Community Engagement in Journalism Education at UK Higher Education Institutions

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In memory of Angela Brown, 1934-2021. Miss you mum.
Declaration

I, the author, confirm that the Thesis is my own work. I am aware of the University’s Guidance on the Use of Unfair Means (www.sheffield.ac.uk/ssid/unfair-means). This work has not been previously been presented for an award at this, or any other, university.

An early version of this thesis was presented at the Association of Journalism Education’s annual conference at Middlesex University in June 2022 (see appendix K)
Abstract

Journalism education in the UK must adapt imaginatively to the challenges of the new technological, cultural and economic order which have made old media industrial models increasingly irrelevant. Yet, despite a pervading sense of crisis, journalism’s democratic mission and pivotal role in securing a functioning public sphere should also be seen to afford a range of possibilities within the academy, an institution which faces similar demands to harness its powers to address societal challenges through the production of useful knowledge and understanding.

This thesis presents the first overview of journalism education at UK higher education institutions explored through the lens of community engagement. The author, drawing on their experience as a professional journalist and academic, describes the unique characteristics of a discrete new field, its affordances and limitations, and signals the potential for engagement practice involving journalism educators, students, community partners and institutional leaders.

An adapted multi-dimensional framework was used to capture elements of research, knowledge exchange, learning and teaching, student activities and institutional policies which make up community engagement. The mixed and multimethod approach included the analysis of REF and KEF submissions from the period 2013-2021 and current journalism undergraduate programme specification documents from 33 institutions. This was enriched with online survey data gathered from 43 UK journalism academics and eight in-depth interviews.

The study uncovered a rich vein of innovative practice across the different dimensions, much of it initiated and sustained by individual academics. Collaboration with external journalistic communities was found to achieve societal impact at different geo-spatial levels and generate transformative learning experiences. Community engagement offered a route to enhance the status of journalism education in universities and to support the academy’s ‘third mission’. It is argued that an uncertain policy environment, sectoral financial challenges, institutional inertia, excessive focus on competitive national audit exercises and failure to embrace diversity may, however, undermine authentic engagement in journalism education.
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Abbreviations

AHRC: The Arts Humanities Research Council
AJE: Association of Journalism Education
BBC British Broadcasting Corporation
BJTC: Broadcast Journalism Training Council
C4: Channel Four
CPER Concordat for Public Engagement with Research
ESRC: Economic and Social Research Council
ECR: Early career researcher
EU: European Union
FCO: UK Foreign and Commonwealth Office
GCRF: Global Challenges Research Fund
HEFCE: Higher Education Funding Council for England
HEIs: Higher Education Institutions
KEF: Knowledge Exchange Framework
MeCCSA: Media Communications and Cultural Studies Association
NCCPE: National Co-ordinating Centre for Public Engagement
NCTJ: National Council for the Training of Journalists
OECD: Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
OfS: Office for Students
Ofcom: Office of Communications (UK regulator)
QR Funding: Quality-related funding (REF)
REF: Research Excellence Framework
SDG: Sustainable Development Goals
SFHSS: Swedish Foundation for Humanities and Social Sciences
SIDA: Swedish International Development Agency
TEF: Teaching Excellence Framework
TEFCE: Towards a European Framework for Community Engagement in Higher Education
UCAS: University and Colleges Admissions Service
UCFB: University Campus of Football Business
UCLan: University of Central Lancashire
UEA: University of East Anglia
UN: United Nations
UNESCO: The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UoA: Unit of assessment (REF)
Chapter One

1.1 Introduction

This study seeks to contribute to the understanding of the democratic possibilities in the field of journalism education in universities in the UK through community engagement. This occurs within the context of an uneasy and strained relationship between journalism education, research in the discipline and industry (Zelizer, 2004). This situation emerges from the longstanding reservations of journalism practitioners and media industry leaders over a perceived lack of relevance and value contributed by universities particularly in delivering workplace-ready journalism skills, useful knowledge or transformative insights into practice (Deuze, 2019). This ambivalence now occurs in the context of further aggravating factors brought on by rapid technological and social change. These include the digital transformation of professional journalism work practices, existential challenge to the business model of industrial journalism and an erosion of the public sphere in an era of superabundant factual content and personalised information flows (McNair, 2013; Wahl-Jorgensen, 2016; Bell, 2021).

It is not the intention of this study to address the educational implications of the economic challenges faced by news media businesses in the UK and elsewhere or the declining employment prospects faced by graduating journalism students (The Cairncross Review, 2019; Communications and Digital Committee, 2020). Instead, as journalism programmes continue to be widely offered in higher education institutions in the UK and worldwide, and considering the factors described above, it does seek to answer the unnerving question: ‘If professional journalism is in decline, what is the justification for journalism schools?’ (Camp, 2012 p. 241). This study therefore seeks to respond to a discourse of ‘crisis’ in journalism - and by association journalism education - through the exercise of ‘imagination’ in new possibilities in an increasingly uncertain field (Zelizer, 2017, p.11). It also seeks to address a personal ethical obligation to advance the general good through original educational research (Sikes, 2010a).

The modern university affords equally contested terrain (Scott, 2021). It comprises a range of institutions with different purposes, aims and missions with widely varying cultural, physical and financial resources (Collini, 2012). They are united, however, in facing growing pressure to contribute to economic and societal development in solving ‘real life’ problems (Hazelkorn et al., 2016). This requires institutions to evidence the impacts they bring in terms of promoting national economic development, benefiting a wide range of communities and stakeholders as well as meeting a diverse range of grand global challenges (OECD, 2007; McCowan, 2016; GUNi, 2022). This occurs as universities themselves face declining public trust, increased global competition and greater scrutiny
over performance and the value for money they provide to students and society (Hauptman, 2006; Farnell, 2020; Barber, Donnelly and Rizvi, 2013; Grant, 2021).

