Our judges' credentials: development of journalism education and training in Australia to 1987

Charles Stuart
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OUR JUDGES' CREDENTIALS*

DEVELOPMENT OF JOURNALISM EDUCATION
AND TRAINING IN AUSTRALIA TO 1987

VOLUME 1

Thesis

A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the
requirements for the award of the degree

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CHARLES STUART

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GRADUATE SCHOOL OF JOURNALISM
1996

* In 1851, a correspondent in The Illustrated Australian Magazine criticises Melbourne journalists who publish judgements on all facets of the colony of Victoria, yet display considerable ignorance about many of them. The correspondent asks “is it presumption then, to ask for the credentials of our judges, before we submit to their decision?”
CERTIFICATION

I, Charles James Bishop Grayburn Stuart stipulate that this is an original work prepared by me alone, except for those parts in which the contribution of others is acknowledged. This work has not been submitted for a degree to any other university or institution.

Charles J. B. G. Stuart
December, 1996
ABSTRACT

This thesis traces the history of journalism education and training in Australia until 1987. The focus is on the period from the formation of the Australian Journalists' Association (AJA) in 1910, to the start in 1987 of the transformation of Colleges of Advanced Education (CAEs) into universities. However, significant moments in the development of journalism education and training prior to 1910 are also included, such as the first journalism lecture at Leipzig University in 1672. Also, developments in three other English-speaking countries -- America, Britain, and New Zealand -- are traced up to 1987 for comparison with the Australian experience.

It is risky to describe anything as 'unique', yet it appears that Australia has developed a form of journalism training and education that is unique. It would be convenient to describe what happens in Australia as an unique 'system', but this would be inaccurate. One of the differences between Australia and most other developed nations is that by 1987 it has no uniform system. For instance, on-the-job training schemes are now rare and approaching extinction. Where they do exist they tend to lack structure and are far from comprehensive. Tertiary education institutions are taking responsibility for journalism training as well as journalism education. But the differences among the courses offered by 11 institutions in 1987 are so significant that as well as there being no uniform on-the-job training 'system' there is no typical journalism education 'system' in Australia.

The fundamental cause of this shambolic state is that the initiator of most of both the on-the-job training schemes and the journalism education courses has been a trade union, the Australian Journalists' Association (AJA). This organisation's industrial priorities have often been in conflict with some of the processes necessary to realise the aspirations of many of its members for journalism to be a profession. Furthermore, although most journalists are members of the AJA, the union is too
small to be able to monitor even the metropolitan-based training and education schemes. Hence, employers and tertiary institutions have been able to follow their own goals, which more often than not are very different from each other, and seldom coincide with those of the AJA.
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

There are so many people who have helped me with the preparation of this thesis that there is not enough space here to acknowledge all of them by name. For example, virtually every one of the more than 50 journalism educators in Australia have helped me from time to time. To them, and all the other people who have given me their help and support, I acknowledge their part in this work and wish I could do more than just thank them.

There are those, however, whom I must single out for their assistance. The first is my supportive and patient supervisor Professor Clem Lloyd of the Graduate School of Journalism, University of Wollongong, and Professor John Henningham who supervised some of my initial work when I was enrolled as an MA student at the University of Queensland.

The following archivists have to be acknowledged for their patience as they taught me to find the hidden treasures in their Aladdin’s caves of data: Margaret Reid (University of Queensland), Michael Saclier and Rarj Jadeja (Noel Butlin Archive Centre), Ken Smith and Tim Robinson (University of Sydney), Cecile Close (University of Melbourne), Jenny Edgecombe (University of Western Australia), and Sigrid McCausland (University of Technology Sydney). The AJA staff at the Branch offices in Melbourne, Adelaide, Perth, Sydney and Brisbane were particularly tolerant as I spent several days at each office disrupting their filing systems and taking over their photocopiers. Of the AJA executives, I acknowledge the advice about the development of education and training of journalists given by the three Chris’s: Perkins (Queensland); Smyth (Western Australia); and Warren (Federal office).
The 21 people who gave me first-hand accounts of journalism courses in recorded interviews are acknowledged in the first pages of the Sources and Bibliography section of this thesis. Some, such as Murray Masterton and Tony Hoffmann, allowed me to abuse their generous hospitality by recording interviews with them for up to three hours. These tapes were then transcribed by the calm, friendly and hard-working Dianne Bowe. The completed thesis was changed from PC to Mac format in six hectic days by Lorraine Lynch. Among the many who taught me how to handle aspects of this thesis by sharing their experiences as doctoral candidates I acknowledge Leigh Dale, Tom Hogan, Neil Mudge, and Brian Ridge. As well as those acknowledged in Appendix A as being persuaded to read this work in its formative stages, I also thank Ken Bedow, Frank and Pat Jarvis, and David Jones.

I also gratefully acknowledge the assistance of the University of Southern Queensland. As well as footing the extensive stationery bill associated with this project, the university granted me a total of nearly 11 months leave to gather the data and write this thesis, and contributed approximately $3000 towards my expenses.

Charles Stuart, 1996
DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my wife, Monica, without whose love, understanding and support I could not have completed it.

I also dedicate this work to the memory of three people who gave me unstinting assistance almost up to the time of their deaths -- Associate Professor John Avieson (Re. Deakin University course), Sir Paul Hasluck (WA University course), and AJA Secretary in South Australia Bruce Muirden.

