. But, given the limited scope and timeframe of the study, this was inevitable. Respondents were given a paper questionnaire during the last 15 minutes of a collective lecture in November (in the UvA and RUG) and in December (in the USJ). This was two to three months after the start of the new academic year.

In total, 91 respondents completed the questionnaire: 39 of them studying at the USJ; 29 at the UvA; and 23 at the RUG. The numbers of respondents from the UvA and RUG were slightly lower than expected, seeing as the average number of applicants admitted each year by the RUG and the UvA is around 30-45 students (University of Groningen, 2015, Facts and Figures; University of Amsterdam, 2015, Toelating en Inschrijving). The USJ can accommodate 360 first-year students (Utrecht School for Journalism, 2015, Decentrale Selectie). The reason not all USJ students were selected for this study is because it would have been unrealistic to process so much data in the relatively short timeframe of this thesis. Consequently, only those USJ classes that had lessons on 12 December were selected. After the surveying period all data were processed and interpreted using SPSS Statistics.

3.2. University curricula

The main reason for including these three universities in this research is because they are most credited for teaching journalism in the Netherlands (Keuzegids Masters, 2015; School voor de Journalistiek, 2015). Another reason is that these three universities adopt a very different approach when it comes to their journalistic programmes. It would be interesting to find out whether journalism students who have just started studying at any of these programmes also differ in terms of their views on journalism, and if so, how. Given that Wu and Weaver (1998) and Sanders et al. (2008) say there is a difference between journalism students' views on journalism in different countries (Wu and Weaver, 1998, p. 525-528; Sanders et al., 2008, p. 145-149), perhaps there is also a
difference between journalism students from different streams of learning, and maybe even from different schools within the same country. In Trajectum Online (2010), for example, Bardoel and Kester insist that journalism students from academic universities and universities of applied sciences differ in terms of their professional self-perception. According to them, students studying at a university of applied sciences have different journalistic aspirations than their academically trained counterparts. Bardoel and Kester in Trajectum (2010) mention that journalism students from a university of applied sciences – as opposed to Master students - don’t have their minds set on national newspapers, but regional journalism, TV and magazines (Trajectum, 2010).

Before further highlighting these similarities and differences in the results and analysis section it might be wise to first sketch any overlap and differences between the selected universities’ curricula. The RUG has a mix of academic and practical courses within its programme. It deals with a diverse set of theoretical specialisations, as well as practical crash-courses of visual, textual, and research journalism (University of Groningen, 2015, Programma). The UvA is quite similar to the RUG, as it offers its students both practical and academic courses (with similar specialisations in text, video and radio). However, the UvA has a slightly more pronounced emphasis on theory (University of Amsterdam, 2015, Studieprogramma). Judging by the study curriculum on the UvA website, the Journalism Master at the UvA offers 25 per cent practical and 75 per cent theoretical courses, while in its programme the RUG boasts a 50/50 distribution of practical and theoretical courses. The USJ – as one would expect from a university of applied science - trains its students with practical courses for three full years. It does offer some theoretical insights in the third year – such as Journalism Ethics and Journalism and Society - but students are mostly taught the practical aspects of journalism (University School for Journalism, 2015, Opleidingsinhoud).

Another striking difference between the three universities is that at the RUG and USJ students are introduced to the practical side of journalism early on in the year with a mock-newsroom crash course, where they collect local news stories and publish them on a cross-medial website. Each student has his or her own organisational role, be it an editor-in-chief, reporter or social-media trafficker. The crash course is designed to simulate a real newsroom (University School for Journalism, 2015, Opleidingsinhoud; University of Groningen, 2015, Programma). With the RUG and the USJ having a stronger focus on the practical side of journalism than the UvA (University of Amsterdam, 2015, Studieprogramma), this might have an influence on the values and ideals that these students hold dear. Considering the third sub-question in this research (which focuses on journalists’ motivation) one might expect journalism students studying at the UvA to
focus more on *idealist motives* than students in a university of applied sciences, who would probably prefer *practical motives*. By the same token, students studying at the UvA and RUG might also differ in terms of their professional self-perception. The RUG, for example, offers a course called 'Entrepreneurial Journalism' (University of Groningen, 2015, Programma). The UvA on the other hand offers more courses that focus on the in-depth side of professional journalism with a high emphasis on investigative journalism, documentaries, educational journalism formats and scenario writing. One would expect UvA students to find the citizen-orientated role of journalism more important while RUG students (who deal with the entrepreneurial side of journalism) would probably have a higher regard for the consumer-orientated role.

### 3.3. Survey choice

This section deals with the choice of paper surveys in a controlled face-to-face situation, as opposed to an online survey. The first advantage of the former is its relatively high response rate. Nulty's (2008) results indicate that paper surveys in a controlled situation have a much higher response rate (32 per cent higher) than online surveys (Nulty, 2008, p. 303).

Online surveys do have many advantages in terms of cost and time, but, says Wright (2006), with online surveying there is also the risk of self-selection. What this means is that there is a tendency for some (and quite often the same) individuals to respond to an invitation to participate in an online survey, while others ignore it. This, in turn, leads to a systematic bias, one that skews the representativeness of any conclusions that can be drawn from the sample (Wright, 2006, p. 00-00). This is not the case with face-to-face surveying, where the researcher maintains control over the respondents that receive the survey. Bryman (2008) concluded that a third advantage of a paper survey and face-to-face situation is the possibility of helping respondents with any queries they may have about the questionnaire (Bryman, 2008, p. 219).

For all these reasons, paper surveys were handed out to the respondents. As mentioned above, this was mainly to ensure a high response rate with the support of approving universities, to preclude systematic bias, and to provide incidental assistance to respondents.

### 3.4. Survey structure

This section addresses the main elements of the survey. In addition to general questions focusing on age, gender, education, previous experience in journalism and parents’
relatives’ connection to journalism, the survey also dealt with students’ opinion of the current media system in the Netherlands. To assess whether or not they are satisfied with the way professional journalism is conducted at the moment, they were asked to rank the current Dutch media system on a scale of 1-10.

To measure journalistic motivation - part of a journalists’ professional self-perception - the second section of the survey dealt with students’ reasons for studying journalism and their aspirations for the future. Respondents were requested to rate the importance of 17 reasons to work in journalism, on a 1-5 Likert scale (1 = ‘not important’ and 5 = ‘very important’). These 17 motives are linked to the three motivation dimensions (practical motives, idealist motives and personal motives) put forward by Hovden et al. (2009, p. 154-155) and Stigbrand and Nygren (2013, p. 98-99). These 17 motives are listed in Figure 3.2.

Figure 3.2. Motives to become a journalist per category, based on the survey design of Hovden et al. (2009), p. 155, and Stigbrand and Nygren, 2013, p. 98.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Practical motives</th>
<th>Idealist motives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Varied and lively work</td>
<td>Participating in public debates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working with interesting subjects</td>
<td>Fighting injustice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creative work</td>
<td>Explaining complicated issues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A job with freedom and independence</td>
<td>Helping individuals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meeting interesting people</td>
<td>Investigating the powerful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The pleasure of writing</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personal motives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Travel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secure employment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good wages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High status</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Becoming a celebrity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Becoming a freelancer</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Furthermore, journalism students were asked to indicate how certain they were they wanted to work as a journalist after their study, as well as when they made the decision to become a journalist. These two questions are:

2. **Time of decision** to become a journalist, with answer possibilities being: ‘primary school’, ‘secondary school’, ‘applying for college’ and ‘I don’t want to become a journalist’ (Wu and Weaver, 1998, p. 520)

Respondents were given multiple-choice possibilities when answering these two questions. According to Ferber (1980) the thought behind this is that in such retrospective questions, an appropriate choice of reference period must be made. This then serves as a guide for respondents when they report on events that may have happened too long ago to remember accurately (Ferber, 1980, p. 9). These two questions were chosen because according to Wu and Weaver (1998) they indicate how intrinsic a respondent’s motivation is during his or her pursuit of a career in journalism (Wu and Weaver, 1998, p. 526). According to Villamedia (2014) the unemployment rate in journalism in the Netherlands is very high. Therefore, the question about intrinsic motivation is followed by another question that measures how certain journalism students are that they’ll be able to find a job in the journalism sector. This is to assess how realistic journalism students are about their future, regardless of how motivated they are to become a professional journalist.

The final questions were related to the motivational aspect of journalism students’ self-perception. These were: what journalistic genre would they like to cover; which medium would they like to publish their work on; and what kind of journalism are they interested in. These three questions were to test whether Bardoel and Kester (in Trajectum Online, 2010) were correct in claiming that journalism students who study at a university of applied sciences have different aspirations than Master students. The second reason for including these questions in the survey was because Bjørnsen, Hovden and Ottosen (2007) found that students’ topic preferences and the kind of journalism they want to practice change over time, especially after landing their first job as a journalist (Bjørnsen, Hovden and Ottosen, 2007; in Hovden et al., 2009, p. 156). It is therefore interesting to find out what Dutch journalism students’ initial interests are before they’ve been fully exposed to the professional socialisation at school and work and the way that this subsequently influences their ambition (Hammer, 2000, p. 457-459; Reese, 1999, p. 71).

The third section of the questionnaire focused on the competence a professional journalist should have, viewed through the eyes of Dutch journalism students. What
kind of values and traits must a professional journalist adhere to? The respondents were presented with 12 values and 12 traits. They were asked to indicate how important they found these values and traits on a 1-5 Likert scale: with 1 being ‘not important’ and 5 ‘very important’. Each of the 12 values and 12 traits are linked to one of the competence categories described in Chapter II by Stigbrand and Nygren (2013), namely: the accuracy, expressive and networking categories. Figure 3.3. shows the values and traits of journalism competence in more detail, as provided by Stigbrand and Nygren (2013, p. 103-104).