Above all, however, this thesis is a tribute to all those many hundreds of people who gave of their time and talents to develop journalism education and training in Australia.
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**Introduction**

The format of this Introduction follows the ‘rules’ used to write the introductory paragraph of a news story. The content is based on the 5 Ws and an H. The style of writing used throughout this thesis also follows journalistic practice. Where possible the tense is present, the structure is active and positive, and sentences contain fewer than 24 words. Standard news-writing guidelines are followed in sentence structure and punctuation. Where possible full-stops are inserted and commas are removed. Anglo-Saxon words are preferred to Greco-Roman because they are easier to read, not necessarily more precise (MacDougall, 1972, pp. 98-99). This use of language may appear naive and at times verges on the Runyonesque. But it speeds up comprehension; provided the topic is of interest to the reader (Gilliland, 1972, pp. 12-14, 21-27).

Emphasis is on the phrase “where possible”. This thesis is essentially a history so use of the past tense is sometimes necessary, particularly in the concluding chapter where the chronology might be confused if all the arguments are in the present tense. Similarly active and positive structures may be rejected to minimise bias. For example the journalism course at London University is not re-started after World War II. Bias may be introduced if the structure is made active and positive to read: “The London University course fails to re-start...”. The use of the active voice suggests that the course is responsible for its future. The use of the positive verb “fails” may apportion blame. Also the word limitation for sentences is broken from time to time when it inhibits either the narrative or argument.

**What?**

This thesis is about the development of journalism education and training in Australia. ‘Journalism education’ is defined here as programs offered by tertiary education institutions designed to impart an expanded knowledge of the world that will help the
recipients in the practice of journalism. ‘Journalism training’ is defined as instruction in the gathering, processing, and presentation of news.

The history of journalism education and training in Australia is divided here into four phases. These are from 1803 to 1910, 1911 to 1969, 1969 to 1987, and from 1987 to the present. When the first Australian newspaper the Sydney Gazette is launched in 1803 until the registration of the Australian Journalists’ Association (AJA) in 1910, journalism education and training are virtually non-existent. Many journalists drift into the occupation after trying several others. Their education is from the ‘school of life’ and their training is by ‘trial and error’ (Bathurst, 1914a, pp. 24-25). A few journalists evolve through apprenticeships that may or may not be covered by indentures. Most of these apprenticed journalists receive some training whose standards depend on the skills and commitments of their masters, but very little education. The second phase is the introduction of journalism courses at four universities between 1919 and 1969. In parallel with these courses, the on-the-job training of the cadetship system is established in fits and starts (see Chapter 2). The third phase is from 1969 to 1987. Colleges of Advanced Education (CAEs) offer journalism courses which combine both journalism education and journalism training. During this period the traditional cadetship system fades away. The final phase starts in 1987 with the end of the so-called ‘binary’ system.

**When?**

Several factors make the post-1987 phase very different from earlier phases (Field, 1989, pp. 37-44). But the fact that this phase is still in progress is the main reason why it is decided that 1987 is a convenient point to stop this thesis. After 1987 CAEs cease to exist either because they are merged with universities or become universities

---

1 There is no attempt here to define ‘news’, but the term may include all those offered in Murray Masterton’s 1985 article in the Australian Journalism Review: “What Makes News -- And Do the World’s Journalists Agree?” (Masterton, pp. 96-100)
themselves. As a result the former CAE journalism courses also change. More emphasis is placed on research and its symbiotic partner, graduate programs.

Three other factors make the post-1987 phase of journalism education and training distinct from its predecessors. First, there is the introduction for several years of a training guarantee levy. During this time employers decide that if they are being forced by the government to pay for journalism training they should control how the money is spent. Hence, the trend of the 1970s and 1980s for journalism employers to delegate hands-on training to the tertiary institutions is reversed. Even when the levy ends the preference of some employers for on-the-job, post-entry training continues. Second, journalism educators themselves start to change. They are encouraged by carrots (cash) and sticks (continued employment) to become more integrated with their emerging research-influenced environment. As part of this integration it is necessary for them to increase their academic qualifications. This results in shifting the epistemologies of many journalism educators away from those of the practitioners and more towards those of other academics. Third, within five years of 1987 the number of courses doubles. But several do not start like their predecessors as undergraduate courses at government-sponsored universities. Two public universities only offer journalism at graduate level, and two of the places where new courses are offered are private institutions.

Why?

The list of those who call for more contributions to what Rod Kirkpatrick calls the jigsaw of the history of Australian journalism is long and distinguished. As well as Kirkpatrick there are the two-times Fulbright scholar W. ‘Bill’ Sprague Holden, Ernest Sommerlad, Henry Mayer, Frank Greenop, William Hudson, Jay Black, Harry Gordon, Clem Lloyd, John Henningham, and many others. One of the justifications these authors hold in common for writing their facets of the history of Australian journalism is the significant role journalism plays in supplying historians with their raw
material. These authors seldom give other justifications except to point out that
countries such as the United States and Britain publish histories of their journalism.

The reasons for writing this facet of the history of Australian journalism exist on five
levels. The first is based on my experiences of changing from a practising journalist to
a journalism educator. When former journalists try to convert to be educators many try
to re-invent the wheel. They start by trying to replicate conditions in ‘real’ newsrooms.
They want to teach what ‘journalism is really all about’. They encounter frustration
upon frustration when battling with administrators over budgets for ‘real’ publications,
or cajoling students into studying shorthand. As they start to become socialised by
academe they talk about broadening the areas of study to turn out ‘well-grounded’
graduates. In the closing stages of their conversion they commit what some practising
journalists consider is the greatest solecism of ‘real’ journalism. They accept the need
for theory in journalism education. But it often takes the former journalists several
years to reach this point in their conversion. Hence, the first reason behind this thesis
is to save time and frustration for would-be journalism educators who might otherwise
go on repeating the trials and errors of the past.

The second reason is based on past calls for more journalism history publications. In
his 1988 article bewailing the lack of a history of Australian journalism Henningham
lists approximately 80 publications that cover various areas of the subject. He does not
suggest that these publications are inadequate in themselves. On the contrary, he
suggests they throw considerable light onto several facets of Australian journalism
history. However, they fail to illuminate the whole. According to Henningham, there
is as yet no holistic approach to the past 200 years, in which the events of journalism
are placed in their appropriate contexts (Henningham, 1988, pp. 49-64). And what
holds true for the history of Australian journalism as a whole, is even more applicable
to the history of journalism education and training in Australia. There is a relatively
large bibliography of publications that include references to journalism education in
Australia. Yet all but one of these works contain little more than brief notes on the
history or descriptions of journalism courses. None of the several books on Australian journalism includes more than five pages on the higher education of journalists. The same is almost as true of journalism training. However, because of the unique nature of the Australian cadetship system the references are occasionally longer in publications written for overseas readers. For example American journalism professor Sprague Holden devotes a whole chapter to the subject in his 1961 book, Australia Goes to Press. Thus the second reason behind this thesis is to provide an expanded all-embracing account of the history of journalism education and training in Australia by building on the work of others and filling in the gaps between their often isolated areas of study.

The third reason is a corollary of the first. With the time they save in avoiding repetition of past errors, new journalism educators and trainers can concentrate on both improving those areas which show promise, and trial theories and practices that are as yet untested. This assumes, of course, they accept that there is a theory strand in the study of journalism as well as the more obvious practical strand, and both can be taught in parallel. For instance the practical processes of writing an introductory paragraph are usually taught alongside the theoretical approaches to analysing ‘news values’. Some of the newcomers’ predecessors deal with these strands by offering two types of journalism units. These are Journalism Practice units in which ‘real’ journalism or journalism training is offered, and Journalism Studies units in which journalism education is offered at both undergraduate and graduate levels. This division of the practical and theoretical strands into different units often results in many students filling up their undergraduate course with too many ‘how-to’ units in areas such as public relations, advertising and marketing, at the expense of an adequate number of ‘theory’ units. Some journalism educators avoid this by combining both strands in each unit. For example, it is shown in Chapter 5 that until 1987 at the then Canberra CAE all the tutorials for each unit are devoted to the learning of journalism skills. But each tutorial is preceded by a lecture on the relevant theories.
The fourth reason for writing this thesis is based on the need to supply factual ammunition to those in the profession who wish to improve journalism education and training. Those who call for improvements in both areas have been around for a long time. Jay Black quotes three 19th century Australian publications (See Chapter 1) in which there are calls for journalists to be better qualified before they pass judgment on society and its leaders. One asks:

Why should the editor, daily preaching to thousands upon subjects of burning and vital import to their businesses and bosoms, be worse prepared for his task of duty than the clergyman whose "one sermon a week" reaches only a few hundred? (Black, 1981, p. 1)

By 1949 the Vice-Chancellor of the University of Sydney Stephen Roberts is repeating this theme in the Foreword to Sommerlad’s Mightier Than the Sword.

The working of the democratic system is intimately associated with the media of expression. It is in every way desirable, therefore, that those who operate these great instruments of public education should not only be fully equipped, but should also have a proper appreciation of the immense power society places in their hands. (Sommerlad, 1950, p. viii)

The importance of journalism education and training to the whole community is also the basis for the final rationale behind this thesis. As part of the process of developing ways of improving the present education and training systems there is a need to carry out further research. This thesis provides a basic over-all account on which future researchers can build. For example it establishes that there are significant differences among virtually all the journalism courses. This is despite the intention of many of the initiators of these courses to follow examples set by others. Researchers can use this thesis as a starting point to identify why there is so much diversity, and if this diversity benefits journalism.

How?

Qualitative v Quantitative

In the first years of this project it is assumed that the research methods chosen will come under the umbrella of quantitative research. All four research methods units I
undertake at the University of Queensland in 1981 and 1982 emphasise the 'scientific' superiority of quantitative methodologies\(^2\). And by 1987 the majority of articles published in the leading refereed journals are still based on quantitative research methods. However, after further investigation I decide that the qualitative methods offer more realistic outcomes for a topic of this nature. First, the conclusions they produce are not expected to be the 'complete answer'. According to Joli Jensen, to accept the qualitative position is to believe that our understanding of the world will be always partial, and contingent on circumstances that we can never fully apprehend (Pauly, 1991, pp. iv). Second, the interpretative processes of the types of qualitative research methods in use here are based on empirical data that are just as scientifically gathered as those in quantitative research methods. Third, qualitative data can provide more "depth and detail" about the topic of this thesis than quantitative data (Patton, 1980, p. 22).

Anselm Strauss and Juliet Corbin define 'qualitative research' as being "any kind of research that produces findings not arrived at by means of statistical procedures or other means of quantification". However, they say that the term can "mean different things to different people". Here, the definition of the word 'qualitative' is a "non-mathematical analytic procedure that results in findings derived from data gathered by a variety of means" (Strauss and Corbin, 1990, pp. 17-18). Whilst the analysis of the data in the following chapters is "non-mathematical" this does not mean that the narrative does not include sets of figures, such as descriptive statistics.