**Figure 3.3. Journalistic competence, broken down into values and traits, and based on the survey design of Stigbrand and Nygren (2013, p. 103-104)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Journalistic values</th>
<th>Journalistic traits</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>The accuracy category</strong></td>
<td><strong>The accuracy category</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accuracy</td>
<td>Ability to listen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thoroughness</td>
<td>Knowledge about society</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sincerity</td>
<td>Efficiency and speed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A sense of justice</td>
<td>Technical skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>The expressive category</strong></td>
<td><strong>The expressive category</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curiosity</td>
<td>Creativity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A desire for self-expression</td>
<td><strong>Telling a story</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compassion</td>
<td>Using a multimedia platform</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hospitality</td>
<td>Visual competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autonomy</td>
<td>Writing skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>The networking category</strong></td>
<td><strong>The networking category</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to make new contacts</td>
<td>Oral communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respect for authority</td>
<td>Life experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good looks</td>
<td>Cooperation in a group</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Journalism students were required to rate each of these values and traits, so that the most important traits and values could be identified in the analysis. In addition to this, an extra question asked journalism students to pick the value and the trait that they considered the most important. If there is a small difference between the mean scores of the values and traits, the answer to the extra question serves as a backup to conclude which values and traits journalism students score the highest.

The fourth and final section of the questionnaire deals with the societal roles of journalism. Respondents were asked to rate the importance of 16 statements that have to do with the societal roles of journalism (based on a survey design by Mellado et al., 2013, p. 17). Again, they had to do so according to a 5-point Likert scale, where 1 is ‘not
important' and 5 is ‘very important.’ The statements, provided by Mellado et al. (2013), are presented in Figure 3.4. They are each linked to one of the four functions of journalism described in previous literature (Mellado et al., 2013, p. 860, 868; Hanitzsch, 2007, p. 371-375): citizen-orientated, watchdog, advocacy, and consumer-orientated.

**Figure 3.4.** Journalism role descriptions that define journalism’s function in society, based on the survey design of Mellado et al., 2013, p. 17.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Citizen-orientated</th>
<th>Advocacy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Develop the intellectual and cultural interest of the public</td>
<td>Actively support government policy on national development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provide citizens with the information they need to make political decisions</td>
<td>Highlight the benefits of the current economic model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educate people about controversial and complex topics</td>
<td>Convey a positive image of political leadership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivate people to participate in civic activity</td>
<td>Convey a positive image of business leadership</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Consumer-orientated</th>
<th>Watchdog</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Concentrate on news that is of interest to the widest possible audience</td>
<td>Act as watchdog of the government</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provide entertainment and relaxation</td>
<td>Act as watchdog of business elites</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Generate revenue</td>
<td>Maintain political neutrality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fulfil the needs of advertisers</td>
<td>Maintain a sense of justice and expose social evils</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the same reason that applied in the competence section of this survey, journalism students were asked to choose one of the four roles (citizen-orientated, consumer-orientated, watchdog and advocacy) they value the most. Most of the questions and scales in this survey are based on the surveys used by Wu and Weaver (1998), Mellado et al. (2013), Hovden et al. (2009) and Stigbrand and Nygren (2013). However, some questions were specially designed with this survey’s Dutch sample in mind. The objective was to test whether there really is a difference between students from the two levels of education (namely: question 6, 9, 10, 11 & 12) and whether there is difference between the motivation and expectation of journalism students concerning their career in journalism (question 7 & 8). For the purpose of this survey, the questionnaire elements described above were translated into Dutch. Appendix 2 shows the complete Dutch survey that was presented to Dutch journalism students.
3.5. Limitations

Only journalism students that have just started their first year were selected to participate in this research. Essentially, it means that this explorative research was only able to draw general conclusions about the opinions of journalism students in the Netherlands who have just started studying journalism. Hanna and Sanders (2007) proved that what journalism students think before starting a journalism programme is a greater influencer of their professional self-perception than the university curriculum (Hanna and Sanders, 2007, 416). Initially, the plan was to survey students before they commence their studies, to highlight what their journalistic self-perception is before they are exposed to professional values and ideals of professional journalism. However, this survey was distributed three months after the start of the new academic year. This was a limitation in that the Dutch journalism students from these three universities had already been following a journalism programme for three months when they first saw the questionnaire. In an ideal scenario, these journalism students would have been surveyed during the summer before they started their first journalism programme. This would have made it possible to find out what they think about journalism before they could be influenced by education, and thus professional socialisation. Even though the respondents were still relatively new to their programme it remains questionable whether some degree of professionalisation hasn't already taken place, thereby influencing their views. That said, if the answers provided by the Dutch journalism students correspond with the dominant occupational ideology described in Chapters I and II, then this can be seen as further proof that journalistic socialisation and thus professionalisation is also noticeable in the Netherlands.

Secondly, due to the limited scope of this thesis, the analysis was only able to include three of the 14 schools of journalism in the Netherlands. Although this thesis is an explorative study on the views of Dutch journalism students, one needs to take into account that the conclusions drawn from this study are generalisations about the professional self-perception of Dutch journalism students. Journalism students from the University of Rotterdam or the University of Applied Sciences of Windesheim, for example, might have completely different opinions.

Finally the survey itself also had some limitations. After conducting the survey, students from the RUG and the USJ mentioned that question 15 was rather unclear. This question seeks to establish which news genre a journalism student would like to cover, but the actual question asks which news genre he or she finds the most interesting. This could either mean which genre they would like to write or produce for, or which genre they find most interesting to read or watch. The results are based on the assumption
that these students would like to produce and write for the same genres that interest them. Nevertheless, the question should have been more specific. Furthermore, halfway through the survey students from all universities admitted that they had failed to read the first paragraph, which asked students to fill in just one answer category (namely question 16, 18, 20 & 22). Most students corrected their answers after being requested to choose one of the answer categories, however two students did not, leaving question 16, 18, 20 and 22 with multiple answers. As a result, these two respondents were noted as missing values in the analysis.
RESULTS & ANALYSIS

This chapter presents and discusses the results of this thesis so that conclusions can be drawn about the professional self-perception of Dutch journalism students from three educational institutions: The Utrecht School of Journalism (USJ), the University of Amsterdam (UvA) and the University of Groningen (RUG). The main part of this chapter presents and interprets data regarding students’ motives, journalistic competence and ideas about journalistic roles using SPSS Statistics. The first section (4.1.) touches upon these students’ social demographics, to find out more about their background. These demographics have been kept short, as they will be discussed in section (4.2.), (4.3.) & (4.4.) in conjunction with the three variables that make up journalism students’ self-perception. Section (4.1.) is followed by an in-depth look (4.2.) at students’ motivation to study journalism and become professional journalists. Finally, part (4.3.) and (4.4.) provides insights into their ideas about journalistic competence and societal roles. These data will be interpreted in light of the key concepts raised in the theoretical framework and compared to the findings in previous studies that focus on the professional self-perception of journalism students and practitioners (e.g. Hovden et al., 2009; Stigbrand & Nygren, 2013; Wu & Weaver, 1998; Hermans et al., 2011).

4.1. Social profile of students

In total, 91 Dutch students were surveyed: 39 from the USJ, 29 from the UvA and 23 studying at the RUG. The average age of students at the USJ was 20, while in RUG and Amsterdam it was 23. This was to be expected, given that students in USJ were following a bachelor’s degree while those in RUG and UvA were pursuing a master’s.

Gender was quite evenly balanced in this sample, with 47% of respondents being male and 53% female. The slightly higher number of female students confirms a global trend found by Weaver & Willnat’s (2012) survey of journalists in 29 different countries. They found that the proportion of female journalists is growing rapidly (Weaver & Willnat, 2012, p. 279). The gender statistics from this analysis also correspond with the increasing number of female journalists in the Netherlands. In the 1960s only 5% of Dutch journalists were female, but by 2000 that percentage had risen to 33% (Hermans, Pleijter & Vergeer, 2011, p. 10). Apparently, in a few years over half of the Dutch journalism students entering journalism will be female (obviously, not counting journalists that enter the profession and who haven’t had an education in journalism).

In line with previous results from Scandinavia (Hovden et al. 2009, p. 153) and
the UK (Hanna and Sanders, 2007, p. 408), relatively few students (13%) in this research have relatives working in journalism even though 42% of students have worked as journalists themselves, either before or during their studies. Most of them (26%) have unpaid jobs. The UvA seems to have the highest percentage of students already working as journalists while studying journalism (55%). For a more extensive overview see Figure 4.3. and 4.4. in Appendix 2.

4.2. Students’ journalistic motives to become journalists

Before discussing the findings of the three facets that make out a journalism student’s professional self-perception, it is worthwhile to note that the first-year students surveyed here already think quite highly of the way journalism is practiced in the Netherlands. With an average grade of 7.2 out of 10, most journalism students said the following about the current practice of professional journalism in the Netherlands: “it has an even balance of infotainment/soft news and hard news stories”, and: “when it comes to multimedia use within newsrooms, the Netherlands has a head-start”. However, over half of the students indicated that Dutch journalism “is lacking when it comes to insightful and in-depth news stories and doesn’t have a solid foundation for quality research journalism”. Although most journalism students did not have relatives working in journalism, those that did had a higher regard for journalism than those that didn’t. This coincided with earlier results by Wu and Weaver (1998, p. 518-519). Being exposed to journalism at an early age seems to have a positive influence on their assessment of the way journalism is currently practiced, as Figure 4.5. clearly suggests:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relative is a journalist?</th>
<th>Grade of current journalism practice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In general, first-year Dutch journalism students are quite certain they want to become journalists after their studies. Figure 4.6. shows that 78% of students are ‘fairly certain’ or ‘very certain’ they want to proceed in journalism. Only 18% of students don’t want to be journalists after they graduate, or remain ‘uncertain’. In line with Wu and Weaver’s (1998) results when surveying Chinese and American journalism students, the time of

2 All quoted answers from Dutch journalism students were translated into English by the author of this thesis.
study choice appears to have a huge influence on students’ certainty that they want to become journalists Wu and Weaver (1998, p. 526).