A facet of qualitative research which some may see as a disadvantage is that it hardly ever stops. Each research project is like joining a conversation (Pauly, 1991, p. 8). The conversation has been in progress for some time, and it will continue after one has left. So another point about choosing qualitative research methods is that their continuous nature makes it necessary for researchers to draw start- and end-points. In this case, the start-point chooses itself. This is the start of journalism education and training systems.

\(^2\) These units include Research Methods (AS703), Maths for Social Scientists (MP107), News Communication Theory (JR211), and Journalism Research (JR321).
in those older societies that might influence the development of the Australia systems. The end-point chosen is 1987. This does not indicate that the development of journalism education and training stops in 1987. The line must be drawn somewhere and this is a convenient time to leave the research 'conversation' when the direction of the development of journalism education and training is about to change significantly (see above, pp. 2-3).

Another 'disadvantage' of qualitative research is the special relationship it has with the 'scientific' concepts of reliability and validity\(^3\) in research. The interpretative processes involved with the analytical phases of qualitative research are susceptible to devaluing these concepts. On the other hand Strauss and Corbin say that reliability and validity can be improved using qualitative methods if the researcher is sufficiently sensitive to the issues involved with the data under examination (Strauss and Corbin, 1990, p. 42). That is the level of validity in analysing data is in proportion to the extent of the researcher's knowledge of the subjects acquired as a practitioner (Kellehear, 1993, p. 38). An extensive amount of experiential knowledge -- as in this case -- leads to a high level of validity in interpreting the patterns of the data. For instance, Strauss and Corbin say that "if a researcher is fortunate enough to have had ... professional experience" in an occupation under study, then he or she will be more sensitive to the data. Such researchers are able to identify more quickly any patterns in the data that could be assembled into theories or arguments (Strauss and Corbin, 1990, p 42). In other words because of the considerable background information and experiences I can draw on (see Appendix M), if I use qualitative methods I can see patterns in the data that may be hidden from outsiders and quantitative researchers.

**Gathering the Data (see Appendix A)**

One of the canons of qualitative research is that as much data as possible must be gathered that relates to the topic. The greater the amount of data, the greater the potential

\(^3\) 'Validity' is used here as defined by Kellehear: "the precision or confidence one has that the method [chosen] measures what it claims to measure" (Kellehear, 1993, pp. 9-11)
for achieving what Pauly calls "the making of meaning". He also says that a qualitative researcher may gather data from "an extraordinary range of possible texts", or "inscriptions of human action" (Pauly, 1991, p. 10-13). As well as studying many types of texts, Everett Rogers and Steven Chaffee say each text may be treated as a palimpsest. This assumes that a text is composed of several layers, or sub-texts, which can be stripped away to reveal cumulative information (Rogers and Chaffee, 1994, p. 3). Michel Foucault describes this process when used by historians as the "archaeology of knowledge" (Foucault, 1972, p. 3). At the same time historian J.H. Hexter warns against the dangers of what he calls "source-mining". This can happen when researchers have too single-minded a preoccupation with a narrow set of issues. This practice can lead to evidence being taken out of context and misinterpreted (Tosh, 1984, p. 49).

In gathering the data for this thesis (see Appendix A) each major source of information is examined at least twice to ensure a holistic approach to the topic is maintained and avoid the pitfalls of source-mining. During the first examination, information that appears in the literature is checked, and areas of new information identified. In the period before the next examination the new areas are assessed and decisions made as to which are worth pursuing further because they are relevant to this project, and which are not. So, schedules to examine the potentially most significant sources -- such as university and AJA archival material, and coordinators of contemporary journalism courses -- are arranged so as to allow at least two visits to the sites of these sources, with at least 48 hours between each visit. This allows for constant modification of the original questions identified in the literature review (see Chapter 1) thus ensuring the flexibility that is needed to avoid the trap of source-mining. Eight strategies are used to gather the data (see Appendix A).

The main difference in gathering data about the three phases of journalism education and training -- prior to 1919, 1919-1969, and 1969-1987 -- is a greater reliance on human resources in the third phase. Most of the decision-makers in the first two phases
are dead. Even those who are still alive have difficulty in recalling relevant matters unprompted. For example, one of the post-World War II decision-makers for the AJA in Queensland, Ken Blanch, is able to supply more information during an interview after he is prompted with information gathered previously from the AJA and University of Queensland archives. In contrast, most of those involved with the third phase have extensive recall of events. They become sources at least as significant as the documentary sources. So, greater reliance is placed on interview techniques in gathering the data about the post-1969 courses. Most\textsuperscript{4} of the interviews can be broken down into six phases (see Appendix A).

However, the methodologies employed in using these human sources are broadly the same as those for the documents. The choice between focused and unfocused research is still relevant. As are the needs to verify all significant data and to avoid such traps as "source-mining" (see Appendix A). The sources are not allowed to completely determine the directions of the research. For instance, attempts to track down apparently relevant contextual data are abandoned as soon as it is clear that they are diverging from the main goals of the research. An example of this is an encounter with the unusual family name of Else Mitchell. A "Mr Justice Else Mitchell" chairs a seminal conference on journalism education in Townsville in 1968. So, when it is found in the Sydney University archives that an Else Mitchell is one of the first to enrol in the journalism course at the university 40 years earlier, a check is made to see if the two Else Mitchells are the same person. It is found that a Rae Else Mitchell enrolls in the law course at Sydney University a year after a Jim Else Mitchell enrolls in the journalism course. This line of research is abandoned when it is found that the first name of "Mr Justice Else Mitchell" is Rae.

\textsuperscript{4} Some interviews cannot be predicted before I start my tours of Australia, usually because the 'value' -- or even existence -- of the respondent is not known until a particular location is visited. Even in these unexpected interviews as much prior research as possible is carried out; standard interview techniques are used; as much of the significant information as possible is checked later; and, the ethical issues considered.
Ethical Issues

Most of those who express controversial ideas during their initial interview modify them during a checking process (see Appendix A). This highlights an ethical issue. Because I am well known to most of the respondents, and they share my occupation and its attendant problems, some of the respondents are too co-operative and give information that might be confidential. It is decided, therefore, that any information about an individual that is not a matter of public record, will not be used unless there are overwhelming reasons to the contrary and the anonymity of the individual or organisation can be preserved.

A corollary of the issue of confidentiality is 'informed consent'. At all stages during this research, every effort is made to provide the subjects of the research with sufficient information so that they can make informed decisions on whether to co-operate, or not\(^5\). There are virtually no reasons why full disclosure of the nature of the research cannot be made, except for unnecessarily taking up the subjects' time. Any bias that may occur as a result of the subjects knowing all about the research is so minimal as to give precedence to processes that enable the subjects to make informed decisions. A brief description of the aims and methods of the research -- and the commitments to confidentiality -- are provided to every subject. More detailed descriptions of the research and its aims are provided whenever requested.

Every effort is also made not to misrepresent the data, or to plagiarise the work of others. In narratives of this nature, so many sources are used that confusion can occur which, in turn, can lead to allegations of plagiarism. To keep such confusion to a minimum referencing sources are kept separate from other types of notes by using the Harvard system. Footnotes are restricted to amplifications etc. of items in the text.

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\(^5\) Co-operation of the subjects is extremely high. As is pointed out in Appendix A only the University of Western Australia refuses me direct access to the exam results and student records. Instead the Registrar decides that the acting archivist shall gather the relevant information and replace names with code numbers before presenting it to me.
Where?

German First

The narrative and argument of this thesis is located in Australia. But just as Mayer (1964), and Greenop (1965, pp. 3-12) point out that taking account of its antecedents are important when analysing the history of Australian journalism, so it is also important in this thesis to take into account the pre-Australian history of journalism education and training. According to Anthony Smith journalism is a European-based phenomenon that spreads first to the Americas and then to the rest of the world (Smith, 1979, pp. 7-15). The same is true of journalism education and training. Hence it is unlikely the Australian experience in these two areas is influenced by activities in those parts of the world such as China that are not formerly part of European-American empires. This is confirmed during the four months I spend in 1992 researching in China (Stuart, Li and Lu, 1992b; Stuart, 1993a). This research shows that the timing and patterns of early journalism education and training in China is very similar to Australia's -- although there is a greater emphasis on the American experiential system as a result of the activities in the 1920s and 1930s of American missionary universities in China. So, China is influenced by the same European-American activities as Australia. China has no influence on the developments in Australia.

Appendices B, C, D, and E contain outlines of the histories of journalism education and training in four countries: Germany, America, Britain and New Zealand. There are three reasons why the history of the German courses is outlined in the initial appendix (Appendix B). First the Germans introduce a formal nationwide system of on-the-job training shortly before such a system is introduced in Australia. It is not suggested here that the German system influences the Australian system, but it shows that Australia is not unique in adopting a national system for journalism training as early as it did -- it is only unique in the form of that system. Second, Australian journalists in the first couple of decades of this century appear to be particularly interested in news about the
developments in journalism education in Germany. Even though Australia is surrounded by several different European traditions of journalism, including the French, Dutch, and Spanish, the only news carried by The Australasian Journalist about journalism education in a non-English speaking country is about Germany (AJA, 1917b, p. 183) and its diversified system in which students tend to study at more than one university before they graduate. The final reason why German journalism education and training comes first in the appendices outlining overseas experiences is that it is the first; with lectures on journalism starting at Leipzig University in 1672 (see Appendix B).

Appendices C and D about the United States and Britain are included because theirs are the two discrete systems that are most likely to influence the pre-1969, and post-1969 phases in Australian journalism education for two reasons. First, they share a language with Australia. Second, strong socio-political links already exist between these two powerful nations and the fledgling Australia. Details about the 1919-1939 journalism course at London University are included in Appendix D because evidence of their previous publication cannot be found. Also this is virtually the only attempt at journalism education in Britain before the 1950's. If a British course influences activities in Australia between the two world wars, this is the one. Extra details about the first New Zealand courses are included in Appendix E not only because these too are unpublished before the preparation of this account, but also because New Zealand is the closest nation to Australia -- culturally, legally, and industrially, as well as topographically. If a system of journalism education or training can work in New Zealand it is almost certainly possible for the same system to work in Australia. Also the fact that New Zealanders introduce a program of journalism education almost a decade before the Australians may have influenced at least the start of programs in this country.