Figure 4.6: Certainty that students want to become journalists, as a percentage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I don't know</th>
<th>I don't want to be a journalist</th>
<th>Uncertain</th>
<th>Fairly certain</th>
<th>Very certain</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4,4</td>
<td>6,6</td>
<td>11,0</td>
<td>41,8</td>
<td>36,3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.7. and Figure 4.8. demonstrate that the earlier students decide they want to study journalism, the higher the chance is they want to become journalists after their studies. Figure 4.7. shows a crosstab in percentages of students’ time of study choice and the certainty that students want to become journalists after their study. In essence, what this figure explains (for example) is that 52.4% of the students that answered they decided to study journalism during primary school are very certain they want to become a journalist after their studies. And 13.6% of students who made their study choice during study enrolment indicated they don't want to become a journalist after their studies. When comparing these percentages for each possible ‘time of study choice’, the table in Figure 4.7. shows there are some strong differences between the percentages of students that indicate they are ‘very certain’ they want to be a journalist, and some slight differences between the percentage of students that indicated they are ‘uncertain’ or ‘don't want to be a journalist’. This hints towards a connection between the two variables. The later students decide to study journalism, the lower the percentage of students seems to be who indicated they were ‘very certain' they wanted to become a journalist, and the higher the percentages of students that 'don't want to be a journalist’ or are ‘uncertain' they want to be a journalist. According to Van Groningen en de Boer (2008) to find out whether there is a significant association between these statistics one would have to calculate Cramer’s V using SPSS Statistics. This measurement tool indicates whether the differences found in this table between ‘study choice’ and ‘certainty to become a journalist’ are notable enough to say there is possible correlation between these two variables (Van Groningen & De Boer, 2008, p. 63-65). As Figure 4.8 suggests the correlation between these two variables is 0.313, which, using Van Groningen and De Boer’s (2008) standards indicates that there is a slight correlation between the time of study choice and the certainty students want to become journalists. The later students decide to study journalism, the lower the chance is they will be certain they want to become a journalist after their study.
**Figure 4.7**: When the study choice is made and the certainty that students want to become journalists, as a percentage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>I don't know</th>
<th>I don't want to be a journalist</th>
<th>Uncertain</th>
<th>Fairly certain</th>
<th>Very certain</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary school</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>38.1</td>
<td>52.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>48.8</td>
<td>37.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study enrolment</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>40.9</td>
<td>27.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 4.8**: Significance of correlation between ‘study choice’ and ‘certainty to become a journalist’ measured according to Cramer’s V

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nominal by Phí</td>
<td>0.542</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nominal Cramer’s V</td>
<td>0.313</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N of Valid Cases</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 4.9**: shows, that across all three schools, research journalism, editorial journalism and the production of documentaries were the most popular answer categories. Occupation preferences seem to be quite evenly balanced at the USJ, but there are some notable differences at the RUG and UvA, particularly the latter. Compared to the USJ and the RUG, a higher percentage of journalism students at the UvA prefer research and editorial journalism and working for national newspapers/TV. One explanation for these differences might be the UvA’s curriculum. Aside from a ‘Press and Multimedia’ trajectory, students at the UvA also get to choose a specialisation course that focuses on research and editorial work for audio-visual media. Given that 74% (see Figure 4.16 in Appendix 1) of students specifically chose to study at the UvA because of its study programme, that would mean the UvA attracts more students who are interested in the afore-mentioned types of journalism. Another notable result of this survey is that a higher percentage of RUG students would like to work at a local news outlet, a calling that is quite unpopular among the rest of the sample (see Figure 4.10). A plausible explanation for this is that local media - although in decline - are still better established in the rural province of Groningen, Drenthe and Friesland (Buijs, 2009, p. 2). Students studying in the urban areas of Amsterdam, Utrecht, Rotterdam and The Hague (the so-called Randstad) might be more inclined to look for TV jobs in Hilversum, or work for national newspapers in Amsterdam covering national and international news.
Figure 4.9: Journalistic occupation preferences across all three schools, as a percentage

Figure 4.10: Occupation preferences - percentage of students per school

Looking back at the majority of comments in the questionnaires and the results in Figure 4.9 and Figure 4.10, one can conclude that journalism students generally shy away from the traditional hard news stories and get more satisfaction from covering what Le Masurier (2016) calls ‘slow-journalism’ stories (Le Masurier, 2016, p. 2). As one student from the USJ commented:

_Human-interest stories that offer new insights into controversial issues are a niche in journalism. I want to specialise in one subject so my audience actually understands the full story, rather than being bored by the same quotes from the same sources, over and over again._

Underscoring these findings, two students, one studying at the UvA and the other at RUG, indicated they wanted to practice embedded journalism and cover phenomena that require long-term investigation to offer the public an alternative way of storytelling.
They mentioned Dutch journalist Joris Luyendijk, famous for his Banking Blog (published by The Guardian in 2013) in which he tried to deconstruct the banking culture of the Citi of London; and Arnon Grunberg (2006), a Dutch writer and journalist who went embedded to tell the story of a group of soldiers fighting in Afghanistan.

As section (4.1) indicated, female respondents are overrepresented in this sample. But they also dominate news genre preferences. Female journalism students gave almost every news genre a higher score than their male counterparts. The only genres that were more popular with male students were politics and sports, although they also had a slight preference for the economy and science genres. This proves Van Zoonen's (1998) claim that sports, politics, and science have always been male-dominated subjects (Van Zoonen, 1998, p. 127). However, as the findings of this survey suggest, female journalists seem to be catching up. The results in Figure 4.11. show that foreign news and arts & culture are the main subjects that both male and female journalism students would like to report on.

Figure 4.11: Genre preferences by gender and their mean scores of importance (1-5)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Genre</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arts &amp; Culture</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Politics</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign news</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development aid</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crime</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religion</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crises &amp; accidents</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Healthcare</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sports</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economy</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure: 4.12: Motivation to become a journalist and certainty to find a job, as a percentage of the total amount of students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivation to become a journalist</th>
<th>Uncertain</th>
<th>Fairly certain</th>
<th>Very certain</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Uncertain</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fairly certain</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very certain</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>28.8</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Whatever type of journalism or genres journalism students want to follow, as Villamedia (2015) suggests, the job market in journalism doesn’t look promising at all. Journalism has the highest unemployment rate in the Netherlands (18% at the moment) compared to other occupations in the Netherlands. The results in Figure 4.12 show that journalism students are somewhat aware of this situation and fairly realistic of the difficulties that lie ahead. What this figure explains, for example, is that 30.2% of the total amount of students who answered they were ‘very certain’ and ‘fairly certain’ (19.2+11.0) they want to become journalists also answered they were 'uncertain' they'll find a job in journalism. The distribution of percentages in the cross tabulation of the variables 'certainty to find a job' and 'motivation to become a journalist' in Figure 4.12 show there is a slight negative correlation between these two variables. Which means the difference in percentages of ‘certainty to find a job’ are only slightly explained by the differences in ‘motivation to become a journalist’ and vice versa. To calculate the correlation between these variables Van Groningen and De Boer (2008) state Gamma is the appropriate correlation tool to use in this situation because both variables are ordinal, meaning both variables have a clear ordering. For instance, the higher the value of ‘motivation to become a journalist’ the higher the motivation of a journalism student (Van Groningen & De Boer, 2008, p. 63-65). Figure: 4.13 suggests any differences found between ‘the motivation to become a journalist’ and ‘the certainty to find a job’ are of slight significance. In other words, there is a slight correlation between the two variables, according to the standards used by Van Groningen and De Boer (2008) who indicate that a Cramer’s V of 0.383 counts as a slight association (Van Groningen & De Boer, 2008, p. 63-65).

Figure: 4.13: Significance of correlation between ‘motivation to become a journalist’ and ‘certainty to find a job as a journalist’ measured according to Gamma

| Value          |
|----------------|----------------|
| **Ordinal by Gamma** | 0.383          |
| **N of valid cases** | 91             |
Alongside these statistics, Figure 4.14 shows slightly more respondents (of all schools) felt that an education in journalism is necessary to land a job as a journalist. Respondents’ answers (Figure 4.14) on ‘whether or not journalism requires a degree’ were quite evenly balanced. However, if one were to zoom in on these data and focus on the statistics of the individual conducts of learning, the numbers tell a very different story. Figure 4.15 illustrates that the higher the level of education, the more likely it was that students think a degree is necessary to get a job as a journalist. At the USJ some 50% of students felt they could get a job in journalism without a degree, which is probably due to the hands-on approach that’s instilled in journalism students at USJ from the outset. The fact that USJ students find a journalism degree less important than academically trained students is supported by the relatively low percentage of USJ students (33%) (see Figure 4.16 in Appendix 1) who decided to study there because of its prestigious position in the industry. This compares to 93% of students who did so at the UvA and 61% at the RUG. Students at the RUG valued their journalism education the most, with 65% of students there answering that it would be impossible to find a job without a journalism degree. This proves that, especially in the eyes of academically trained journalists, the journalistic occupation is in definite need of professionalisation through education. Perhaps Reese (1999, p. 75) was correct in claiming the journalistic community is – increasingly - fortifying its professional walls by means of journalism education, thus making it harder for non-journalism graduates to enter the profession and creating a privileged position for its professionals within society. It would be presumptuous to make such definite claims, based solely on the results from this sample.
of journalism students. Then again, as Hermans et al.'s (2011) results show, this graduatation of journalism has been going on in the Netherlands for some time now. In their analysis of practitioners of journalism in the Netherlands they found that the older the journalists were, the lower their level of education was likely to be (Hermans et al., 2011, p. 10). The answers provided by journalism students from the UvA and RUG reveal that academically trained students in this study defend the fact they're studying journalism because they feel their degree will boost their chances of getting a job. Not only does this finding imply that journalism students consider academic credentials add value to their professional status, it also presumes that today's journalism employers expect journalists to obtain academic or – following the words of Abbott (1988, p. 8) – abstract knowledge to protect that professional status. One student at the RUG added at the end of her questionnaire that the knowledge academic education arms its students with is beneficial for improving the profession itself. “In order to be respected professionals,” she wrote, “journalists must develop a critical view of journalism, and this starts during their academic education.” Her answer echoes Deuze’s (2006) ideas about the innovator mode of journalism education. This assumes that educators should prepare their students to innovate the industry and question the status quo, which will ultimately help journalism as a profession move on to a sustainable professional model (Deuze, 2006, p. 25).