6 According to Ulf Jonas Bjork there are five journalism courses offered in Paris around 1900. Four are "theoretical, dealing with press law and history, the foreign press, and theatrical and musical criticism". In the fifth Jean Bernard takes a more practical line, including "exercises in Interviewing and reporting" (Bjork, 1996, p. 73).
America

Apart from Germany, Katzen (1975), Bohere (1984), Becker et al (1987), Gaunt (1988), Sloan (1990), Stephenson and Mory (1990), and Gaunt (1992) agree that virtually all the journalism courses at universities that significantly pre-date (see Appendix C), and thus could influence the initial courses in Australia, occur in English-speaking countries. In fact, after examining the journalism courses in Australia it is found that only the systems developed in three English-speaking countries have any significant influence on the Australian systems. These countries are America, Britain, and New Zealand. Most of the English-language journalism courses that pre-date those in Australia emerge in America.

In 1903 a signal event became the first major step towards today's state of journalism education in the United States. This is the agreement by the newspaper magnate Joseph Pulitzer (see Appendix C) to endow a school of journalism at Columbia University in New York, with $2,000,000, and a follow-up article by Pulitzer in the North American Review on "The College of Journalism" (Mott, 1962, p. 605). Sommerlad quotes Pulitzer as saying:

The only position that occurs to me which a man can successfully fill by the simple act of birth is that of an idiot... The "born editor" who has succeeded greatly without special preparation is simply a man with unusual ability and aptitude for his chosen profession with great power of concentration and sustained effort. Even in this case might it not be an

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7 Some non-English-speaking countries, such as China, introduced journalism education at university level marginally ahead of Australia. But the timing is so close that none of these countries could have had a significant influence on the introduction of journalism education in Australia (Stuart, Li, and Ho, 1992a&b).

8 There are differences of opinion on the amount of this endowment. Katzen, for example, says the figure is $2.5 million (1975, p. 20), while Professor Walter Williams is quoted in the Sydney Morning Herald as saying the figure is "3,000,000 dollars" (Hogue, 1914, p. 29). However, it seems clear from contemporary accounts that Pulitzer only leaves $2,000,000. Under the terms of his 1904 will (Curthoys, 1923a, p. 3) Pulitzer leaves $1,000,000 immediately to Columbia University to set up the school, with a further $1,000,000 for scholarships to be turned over to the university if the school is still successful three years after its launching (AJA, 1916a, p. 104). However, it is possible that during the eight years before the university actually receives the money, it gathers interest of a further $500,000, or even $1,000,000. This may account for the differences in the published totals.
advantage to have a system of instruction that would give him the same result at a saving of much time and labour? (Sommerlad, 1950, p. 28.)

Shortly after playing a leading role in founding journalism courses in Perth and Melbourne (see Chapters 3 and 4) Roy Curthoys visits four of the leading American schools of journalism in 1922. These are at Missouri, North-western, Columbia, and New York universities. He reports that the curricula at these and most of the other journalism schools are similar. Virtually all the universities insist that students have to complete two years’ of Liberal Arts subjects before they can enrol in the journalism schools. Among the compulsory subjects that journalism students have to take during these two years, virtually all the journalism schools insist on English Composition and a modern language. In the next two years before they graduate with a Bachelor of Journalism, Bachelor of Science in Journalism, or Bachelor of Letters in Journalism they are trained in reporting, subbing, layout, and writing features, reviews, advertisements and editorials. Most journalism students are expected to also study newspaper management, and history of journalism. The main activities of the units students enrol in during their two years in the journalism schools are focused on the production of a daily newspaper. In most cases these papers compete for circulation and revenue on the open market, such as the Missourian (see Chapter 1). A few schools, such as the Pulitzer at Columbia University, produce daily papers that are not circulated off campus (Curthoys, 1922b, 1922c, and 1923a).

**British Model**

Mayer claims that Britain shares its system for preparing journalists with Australia (see Chapter 1). Both countries give precedence to on-the-job training. But it is shown by comparing the British experience in Appendix D with the Australian experience in Chapters 2-6 that this sharing of systems is at an end by 1987.

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9 By the time of Curthoys’s visit in 1922 some journalism schools are already offering coursework Master's degrees. A “diploma in journalism” is also granted by some schools, for which the requirements are “less exacting” than those for a baccalaureate (Curthoys, 1922c, p. 264).
It is undoubtedly correct to suggest that at the beginning of the 20th century Australian journalists are considerably influenced by British journalism practice and training. In 1916 the Australian Prime Minister W.M. Hughes commends the Australian press to a London audience of journalists. But he says this is because it is "based upon the very excellent traditions that had governed the British Press" (AJA, 1916i, p. 223). In 1920 a rising star of Australian journalism, Keith Murdoch, goes further and says that London is "the world centre of journalism".

A year's work in London is becoming a more important part of the journalists training, and will give better results than any Chair of Journalism. (Murdoch, 1920, p. 124)

New Zealand Experience

The main reason the history of journalism education and training in New Zealand is outlined below and in Appendix E is that the news published in 1916 of journalism units being available to BA students in Christchurch spurs the AJA into pressing for university journalism courses here. There are a couple of points to note about the early journalism education in New Zealand. First, it takes about six years for news about the existence of a university journalism course to cross the Tasman Sea. Second, until I collate the information published in the AJA newspaper about the first wave of New Zealand courses few people seem to know of their existence. For example, in 1990 the head of New Zealand's only university-based journalism course, Jim Tully, says in a paper presented at the Journalism Education Association (JEA) (see Chapter 6) conference that journalism education starts in his country in 1966.