Figure 4.17: Possibility of finding a job and relatives’ background, as a percentage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relative is or was a journalist?</th>
<th>Possible to find job without education?</th>
<th>I don't know</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I don't know</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I don't know</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

An unforeseen result was that students whose relatives work or have worked as journalists were more inclined to say it's possible to be a journalist without having to go to journalism school (67%), while those whose family did not have a background in journalism were less optimistic about finding a job without a journalism degree (35%) (see Figure 4.17.) A possible explanation for this is upbringing. As Delano and Henningham (1995) found, journalists from the so-called ‘Watergate Era’ claimed to be self-made journalists having worked their way up the ladder (Delano & Henningham, 1995; in Frith and Meech, 2007, p. 145.) before the afore-mentioned graduatisation (Splichal & Sparks, 1994, p. 114) of journalism kicked in. In contrast to academically trained journalism students in this study (see Figure 4.15), the older generation of
journalists thought that journalism was not something that could be learned solely through education. Some of this might have rubbed off on the younger generation, now in their first year of journalism.

As the previous section illustrates, it appears that journalism students are very keen to make a difference in the field of journalism and different aspects of the profession interest them. However, the main part of students’ motivation to become journalists, which also contributes to their professional self-perception, are the reasons they give for wanting to be journalists in the first place. A comparison of the mean scores of these 17 journalistic motives (see Figure 4.18 in Appendix 1) illustrates that journalism students think quite differently about the reasons to practice journalism. Most journalism students expect that journalism will offer them ‘diversity in their work’ (RUG, 21%; UvA, 17%; USJ, 22%). Students do not perceive professional journalism as an ordinary line of work. “My biggest fear is being stuck in an office from nine-to-five. As a journalist I expect to be on the road a lot and see the world,” said one of the two UvA students mentioned earlier. “I want to devise my own way of practicing journalism and not work according to a set formula,” said the other. Another student, this time from the RUG, added: “I wouldn’t mind working for a lower salary if that meant I’d have a varied work environment.” Evidently, Dutch students surveyed here expect to enjoy an unusual lifestyle as a professional journalist. Contrast this with British journalism graduates from Frith and Meech’s study (2007) who concluded (disappointingly) that journalism: “was, after all, just a routine job” (Frith and Meech, 2007, p. 161).

There is a striking difference between the three schools when it comes to students’ motives to become journalists. Students working towards a master’s degree mentioned idealistic motives more often than students at the USJ. Of these, 13% of RUG students and 14% of UvA students found ‘explaining complexity ’ a key motivator, with 5% of RUG students and 9% of UvA students citing ‘fighting injustice and contributing to the public debate’ as key motivators. Compare this with just 10% of USJ students who saw explaining complexity and 0% seeing fighting injustice and contribute to the public debate as motivators. USJ students tended to give practical and personal motives more importance, such as ‘expressing creativity’ (28%) and ‘travelling’ (13%) compared to the replies of students from the RUG (expressing creativity, 4; travelling, 4%) and the UvA students (expressing creativity, 3; travelling, 3%).

These differences are more clearly illustrated in Figure 4.19, where the 17
individual motives have been categorised into three motive types. Students from all three schools favour practical motives over other motive categories, meaning that the job expectations of journalism and the character traits of journalism students are what motivated these students to follow a journalistic career. Academically trained journalists are also very much motivated (UvA: 31%; RUG: 35%) by the contribution they’ll be able to make to society (idealistic motives). This means they can be labelled Practical Idealists, as previously mentioned by Hovden et al. (2009, p. 154). This term points to a generation of journalism students who are inspired to make a difference in society by contributing to a classical fourth estate role of the press, while at the same time being motivated by the pragmatic everyday features of journalism. If one were to lend some more of Hovden et al.’s (2009) terminology, one could further conclude that USJ students are more likely to be labelled as Practical Realists, which corresponds to the approach of their university of applied sciences’ curriculum. This is even more evident if one takes a look at the results in Figure 4.18 in Appendix 1 and reads some of the comments by USJ respondents. “If I’m unable to use my creativity in journalism, I’ll look elsewhere, perhaps PR or advertising,” said one. “At the end of the day, I am in charge of what I want to do professionally. If the real world of journalism does not match my expectations, I’ll look for other ways to earn a living with my degree.” In essence, this stark difference between students at USJ and those at RUG and UvA suggests that USJ students feel less motivated by, and maybe even less associated with, an overall journalistic ideology. As Chapter I explained via the works of Deuze (2005), Reese (1999) and Zelizer this ideology gives professional journalism its substance.

Figure 4.19: Motives to become journalists, as a percentage (left: total percentage of all three schools; right: percentages per school)

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3 A fuller overview of the categorisation of these 17 motives into the three different motive types described by Stigbrand and Nygren (2013, p. 98) and Hovden et al. (2009, p. 155) can be found in Figure 3.2. in the methodology.
4.3. Students’ views on journalistic competence

This section deals with the journalistic traits and values the new generation of journalists find important. These form the foundations of their journalistic competence, which, in turn, define their professional self-perception. When it comes to journalistic values, ‘curiosity’ receives the highest score (50%) among first-year students, particularly among UvA students (see Figure 4.20 in Appendix 1). This statistic is hardly surprising, given that a journalist, in the eyes of the industry and society at large, is “a particularly inquisitive individual who sniffs out the good story before anyone else does” (Hovden et al., 2009, p. 159).

As outlined in the theoretical framework, Deuze (2005) found it a cause for concern that recent developments on the Internet have forced media organisations to put the news on the web as fast as possible and wherever possible (Deuze, 2005, p. 457). But judging from these data, it is comforting for Deuze, and perhaps also for these students’ future editors and society at large, that values such as accuracy (17%) and integrity (13%) are considered to be a lot more important than speed and efficiency (1%). Taking into account that newsrooms have become such hectic workplaces, due to the 24/7 news cycles and cross-medial work flows (Deuze, 2005, p. 449), one would expect that journalism students would accentuate the classic immediacy value. But, seeing as a lot of respondents have critique on current journalists’ practice, one student writing:

A lot of journalists plagiarise quotes from the Internet and copy other sources’ story ideas, which are often riddled with mistakes.

One can easily see why these ambitious journalism students aspire to be better than their future colleagues when it comes to accuracy and integrity. This is further exemplified by a quote from a student from the RUG who explained what type of news she’d like to report on. “I don’t like chasing the news,” she said:

I prefer slow narrative journalism, if that’s even a term. I want to find beautiful stories in unknown environments and portray sources the right way, instead of the quick way.

A significant amount of Dutch journalism students in this sample (for instance, only 1% of students found speed and efficiency important) wrote that they reject the rat race of
news and the need to be first. Students want to cover stories they care about, not stories they're obliged to cover. Or, as one of the UvA respondents concluded:

*Journalists should get more time to cover the stories they love, but also reflect on the values of the profession.*

Students also rejected values such as 'hospitality' and 'respect for the authorities' from their lists, which already implies that they do not necessarily feel obliged to remain uncritical of or overtly friendly towards their sources. As will be further discussed in section (4.4.), this corresponds to their perceptions of the societal roles a journalist must fulfil, namely that of a watchdog of democracy.

In the additional comment sections students also mentioned other values that weren’t accounted for in the survey, such as: ‘transparency’, ‘ethics’ and ‘subjectivity’. Two students from the RUG made interesting observations. “Objectivity is a value a lot of journalists strive for, but I find this slightly idealistic. I think it’s more important to be transparent about my own point of view and the journalistic choices I make than to hide behind the notion of objectivity,” said one of them. “Nowadays, anyone can start a journalistic Internet platform. The only way to be unique is to develop your own tone of voice. Facts are less important, it’s how creatively you present those facts,” insisted the other. In other words, it would seem that many journalism students concur with Merritt (1995) and Becker et al. (2003). They concluded that objectivity forms a kind of detachment from society that makes its professionals immune to any kind of comment or critique (Merritt, 1995, p. 127-130; Becker et al., 2003, p. 26). It can even turn journalists into passive reporters, instead of active and creative contributors of society.

These quotes about journalism values and a lack of objectivity echo respondents’ answers when asked what professional traits a journalist should have. ‘Creativity’ (11%), ‘knowledge about society’ (12%) ‘being able to tell a good story’ (26%), and ‘the ability to listen’ (22%) were ranked the highest. Students deemed ‘cooperation in a group’ (0%) and ‘technical skills’ (0%) irrelevant for a journalist (see Figure 4.21 in Appendix 1). ‘Being able to use a multimedia platform when presenting a story’ (10%), and ‘oral communication’ (10%) were also considered must-have traits for a journalist. That said, RUG and USJ students found these last three traits far more important than UvA students. This might have to do with the difference in university approach. As previously mentioned, the USJ and RUG offer journalism students a much more practical approach than the UvA does. This includes a mock-newsroom crash course, where they collect local news stories during a set time period and publish these on a cross-medial
website. Therefore, USJ and RUG students might find pitching story ideas and publishing their story via multiple media channels more important than their UvA counterparts.

**Figure 4.22: Journalistic competence and importance of the three dimensions, as a percentage of all schools**

As was explained in the theoretical framework, the above-mentioned values and traits can roughly be grouped into three different families of competences: the accuracy dimension, the expressive dimension and the networking dimension. The research conducted by Stigbrand and Nygren (2013) and Hovden et al. (2009) found that students rated the accuracy category (e.g. ‘accuracy’, ‘sincerity’ and ‘the ability to listen’) as the most important. The expressive category (e.g. ‘a desire for self-expression’, ‘autonomy’ and ‘writing skills’) came second and the networking category (e.g. ‘having life experience’, ‘appearance’ and ‘being able to work in a group’) was rated the lowest (Stigbrand & Nygren, 2013, p. 102; Hovden et al., 2009, p. 159). **Figure 4.22** shows that in this study too, the networking dimension trails the expressive and accuracy dimensions. However, the expressive dimension consistently leads the accuracy dimension, which means students find expressive values and traits more important when reporting the news. Based on the answers and comments received from the respondents, if one were to describe the profile of a professional journalist in terms of competences, it would be: a creative and curious individual, someone who knows what news is relevant to society and who has the ability to listen properly so as to produce an in-depth and insightful story.

Based on the competence statistics in **Figure 4.22** and **Figure 4.23** - which indicate that expressive values and traits were deemed more important than accuracy traits and values - but also on the subsequent comments respondents left behind in their questionnaires (see section 4.3.) This thesis labels the Dutch journalism students
surveyed here as storytellers rather than traditional news seekers. Deuze (2005) mentioned objectivity is one of the major building blocks of journalism’s professional ideology, however the new generation of journalists turn on its head the traditional notion that journalism should exclusively contain hard news facts, collected in an objective and autonomous fashion and brought to the public in the fastest, most efficient way possible. According to them it detaches them from the story they’re covering and cannot serve as a shield that makes them immune to any kind of comment or critique. The ideal, when it comes to the professional quality of journalists, comes not from their impartial view of society, but rather from their assertive and creative ways of telling a story, one in which they portray the story and its sources in the most integer and transparent ways possible. How does this last paragraph relate to your survey data??

4.4. Students’ views on societal roles of journalists

The third aspect of journalists’ professional self-perception is what responsibility they think a journalist has in society, which is the ascribed societal role of a journalist. For instance, Hovden et al.’s (2009) survey of Scandinavian journalism students, the countries closest to the media system of the Netherlands (Hallin and Mancini, 2004, p. 143), found that 90% of respondents valued ‘informing the public’. Spanish students in Sanders et al.’s (2008, p. 142) analysis confirm Hovden et al.’s (2009, p. 161) results while British students in Sanders et al.’s (2008, p. 142) study found ‘entertaining the public’ and the ‘watchdog’ function more important. In other words: what is specifically expected from journalists varies from country to country (Weaver, 1998; in Hovden et al., 2009, p. 160). When given a choice between four classic institutional roles of journalism, over 70% of Dutch students from all three schools surveyed here said that a citizen-orientated role was the most important. One journalism student from the RUG explained that it is of such paramount importance because: “It enables citizens to make informed decisions. Information is the only way citizens can navigate their way through a free society.”4 The watchdog role was the second most popular answer among students, followed by the advocacy role (see Figure 4.24). Not one respondent felt a journalist should be consumer-orientated.

If one is to put these results in a broader social context it is hardly surprising students put such high emphases on the citizen-orientated and watchdog roles. Sanders et al. (2008) concluded from their results that a nation’s democratic and economic

4 All quoted answers from Dutch journalism students were translated into English by the author of this thesis.
system is linked to the function journalism must fulfil in society. They concluded their British sample of journalism students’ emphases on the watchdog and consumer-orientated roles were inherently caused by “Britain’s longer democratic tradition, its decades of highly competitive national newspapers and regular use of investigative techniques on television, greater cultural prominence” (Sanders et al., 2008, p. 146-147). Although the Netherlands does not necessarily belong to the same media system as Great Britain, as defined by Hallin and Mancini (2004), it does have an equally rich democratic history (Deuze, 2002, p. 135) and high regard for the freedom of speech (World Press Freedom Index, 2016). These cultural characteristics are undoubtedly factors that influence journalism students look on professional journalism and the functions it must fulfil.

Figure 4.24: Societal role distribution per school (in percentages of students)
The unimportance of the advocacy role and the consumer-orientated is matched by the mean scores of question 23, which asked students to rate the importance of individual statements, which, eventually, could also be categorised into the four institutional roles of journalism. When students were presented with this range of statements, as Figure 4.25 shows, the watchdog role marginally surpassed the citizen-orientated role. Figure 4.26 on page 65 presents a more detailed look at what journalism students find important. It shows the percentages of students and the ratings they gave to the 16 individual role parameters – which were subject to discussion in the methodology - and their subsequent mean scores. The results show that the most important tasks of a journalist as ranked by the surveyed students are: ‘offering a balanced view of complex and controversial issues’; ‘providing citizens with information to make informed decisions’; ‘maintaining editorial autonomy’; and ‘fighting injustice’. According to a respondent from the USJ: “Society is overloaded with information. The real trick is to offer citizens context and tell them a different side of the story.” Adjudged to be less important were aspects like ‘keeping advertisers happy’ and ‘positively contributing to the image of economic and political authorities’.

**Figure 4.25: Mean scores of categorised societal roles (total of all three schools)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role</th>
<th>Mean Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Citizen-orientated</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Watchdog</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advocacy</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumer orientated</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When it comes to the societal roles professional journalism should fulfil in society, Dutch journalism students clearly conform with the occupational ideology provided by previous literature and can be considered *citizen-orientated watchdogs*. They feel a strong drive to inform the public but they want to do so in a more interpretive way, and make sure they have enough time for contextual analysis to explain the full story of complex events. The classic disseminator role of journalism (Weaver & Wilhoit, 1996, p. 138-140) doesn't quite concur with the view of Dutch journalism students. Instead, they're more in line with the interpreter role introduced by Anderson and Ward (2007, p. 65) and McQuail (2005, p. 286).

This outcome corresponds to earlier findings in this survey, namely that Dutch journalism students want to be professional journalists because it will allow them to explain complexity to the public (see section (4.2.) on journalistic motives) and give
them the space to emphasise the professional trait of “telling a good story”. These two individual results further strengthen the premise that journalism students think that their readers want them to interpret news and complex information, rather than merely reporting it. According to Hermida (2010) this switch from the disseminator role to a more interpretive role of journalism isn’t that surprising. He writes that the growing volume of content and social media networks like Twitter and Facebook may be stimulating journalism to develop new approaches, ones that “help the public negotiate and regulate the flow of awareness information” (Hermida, 2010, p. 304), or as he later concludes, “journalists would be seen as sense-makers, rather than just reporting the news” (Hermida, 2010, p. 304). So journalism students are still adhering to the traditional, citizen-orientated role, albeit in a different form.

As Figure 4.26 also indicates, Dutch journalism students surveyed here found it somewhat important to ‘ensure high readership and high ratings’, ‘offer entertainment and relaxation’ and ‘find news that interests the highest-possible audience’. During the past few years, due to a declining interest in news, terms such as viewership, reach and even click-through rate have become more important (Hermans, Vergeer and Pleijter, 2012).

**Figure 4.26:** Percentage of students and their subsequent rating of 16 journalistic role statements; plus a total mean score of all 16 societal roles.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>Mean score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Offer the whole story of complex and controversial issues</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>29.7</td>
<td>63.7</td>
<td>4.5385</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provide citizens with information to make informed decisions</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>31.9</td>
<td>59.3</td>
<td>4.4945</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ensure editorial autonomy</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>36.3</td>
<td>56.0</td>
<td>4.4505</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fight injustice and serve as a watchdog of society</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>36.3</td>
<td>45.1</td>
<td>4.4505</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question the policy of economic authorities</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>22.0</td>
<td>45.1</td>
<td>29.7</td>
<td>4.0110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question public policy</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>45.1</td>
<td>34.1</td>
<td>4.0440</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivate the public to participate in the public debate</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>20.9</td>
<td>44.0</td>
<td>30.8</td>
<td>4.0110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contribute to cultural and intellectual understanding</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>33.0</td>
<td>38.5</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>3.5055</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highlight the advantages of the current economic system</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>30.8</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>2.5714</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ensure high readership and high ratings</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>42.9</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>2.7143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Offer entertainment and relaxation</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>24.2</td>
<td>36.3</td>
<td>24.2</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>2.6923</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Find news that interests the broadest possible audience</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>37.4</td>
<td>27.5</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>3.0879</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advocate public policy</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>40.7</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>2.3736</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positively contribute to the image of political authorities</td>
<td>29.7</td>
<td>31.9</td>
<td>23.1</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>2.1648</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positively contribute to the image of economic authorities</td>
<td>30.8</td>
<td>31.9</td>
<td>24.2</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>2.0330</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adhere to the wishes of advertisers</td>
<td>33.0</td>
<td>35.2</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>0.064</td>
<td>2.0549</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Current Dutch journalism students seem to understand this importance and feel the need to sell a news story to an increasingly distracted online audience. While acknowledging that the public needs to be informed and that authorities need to be questioned, they appear to concede that revenue must also be generated in the process.