Meanwhile, the New Zealand Journalists' Association (NZJA) is formed in 1912 and initially produces its own newspaper (AJA, 1913, p. 11). From March 1914 to June 1927 the NZJA shares a newspaper, The Australasian Journalist, with the AJA. From August 1927 the NZJA and AJA produce separate papers. As a result the Australian newspaper does not carry any more articles about the higher education of journalists in New Zealand from August 1927 to August 1966, when it is announced that Canterbury
University proposes to start a post-graduate course in journalism in 1968 (AJA, 1966b, p. 7).

From reports in The Australasian Journalist (see Appendix E) it appears that tertiary-level, pre-entry journalism education begins in New Zealand long before it does in Australia. The first journalism course\(^{10}\) begins at the Canterbury College of the University of New Zealand in 1910. This follows the adoption of a report in 1909 -- three years before the founding of the NZJA -- by James Hight\(^{11}\) recommending that a course of journalism should and could be established at the College. Hight suggests that as well as "regular class-room instruction in certain subjects given to the ordinary university students", the journalism students should receive lectures from practising journalists and gain practical experience by working on such publications as the College Review (AJA, 1916l, p. 234).

The practical outcome of the adoption of the report was the facilities granted by the Senate for aspirants to obtain a diploma in journalism, which did not include facilities for practical work in journalism. (AJA, 1916l, p. 234)

This quotation seems to be a clear indication that a journalism diploma course -- without the practical experience component\(^{12}\) -- starts at Canterbury College in 1910. This is confirmed in research carried out by a Canterbury University graduate student after Tully is given a copy in 1991 of my information on early journalism courses in New Zealand (Tully, 1994). However, no information appears in The Journalist after 1927 about how, when, or why the early courses end. But the 1934 edition of the Auckland

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\(^{10}\) Previous accounts say the first journalism course is started at the Auckland College of the University of New Zealand in 1915. A journalism course may be 'on the books' at Auckland in 1915, but journalism as a subject is not taught there until 1924 (AJA, 1924d, p. 191).

\(^{11}\) I do not know what position Dr Hight holds at Canterbury College, but I surmise that he is CEO of the college who presents a proposal to his "Board" in 1909 (AJA, 1916k, p. 234) -- after lobbying by the Institute of Journalists (J.P.T., 1915, pp. 4-5).

\(^{12}\) According to a contemporary New Zealand journalist, the Council of the Auckland University College is told that "the whole curriculum of the journalists' diploma is given at present with the single exception of journalism itself, which is a very wide subject indeed. It will be for the committee to secure a man with ability in the direction of giving suitable instruction in the journalistic course" (J.P.T., 1915, p. 5).
University College Bulletin contains a digest of an "extension" course's "Lectures in Journalism" (UMAC File 1955/633). So journalism is taught by the University of New Zealand at least until the mid-1930s.

The second wave of journalism courses starts in 1966 with a one-year course at the Wellington Polytechnic, which is "intended to replace the newspaper cadetship" (Patching, 1983). In 1969 Canterbury University launches its one-year post-graduate diploma in journalism\(^\text{13}\), and in 1972 the Auckland Technical Institute offers its first 18-week 'induction course'. The third wave of courses starts in 1985, at the Waiariki Community College (1985), Manukau Polytechnic (1986), and Christchurch Polytechnic (1987) (Tully, 1990).

A Journalists' Training Board survey finds in 1987 that more than 35 per cent of practising journalists in New Zealand attend one of the existing courses. The largest proportion of these journalists graduate from the Wellington Polytechnic (42.3 per cent), followed by the Auckland Institute of Technology (34.3 per cent), and Canterbury University (16.3 per cent). The other courses have only just started, so that only 10 of the 1249 journalists surveyed attend any of them (Lealand, 1988, p. 62).

\**NB.** It should be noted that only in the setting up of the post-1966 courses in New Zealand, and earlier setting up of the National Council for the Training of Journalists (NCTJ) in Britain in 1952 (see Appendix D) are journalists’ unions involved in journalism education. Even then their roles are not significant. This is in marked contrast to the Australian experience.

**Who? = Me**

Details about the experiences and qualifications I bring to this thesis are included in Appendix M.

\(^{13}\) By 1987, this is still the only university-based journalism course in New Zealand (Tully, 1990).
Pagination

There are many changes in journalism since my days in 1961 on the London Daily Sketch. There are new news media and dead ones -- including the Sketch. There are also new meanings to old words. To journalists today, 'pagination' means the process of designing and 'making up' a page on a computer screen. For at least 200 years before, however, the word is used to describe how a particular publication is to be divided. How many pages for Sport, how many for Overseas news, how many for Features etc. etc.. In this thesis if there are new meanings to pre-computer words the old meanings have currency unless otherwise specified. For instance here pagination is used to describe the allocation of subjects to each chapter.

Chapter 1 contains a search for research issues by reviewing the literature relevant to the development of journalism education and training in Australia. During this review gaps in our knowledge are identified, as are those areas where the existing information appears to need checking. The search is divided into five parts. Part 1 surveys the literature on the differences at the beginning of this century between the influences of the contemporary journalism courses in America and the traditional approach of British universities as places for producing generalist graduates who will go on to lead the nation and empire. This latter approach is referred to in this thesis as the Oxbridge system. Part 2 looks at the literature about the introduction and development of a national journalism union which tries to set up a training system under Australia's unique industrial arbitration structures. Part 3 looks at accounts prior to this one about the journalism courses from 1919 to 1969, and the debates that lead to their establishment. Part 4 reviews the literature on the reasons for establishing the CAEs and how these institutions are fertile places for establishing American-like journalism courses. Part 5 reviews the literature on the relatively recent development of Communication Studies as it relates to journalism education and training in Australia.
Chapter 2 shows how the early introduction and subsequent development of Australia’s industrial arbitration and conciliation system creates not only a unique system of journalism training, but also significantly affects the development of journalism education. It also suggests that the industrial relations system ‘traps’ the essentially professional issues of journalism education and training in the inappropriate process of industrial bargaining.