As one student from the UvA put it: "The question nowadays is how to reach readers and viewers. High-quality news outlets are a dying race and in desperate need of new ideas and revenue models. However, new journalism initiatives and editorial entrepreneurs don't get enough space to change the dynamics of the media system." Dutch journalism students want to change the economic model of journalism. Note, however, that this result was only found when students were specifically asked to rank all the possible roles a journalist should fulfil in society. When students were asked, point blank, to choose the most important societal role, not one of them cited a consumer-orientated role. Journalism students might consider consumer-orientated functions a professional aspect of journalism, but only after the citizen-orientated and watchdog roles have been fully covered.

The results on societal roles projected in Figure 4.25 and 4.26 are very much in line with those found by Hermans, Vergeer and Pleijter (2011) who analysed the professional identity of practitioners of journalism in the Netherlands. Both the results in this study and that of Hermans et al. (2011) prove that when it comes to societal roles, Dutch journalism students echo the views of the current practitioners of journalism (Hermans et al., 2011, p. 30). However, while Hermans et al.’s (2011) sample did have a higher regard for the consumer-orientated function of journalism and felt their job should also entail 'keeping advertisers and stakeholders happy', journalism students surveyed here appear to have a different vision (Hermans et al., 2011, p. 30-31). This seems odd because the respondents of this study did acknowledge the importance of high readership (which is also part of the consumer-orientated function), as did the journalism practitioners surveyed by Hermans et al. (2011, p. 30-31). This inconsistency in students’ answers might indicate that Dutch journalism students have a slightly idealistic view of the way journalism works. Perhaps it's because they haven’t yet been exposed to the day-to-day practicalities of journalism and the external voices (stakeholders, advertisers and conglomerates) and commercial pressures that influence, or even dictate, how journalism is practiced (Gissler, 1997, p 47; Hanitzsch, 2007, 375).
Another unusual result is the significantly high score (namely 4.4) that Dutch journalism students give the societal role parameter ‘editorial independence’, considering that less than 7% of them were inclined to find ‘autonomy’ an important professional value in section (4.3.), which measured students’ perception of a professional journalist’s competence. The discrepancy between these two findings implies that while journalism students find journalistic autonomy (framed here as editorial independence) to be important in the light of journalism’s institutional roles in society, they don’t feel that autonomy is an indispensible component of a journalist’s professional competence. It appears as if, in the eyes of journalism students, professional journalists do not necessarily have to have an inherent sense of autonomy in able to write a good story (given that these questions had more to do with traits, values and competence). But editorial independence, on the other hand, will help them to fulfil their role in society. The term autonomy might therefore have been interpreted differently in these two situations. Even if autonomy were to receive a low score if interpreted as part of journalist’s competence, the high mean score (4.5) it received in this section of the results is enough to conclude that autonomy – considered by Hermans et al. (2011) as one of cornerstones of professional journalism – is still a relevant part of a journalism students’ occupational ideology.
CONCLUSION

In this thesis young journalism students in the Netherlands, and their views on journalism as a profession, were the main cornerstones of the study. To draw a mental picture of the professional boundaries of journalism, this research sought to establish whether journalistic traditions, values and norms, which are as old as the profession of journalism itself (Deuze, 2005, p. 444), are shared by the new generation of journalists currently in their first year of study at three of the most respected journalism schools in the Netherlands.

In summary, even though current journalism employment statistics in the Netherlands look grim (Villamedia, 2014), the new generation of journalism students surveyed by this study are very ambitious. That said, they are also realistic about the challenges they face. Most students want to be journalists because of practical and idealistic reasons. They expect the profession to offer them dynamic and varied work; enable them to unleash their creativity and give them the opportunity to explain complex information to the public. Journalism students largely reject the values of objectivity and neutrality because they prevent them from producing the stories they'd like to write. To reach a burgeoning online audience, students feel a story must be written or told with a more creative approach to engage the public. They also believe they should offer their readers and viewers in-depth information to help them make sense of an increasingly complex world. Students find values such as ‘accuracy’, ‘integrity’ and ‘transparency’ are paramount in achieving the type of reporting they aspire to. This resonates with the societal roles that Dutch journalism students find important. These students are very citizen-orientated and consider themselves to be watchdogs of democracy, but they feel they shoulder a broader societal role than just informing the public and disseminating news as quickly as possible. The Internet, and developments in the area of social media, have forced these journalists to interpret the news, rather than simply reporting it.

So, in a nutshell, the results of this explorative research show that the profession of journalism is not becoming as extinct as some critics would have us believe. The results from this study indicate that the new generation of journalism students in the Netherlands share a professional identity underpinned a by a dominance of the citizen-orientated and watchdog roles; values and traits belonging to the expressive and accuracy dimension and an overall preference for practical motives to become a journalist. The similarities between the self-perception of Dutch journalism students, the practitioners of Dutch journalism and journalism students from other countries suggest that professional journalists have been socialised and professionalised
to look at journalism the same way. Or, as Deuze (2006) called it: the *follower mode* of professional journalism, which means schools train their professionals according to the want and needs of the profession thus socialising it students to fit the professional culture (Deuze, 2006, p. 25).

However, judging from the comments the surveyed students left behind in the questionnaire, this sample proves to be quite critical of the way professional journalism is practiced today (especially on the internet) and very ambitious to move the professional model of journalism forward. As noted earlier, disseminating the news as quickly as possible and even maintaining a high standard of objectivity is not enough for these students. The results on journalistic competence and journalistic motivation already indicate their main objective is to express their creativity and experiment with innovative ways of storytelling to engage their audience (see page 53 and 61).

These insights affirm the recommendation made by De Burgh (2003) that we should learn from these (often critical) journalism students to find out how journalism will develop in future (De Burgh, 2003, p. 95). However, the issue here isn't whose views of professional journalism are correct, i.e. those of the academics, the educators or the journalism students. No, the real question is how these journalism communities can learn from their rhetorical differences (the way they speak of and think about journalism) so that professional journalism as a whole can move towards an ‘ideal’, form. That could be the traditional fourth-estate role that informs the public and keeps authorities in check, a role that clearly still reverberates with Dutch journalism students, or it could be a more consumer-orientated form of journalism with room for entertainment. It might even be that journalism requires a bit of both.

**FUTURE RESEARCH**

This thesis was an attempt to gain a more contemporary and alternative look at the profession of journalism, as seen through the eyes of Dutch journalism students. It also tries to reconcile differences of opinion of journalism educators, practitioners and journalism students, who will eventually be infusing the profession with new ideas that will continue the on-going professional transition journalism finds itself in (Deuze, 2006, p. 30-31). A next step would be to find out whether these journalism students feel the industry offers them enough room to actually practice what they expected of journalism when they first embarked on their studies. Or whether their ideals, motivation and values will change over time. One way of doing this would be to keep track of these first-year students and analyse which ways their careers take them.
Certain long-term studies have been conducted in the UK and in Spain (Hanna & Sanders, 2007: Sanders et al. 2008) but not yet in the Netherlands. This could be of major importance, because it might shed light on the key areas left for improvement to guarantee a ‘fit’ between education and the profession. For instance, it may be the case that universities should change their curriculum to better suit journalism students’ needs and expectations.

A second research approach could focus on the ideals, values and aspirations of these journalism students in conjunction with the organisations in which they want to follow their mandatory internships. Future research could include questions that cover which specific media appeal to these young journalists, to ascertain whether a good fit exists with their professional self-perception. There might, for example, be a connection between students’ professional views and the values and norms these media adhere to.

New media, such as VICE (Kalvø, 2015, p. 49), blogging sites (Knight, Geuze & Gerlis, 2008, p. 118) and video (vlogging) formats on YouTube (The Atlantic, 2015), are dominating the market in terms of reach, sales and viewership and these all have a significant amount of entertainment and commercial content on their channels. It would be interesting to learn how journalism students view these types of media. And can providing content for these new outlets be called professional journalism at all? This is an especially relevant question, given that this study found that most Dutch journalism students have a classic view of journalism that favours a citizen-orientated rather than a consumer-orientated role, while acknowledging the importance of readership and sales.

Thirdly, research could be carried out among what is perhaps a largely neglected community that shapes the way society views the industry: the consumers of journalism. The practitioners and students of journalism tend to take for granted that society needs them, because for them their ideology is, at the end of the day, what defines the journalistic profession (Deuze, 2005, p. 444). It would certainly be fascinating to find out what the public expects from journalists and whether these expectations comply with what the journalistic community thinks the public wants.

Fourthly, and as one respondent from the UvA pointed out, one could look at the way the practitioners and students of journalism look at the ethics of journalism. Seeing as most students indicated they don’t really believe in objectivity but they do think that journalists should be transparent in the choices they make, it would be enlightening to learn whether students find a certain code of conduct is still important in journalism. For instance, are there correct ways of collecting and treating sources in an age where social media have become an important factor of journalists’ everyday work?

Finally, as was also mentioned in the theoretical framework, Deuze (2006)
insists that a lot can be said for the analysis of societal roles and values because they do, after all, help to define the journalistic profession. Deuze (2006) does concede, however, that such orientations pose a problem: "they tend to reify and essentialize the existing ideas, values and practices within the constructed sequence, while ignoring the ongoing hybridization and convergence of such genres, media types, and domains of the media" (Deuze, 2006, p. 25). In his essay Deuze (2006) explains these constructed sequences are particular conduct of journalism, which have their own set of rules, values and standards, whether that be TV journalism, radio journalism or newspaper outlets. He says students are trained according to a set of values and societal roles to fit these constructed sequences. If journalistic communities reify and essentialise existing ideas as Deuze (2006) suggests, it would be interesting to see whether journalism students still mention the same values and societal roles found in this study if they were not given a specially designed survey with a range of options to choose from, which, in the end, are all derived from earlier literature. What answers for instance would journalism students give in the context of an in-depth qualitative research? And will research still be able to deduce a dominant occupational ideology that legitimises journalism as profession if students aren't given a designed survey, which already has predisposed answer categories?