The next four chapters describe the development of journalism education in Australia up to 1987. Chapters 3 and 4 chronicles in detail the rise and failures of the first four university diploma courses from 1919 to 1969. Chapter 3 looks at the debate in Australia that followed the publication in 1916 of news about the University of New Zealand journalism course. This is followed by accounts of the two shorter, pre-1969 courses, at the universities of Western Australia and Sydney. Chapter 4 includes accounts of the two early journalism courses that lasted almost half a century, at the universities of Melbourne and Queensland. These are followed by an analysis of distance education in journalism, and an examination of the choice of Oxbridge as the model for the early journalism courses. Chapter 5 is the first part of an overview of the introduction of pre-entry courses at CAEs between 1969 and 1987. This part deals with the six courses that were founded between 1969 and 1971. Chapter 6 looks at the five courses introduced between 1974 and 1977. The majority in the latter group are the first journalism courses introduced in Australia without the help of the AJA. This chapter also includes discussion about the structure and contents of all 11 of the post-1969 courses, changing ratios between males and females in journalism education, and the development of the Journalism Education Association (JEA).

The final chapter tries to identify a 1987 Australian model for journalism education and training. Chapter 7 also identifies conclusions that may be drawn from six arguments based on material in the preceding chapters. First, the AJA could help improve the coordination of the journalism courses, and increase its industrial pressure to remove the cadet system from the industrial awards. Second, external courses are found to be more
attractive to practising journalists than part-time on-campus courses. Journalism courses designed for people who are already employed in journalism should concentrate on this mode of offering, and increase the number of post-graduate journalism courses available off-campus. Third, the backgrounds of the faculty involved with the pre-1969 and 1969-1987 journalism courses at tertiary institutions are a key factor in deciding the structure and contents of the courses. Fourth, the ‘balancing’ of practical journalism units with communication studies units is counter-productive. It is also unnecessary because this approach ignores the existence of a large and expanding body of journalism theory. Fifth, prior to 1987 there are not too many journalism graduates for the jobs available; just too many small journalism courses that do not have room to employ journalism educators from sufficiently diverse backgrounds to provide graduates with a broad enough scope of understanding of the world. Sixth, in 1965 the description of the Australian model of journalism education and training is “practical on-the-job training, with general education and ability as the only prerequisite” (Mayer, 1965, p. 40). This Australian model has existed since the first the first newspaper was published in 1803. By 1987, however, this description does not reflect reality, which is that there is no typical Australian model.

Appendices

It is shown in the early parts of this Introduction that the Appendices in Volume 2 of this thesis are used to augment the text. So, the order in which the appendices appear is dictated by the order of the text. For example, Appendix E is referred to above because it carries details of the first journalism courses in New Zealand, and the content of the first exam published in 1916. Appendix H, on the other hand, carries details about the reaction in Australia to the 1916 publication. These details appear in a different appendix because the associated text does not appear until Chapters 1 and 3.

There are two other points about the appendices in Volume 2. First, details about the methods used to gather the data for this thesis are placed in Appendix A so that they are associated with the methodology outlined above in this Introduction. These details are
not placed in the text because, although their inclusion is necessary to help other researchers identify my sources, they do not contribute to the arguments in this thesis. Second, appendices I, J, K, and L do not adhere strictly to the strategy of placing the material in the appendices to coincide with the related material in the text. In these cases a potted history of each of the four pre-1969 courses is placed at the beginning of the relevant appendix. This is to help the reader keep track of the chronology of events.

**Layout and Typefaces**

This thesis is layed out in accordance with the specifications in the University of Wollongong’s Postgraduate Calendar 1992, Attachment C3, paragraph (3), to the Course Rules. That is, it is on A4 paper; the text typed in double space; and with margins on each sheet of not less than 40 mm on the bound side, 20 mm on the unbound side, 30 mm at the top and 20 mm at the bottom.

The body copy of the text is in 12 pt Times Roman. According to Colin Wheildon this serif typeface is nearly six times more easy to comprehend than a sans serif face of the same size. On the other hand, Wheildon shows that there is very little difference in the comprehension of headings between the use of serif or sans serif typefaces. So, in order to emphasise the difference between body copy and headings, a sans serif typeface, Helvetica, is used for non-body copy material. At the same time, there is a significant difference in the level of comprehension between all-capsitals headings, and upper-and-lower case headings. So the more comprehensible upper-and-lower headings are used here, with only a few exceptions. To facilitate the reading of the body copy it is justified. (Wheildon, 1984, pp. 18-31). To conform with University of Wollongong requirements the footnotes and quotations are single spaced. The latter are also indented both sides.

Appendices A, B, C, D, E, and M contain material written by me to amplify the narrative in the text. The other appendices consist largely of transcripts of original documents. In order to distinguish between this material and my writings in appendices
F, G, H, I, J, K, and L, all the quoted material is in Times Roman. Those parts of the body copy I have written are in Times Italic in this last group of appendices, and my headings are in Helvetica Bold.