The scope of this thesis was too limited to include qualitative research, which is why some of the students’ comments have been included to provide a contextual framework for the results. Clearly, there is still an invaluable pool of information to be won from this journalistic community. But for now, if we are to believe the community of Dutch journalism students that was surveyed, the industry does not yet need to undergo a revolution to attain the 'ideal' way of practicing professional journalism. In their minds, a few adjustments will suffice. For instance, this study showed that students were not inclined to let go of the more traditional societal roles such as the watchdog role or the citizen-orientated role. They did however recognise the potential of offering relaxation and entertainment, which usually include soft news stories current practitioners try to avert (Deuze, 2002, p. 141). Perhaps journalism today - as one has seen with this sample of journalism students, and as Deuze (2002) concludes in his research of Dutch journalism practitioners - is not all about politics and economics and the well-established public function of journalism anymore (Deuze, 2002, p. 144). Maybe, in order to work towards a more sustainable journalistic model, described by Bardoel (2010, p. 235) in this introduction, researchers need to delve deeper into the consumer-orientated function of journalism. Or, as one UvA student puts it, when asked in the questionnaire what societal role she found most important: “Obviously I’d like to tackle
complex information to enlighten the public and question authorities but I feel that’s rather old-fashioned. The question is how to find a good mix between need to know information and nice to know information.” For now, however, the new crop of aspiring journalists surveyed in this research would be more than happy to be a part of any change that might be necessary, with or without a job.
REFERENCES


Bloomsberg (2015). Disney doubles investment in VICE Media to $400 million, 08-12-2016. Retrieved on 20 April 2016, from:


https://www.boomhogeronderwijs.nl/documenten-extra_materiaal/9789059316850_05_regionale_nieuwsvoorziening.pdf


Singer, J. B. (2003). Who are these guys? The online challenge to the notion of journalistic professionalism. *Journalism, 4*(2), 139-163.


APPENDICES

Appendix 1 - Additional charts and tables

**Figure 4.1:** Distribution of students per school frequency and as a percentage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>USJ</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UvA</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RUG</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>91</strong></td>
<td><strong>100,0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 4.2:** Distribution of students and gender, frequency and as a percentage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>91</strong></td>
<td><strong>100,0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 4.3:** Distribution of students with a relative who has journalistic experience, frequency and as a percentage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relatives working in journalism?</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>91</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 4.4:** Distribution of students with journalistic experience per school, frequency and as a percentage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Yes, full-time</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Yes, part-time</th>
<th>Yes, not paid</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>USJ</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>23,1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2,6%</td>
<td>66,7%</td>
<td>7,7%</td>
<td>23,1%</td>
<td>66,7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UvA</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>34,5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6,9%</td>
<td>44,8%</td>
<td>13,8%</td>
<td>34,5%</td>
<td>44,8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RUG</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5,5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2,2%</td>
<td>56,5%</td>
<td>3,3%</td>
<td>5,5%</td>
<td>56,5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>5</strong></td>
<td><strong>57,1%</strong></td>
<td><strong>10</strong></td>
<td><strong>24</strong></td>
<td><strong>57,1%</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>5,5%</strong></td>
<td><strong>11,0%</strong></td>
<td><strong>11,0%</strong></td>
<td><strong>26,4%</strong></td>
<td><strong>57,1%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 4.16:** Study choice per school, as a percentage of students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location</th>
<th>City’s appeal for students</th>
<th>Study curriculum</th>
<th>University’s atmosphere</th>
<th>Study’s reputation</th>
<th>Rejected at other university</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>USJ</td>
<td>25,6</td>
<td>25,6</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>25,6</td>
<td>33,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UvA</td>
<td>48,3</td>
<td>17,2</td>
<td>75,9</td>
<td>6,9</td>
<td>93,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RUG</td>
<td>34,8</td>
<td>34,8</td>
<td>65,2</td>
<td>30,4</td>
<td>60,9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Figure 4.18: Importance of motives to become a journalist per school, as a percentage of students**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Secure employment</th>
<th>Becoming a celebrity</th>
<th>Good wages</th>
<th>Contrib to public debate</th>
<th>Justice</th>
<th>Help individuals</th>
<th>Question authoritie</th>
<th>Freelance</th>
<th>Freedom and independence</th>
<th>Meet interesting people</th>
<th>High-status</th>
<th>Meet interesting subjects</th>
<th>Diverse work</th>
<th>Explain complexity</th>
<th>Travel</th>
<th>Work with interesting subjects</th>
<th>Express Creativity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RUG</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UvA</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USJ</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 4.20: Importance of journalistic values per school, as a percentage of students
Figure 4.21: Importance of journalistic traits per school, as a percentage of students
Appendix 2 - Survey Design (Dutch)

Geachte student(e) Journalistiek,

Voor mijn studie Journalistiek aan de Rijksuniversiteit Groningen voer ik een afstudeeronderzoek uit naar het professionele zelfbeeld van Nederlandse journalistieke studenten. Het onderzoek wordt uitgevoerd op drie Nederlandse scholen en Universiteiten van Journalistiek.


Bij voorbaat dank,

David Widen d.g.widen@gmail.com +31641328005

A. Een paar basisvragen:

1. Op welke school/universiteit studeer je journalistiek?

..................................................................................................................................................

To be able to separate the journalism students and categorize them according to the school they go to.

2. Hoe oud ben je?

........ jaar

3. Wat is je geslacht?

☐ Man
☐ Vrouw

General question that makes a comparison between journalism student's self-perception and gender possible.
4. Ben je, voor deze studie, werkzaam geweest als journalist? (kies één van de antwoordmogelijkheden)

☐ Ja, full-time
☐ Ja, part-time
☐ Ja, onbetaald
☐ Nee

The purpose of this question is to find out whether journalism students have any previous experience with the profession of journalism. Any previous experience might interact with their views on journalism and motivation to become a journalist.

5. Is een van je ouders of familieleden werkzaam (geweest) als journalist?

☐ Ja
☐ Nee

Question to highlight how much affinity the respondent has with the profession. Wu and Weaver (1998) found for instance that those students, whose relatives had worked as a journalist, also thought highly of journalism as a profession.

6. Op een schaal van 1-10, wat voor cijfer zou je de professionele journalistiek in Nederland geven?

…………………………………………………………………………………………………………

Kun je kort toelichten waarom?

……………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

…..

Before asking journalism students what they think journalism ought to be, it may be wise to ask them what grade they would give professional journalism in the Netherlands. The score they give journalism as a profession might explain the answers they give in the sections B, C and D.
B. Vragen over motivatie om journalist te worden

7. Hoe zeker ben je ervan dat je na afstuderen wilt werken als journalist? (kies één van de antwoordmogelijkheden)

☐ Heel zeker
☐ Redelijk Zeker
☐ Onzeker
☐ Ik wil geen journalist worden
☐ Ik weet het niet

The following questions are part of a journalist's motivation to become a journalist. The purpose of question 7 is to find out how motivated journalism students really are. The purpose of question 8 is to find out how aware journalism students are of the current job market of journalism. For instance if a journalism student’s is absolutely certain he or she wants to become a journalist but he or she is realistic about the grim job prospects that await him, this says something about his or her motivation as a whole. In other words question 7 interacts with question 8.

8. Hoe zeker ben je ervan dat er na afstuderen ruimte is voor jou als journalist op de arbeidsmarkt? (kies één van de antwoordmogelijkheden)

☐ Heel zeker
☐ Redelijk Zeker
☐ Onzeker
☐ Ik weet het niet

9. Wanneer raakte je geïnteresseerd in de journalistiek? (kies één van de antwoordmogelijkheden)

☐ Op de basisschool
☐ Op de middelbare school
☐ Tijdens het inschrijven voor de studie
☐ Ik weet niet zeker of ik door wil gaan met journalistiek

This question says something about how intrinsic a journalism student's motivation is. Wu and Weaver (1998) found that those students who had decided to become a journalist at high-school or earlier, were more idealistic about professional journalism than those who had decided at the last minute.
10. Waarom heb je gekozen voor deze opleiding? (meerdere antwoorden mogelijk)

☐ Gunstige locatie
☐ Aantrekkelijke studentenstad
☐ Het studieprogramma
☐ De sfeer van de universiteit
☐ Het aanzien van de opleiding
☐ Niet toegelaten op andere opleiding, namelijk,

…………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………..

☐ Anders,
namelijk…………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………..

Kun je kort uitleggen wat je aanspreekt aan dit specifieke journalistieke curriculum?

………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………..

………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………..

This question will allow me to compare the answers across programmes and why they chose this particular programme over the programme of other universities.

11. Hoe zeker ben je ervan dat deze opleiding je in staat stelt een baan te vinden als journalist? (kies één van de antwoordmogelijkheden)

☐ Heel zeker
☐ Redelijk Zeker
☐ Onzeker
☐ Ik weet het niet
12. Is het onmogelijk om zonder academische opleiding een baan te vinden in de journalistiek? (kies één van de antwoordmogelijkheden)

☐ Ja
☐ Nee
☐ Ik weet het niet

Following the term graduatization of journalism, coined by Zelizer (2004) and her point that journalism is further professionalizing by the means of education, these questions will highlight whether journalism students also feel journalism is and should professionalize through education. Whether they find education is a perquisite to become a professional journalist.

13. Welk journalistiek medium spreekt je het meest aan? (meerdere antwoorden mogelijk)

☐ Radio
☐ Tekst
☐ Beeld
☐ Multimediaal

Kun je kort toelichten waarom?

This question will help to analyse where the interests of current students of journalism lie. These might differ from the professional self-perceptions of journalism students of other countries, the self-perception of journalism practitioners and there might even be a difference between journalism students from different levels of education.

14. Welk beroep in de journalistiek spreekt je het meest aan? (meerdere antwoorden mogelijk)

☐ Onderzoeksjournalistiek
☐ TV-persoonlijkheid
☐ Redactionele journalistiek
☐ Lokale journalistiek
☐ Landelijke journalistiek
This question will analyse where the interests of current students of journalism lie. These might differ from the professional self-perceptions of journalism students of other countries, the self-perception of journalism practitioners and there might even be a difference between journalism students from different levels of education.

**Question 15, 16 and 17 based on survey design of Wu and Weaver (1998) and Hovden et al. (2009)**

15. Geef op een schaal van 1-5 per nieuwsgenre aan, in hoeverre deze je interesseert.

Niet geïnteresseerd  | Erg geïnteresseerd  | Ik weet het niet
--- | --- | ---
1 | 5 |  

Kun je kort toelichten waarom?

..............................................................................................................................................................................

**Kun je kort toelichten waarom?**

..............................................................................................................................................................................
This question will analyse where the interests of current journalism students lie. These might differ from the professional self-perceptions of journalism students of other countries, the self-perception of journalism practitioners and there might even be a difference between journalism students from different levels of education.

16. Welke van de onderstaande aspecten motiveert jou het meest om journalist te worden? (kies één van de antwoordmogelijkheden)

☐ Ik wil een stabiele baan
☐ Ik wil divers en afwisselend werk
☐ Ik wil werken met interessante onderwerpen
☐ Ik wil iets toevoegen aan het publieke debat
Ik wil mijn creativiteit uiten
Ik wil veel reizen
Ik wil mij inzetten voor gerechtigheid
Ik wil complexe onderwerpen uitleggen aan mijn publiek
Ik wil een goed inkomen
Ik wil een baan met vrijheid en onafhankelijkheid
Ik krijg de kans individuen te helpen
Ik krijg een hoge status in de samenleving
Ik krijg de kans interessante mensen te ontmoeten
Ik kan de autoriteiten aan de kaak stellen
Ik kan naamsbekendheid krijgen
Ik hou van verhalen maken
Ik wil freelancen

Kun je kort toelichten waarom je dit aspect het belangrijkst vindt?

17. Hieronder lees je 16 stellingen die te maken hebben met jouw motivatie om journalist te worden. Scoor deze op een schaal van 1-5.

Ik wil journalist worden omdat:

Ik een stabiele baan wil

Het divers en afwisselend werk biedt

Ik met interessante onderwerpen te maken krijg

Ik iets toe kan voegen aan het publiek debat

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Niet belangrijk</th>
<th>Heel belangrijk</th>
<th>Ik weet het niet</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>☐</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Ik veel kan reizen
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
1 2 3 4 5

Het creatief werk inhoudt
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
1 2 3 4 5

Ik me in kan zetten voor gerechtigheid
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
1 2 3 4 5

Ik complexe onderwerpen kan uitleggen aan mijn publiek
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
1 2 3 4 5

Het mij zeker stelt van een goed inkomen
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
1 2 3 4 5

Het een baan is met vrijheid en onafhankelijkheid
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
1 2 3 4 5

Ik de kans krijg individuen te helpen
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
1 2 3 4 5

Ik een hoge status heb in de samenleving
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
1 2 3 4 5

Ik interessante personen ontmoet
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
1 2 3 4 5

Ik de autoriteiten aan de kaak kan stellen
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
1 2 3 4 5

Ik naamsbekendheid kan krijgen
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
1 2 3 4 5
Ik hou van verhalen maken

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
1 2 3 4 5

Ik Freelancer wil worden

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
1 2 3 4 5

Question 16 and 17 will say something about the students' journalistic motivation (which is part of journalism student's self-perception). This was also included by Mellado et al. (2013), Hovden et al. (2009) and Stigbrand and Nygren (2013). Question 16 will be asked, to establish which option journalism students find most important, and to prevent results of question 17 become ‘useless’ because journalism students give all options the same score.

Question 16 and 17 based on survey design of Stigbrand and Nygren (2013)

C. Journalistieke competentie

18. Welke van de onderstaande journalistieke vaardigheden is volgens jou het belangrijkst? (kies één van de antwoordmogelijkheden)

☐ Goed kunnen luisteren
☐ Creativiteit
☐ Mondelinge communicatie
☐ Kennis over de samenleving
☐ Een goed verhaal kunnen vertellen
☐ Levenservaring
☐ Snelheid en efficiëntie
☐ Technische kennis
☐ Inbeeldend vermogen
☐ Multimediale kunde
☐ Werken in groepsverband
☐ Schrijfvaardigheden
Kun je kort toelichten waarom je deze vaardigheid het belangrijkst vindt?

19. Scoor de volgende vaardigheden van een journalist op een schaal van 1-5

Een journalist is:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vaardigheid</th>
<th>Niet belangrijk</th>
<th>Heel belangrijk</th>
<th>Ik weet het niet</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In staat om goed te luisteren</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creatief</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goed in mondelinge communicatie</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heeft kennis over de samenleving</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In staat een goed verhaal te vertellen</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Levenservaring</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In staat snel en efficiënt te werken</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heeft technische kennis</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heeft inbeeldend vermogen</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<td>☐</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In staat multimediaal te werken
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
1  2  3  4  5

In staat samen te werken in een groep
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
1  2  3  4  5

Heeft schrijfvaardigheden
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
1  2  3  4  5

Question 18 and 19 will say something about the students' views on journalistic traits (which is part of journalism student's self-perception). This was also included by Mellado et al. (2013), Hovden et al. (2009) and Stigbrand and Nygren (2013). Question 18 will be asked, to establish which option journalism students find most important, and to prevent the results of question 19 become 'useless' because journalism students give all options the same score.

20. Welke van de onderstaande journalistieke waarden is volgens jou het belangrijkst? (kies één van de antwoordmogelijkheden)
☐ Accuraatheid
☐ Rechtvaardigheid
☐ Nieuwsgierigheid
☐ Consistentie
☐ Zelfexpressie
☐ Sociale vaardigheden
☐ Integriteit
☐ Empathisch vermogen
☐ Respect voor autoriteit
☐ Vriendelijkheid
☐ Uiterlijk
☐ Autonomie

Kun je kort toelichten waarom je deze waarde het belangrijkst vindt?
21. Scoor de volgende waardes in de journalistiek op een schaal van 1-5.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Niet belangrijk</th>
<th>Heel belangrijk</th>
<th>Ik weet het niet</th>
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<tbody>
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**Accuraatheid**

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**Nieuwsgierigheid**

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**Consistentie**

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**Behoefte aan zelfexpressie**

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**Makkelijk in omgang met nieuwe contacten**

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**Autonomie**

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**Integriteit**

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**Empathisch vermogen**

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**Respect voor autoriteit**

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</tbody>
</table>
Vriendelijkheid

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
1 2 3 4 5

Rechtvaardigheid

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
1 2 3 4 5

Goed uiterlijk

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
1 2 3 4 5

Question 20 and 21 will say something about the students' views on journalistic values (which is part of journalism student's self-perception). This was also included by Mellado et al. (2013), Hovden et al. (2009) and Stigbrand and Nygren (2013). Question 20 will be asked, to establish which option journalism students find most important, and to prevent the results of question 21 become 'useless' because journalism students give all options the same score.

Question 22 and 23 based on survey design of Wu and Weaver (1998), Hovden et al. (2009) and Sanders et al. (2008)

D. De functie van journalistiek

22. Welke van de volgende klassieke rollen binnen de journalistiek zou volgens jou het meest leidend moeten zijn in de journalistiek? (kies één van de antwoordmogelijkheden)

☐ Informatie verzorgen
☐ De autoriteiten aan de kaak stellen
☐ Beinvloeden van de publieke opinie
☐ Vermaak bieden

Kun je kort toelichten waarom je deze rol het belangrijkst vindt?

..................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................
23. Hoe zou je de volgende taken van de journalistiek scoren op een schaal van 1-5?

**Een journalist moet:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Niet belangrijk</th>
<th>Heel belangrijk</th>
<th>Ik weet het niet</th>
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<tr>
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**Culturele en intellectuele interesses ontwikkelen bij het publiek**

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**Politiek beleid ondersteunen**

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**Nieuws zoeken dat het interessantst is voor het grootst mogelijke publiek**

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**Beleid van de overheid aan de kaak stellen**

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**Burgers genoeg informatie bieden om doordachte politieke beslissingen te maken**

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**De voordelen van het huidige economische stelsel belichten**

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**Het publiek entertainment en ontspanning bieden**

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**Het beleid van economische autoriteiten aan de kaak stellen**

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**Het hele verhaal vertellen van controversiële en complexe nieuwsonderwerpen**

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</thead>
</table>
Positief bijdragen aan de beeldvorming van politieke autoriteiten
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
1 2 3 4 5

Zorgen voor een hoge oplage/kijkcijfers
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
1 2 3 4 5

Onafhankelijkheid waarborgen
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
1 2 3 4 5

Het publiek motiveren deel te nemen aan het publiek debat
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
1 2 3 4 5

Positief bijdragen aan de beeldvorming van economische autoriteiten
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
1 2 3 4 5

Rekening houden met de wensen van adverteerders
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
1 2 3 4 5

Dienen als het geweten van de democratie en het onderzoeken van sociale onrechtvaardigheden.
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
1 2 3 4 5

Question 22 and 23 will say something about the students' views on journalistic roles (which is part of journalism student's self-perception). This was also included by Mellado et al. (2013), Hovden et al. (2009) and Stigbrand and Nygren (2013). Question 22 will be asked, to establish which option journalism students find most important, and to prevent the results of question 23 become 'useless' because journalism students give all options the same score.

Zijn er nog dingen die je kwijt wilt over de journalistiek of je journalistieke opleiding, die niet in deze vragenlijst aan bod zijn gekomen?

........................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................

........................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................