1.2 Context

The topic of this thesis is community engagement in journalism education in UK universities. Community engagement is here defined as a process whereby universities engage with community stakeholders to undertake joint activities that can be mutually beneficial even if each side benefits in a different way (Benneworth, 2018a, p.17). Universities have been described as having a tripartite mission comprising teaching, research and engagement with external communities and stakeholders (Laredo, 2007; Millican and Bourner, 2011). Whilst the mobilisation of knowledge is common to all three functions, recent scholarship has focused on the development of knowledge for the so-called ‘third mission’. This term, however, is embroiled in a state of ‘definitional anarchy’ with the concept of external engagement subject to disputed, multifaceted and differing understandings (Sandmann, 2008, p.91). Although open to many different interpretations, the policy agenda supporting the desire to engage productively with external partners is agreed to have emerged in the United States in the 1980s following the radical campus challenges of the previous decades, a changing ideological and political environment and a growing sense of disparity between wealthy universities and their often economically, disadvantaged neighbouring populations (Bok, 1982; Boyer, 1997).

The 1998 UNESCO World Conference on Higher Education formalised the global call for community engagement establishing the expectation for universities to be a public good with an obligation for social responsibility (UNESCO, 2009, p.51). In the UK this challenge has been tackled through the development of a wide range of policies and different measures most notably the establishment of the National Co-ordinating Centre for Public Engagement (NCCPE); the Research Excellence Framework (REF) and the Knowledge Exchange Framework (KEF) (Farnell, 2020) A proliferation of community university projects has developed across the world, some initiated from the top down, others orchestrated from the grassroots with a wide range of collaborative partners engaged across many different disciplines (Miller and Hafner, 2008). A growing body of literature has subjected these to a critical examination with questions over perceived power inequalities and the suspicion of instrumental motivations on behalf of institutions that have embraced the engagement agenda (Strier, 2014; Fisher, Fabricant and Simmons, 2004).
1.3 Positionality

As a former professional journalist turned educator – a composite identity often described as ‘hackademic’ (Bromley, 2009; Harcup, 2011) – my purpose is to explore connections in my own field of practice between the roles of journalism practitioner, educator and researcher in relation to the wider concept of community engagement. Whilst not formally situated within the tradition of action research, the study draws on Stenhouse’s (1981, p.103) definition of research as ‘systematic self-critical inquiry’. It forms the topic for the thesis of my EdD, a professional doctorate contributing to theory and professional practice through the development of professional knowledge in relation to ‘real-life’ issues (Burgess and Wellington, 2010). Here, studies are typically small-scale, often associated with the researcher’s individual practice and organisation, with a particular focus on professional and personal growth (Scott, 2004; Burgess, Sieminski and Arthur, 2007). This project thus intersects with my own work and interests as a journalism educator and practitioner engaged with collaborations with community partners including people with mental health problems; local media enterprises; a community radio station and young people from ‘educationally disadvantaged’ backgrounds. I have sought to be reflexive and honest about this positionality throughout, conscious of the opportunities and limitations it has afforded, as well as the impact it has had on my ability to make sense of this subject (Sikes, 2010b).

1.4 Key concepts

This project is also inspired by the notion of democratic education. Dewey (2009, p.76) described education in terms of human growth through the ‘reconstruction or reorganisation of experience which adds to the meaning of experience, and which increases the ability to direct the course of subsequent experience’. Critical to this is that education has a social dimension and takes place as part of a group or community activity where ‘aims, beliefs, aspirations, knowledge – a common understanding, like-mindedness’ are shared through learning (Dewey, 2015, p.4). Pring (2007, p.118) envisages:

‘... the kind of community in which there is a maximum participation in the deliberations about all matters that affect the lives of those within the community, and in the decisions that arise out of those deliberations.’

Education is here indivisible from the goal and practice of democracy. Democracy is not just a question of the periodical transference of political power amongst elites or universal voting rights but ‘faith in the capacity of human beings for intelligent judgement and action if proper conditions are furnished’ (Dewey, 1939, quoted in Westbrook, 1991 p. xv). One of these conditions is the existence of an authentic public sphere - a discursive space between the political system and the private citizen
where free and rational discussion may be pursued on matters of public concern. The notion of public sphere is most closely associated with the work of Jurgen Habermas, who identified the development of the phenomena – and its subsequent corruption – to the emergence of journalism in the early modern period (Habermas, 2015). The effectively functioning public sphere creates the possibility for thoughtful political and social action, consensus-building and learning.

The university and journalism, through their shared role in creating civil society, are linked by this democratic ideal in their ambition to ‘create spaces for discourse’ through education and in the circulation of ‘facts, events, opinions, interests, and perspectives of others’ (Fleming and Murphy, 2010 p. 11). Education can be understood both as an ethical and political practice (Biesta, 2009). A fully educational conception of education is therefore not simply defined in terms of its extrinsic value – such as being solely aimed at bringing about the promotion of economic growth or enhancing student employability, though these might be legitimate societal and private aims too. Instead, Biesta (2009) suggests ‘good’ education can be conceived across three ‘domains of purpose’ – qualification (vocational or academic); socialisation through the sharing of ideas, practices and traditions and finally ‘subjectification’, how education impacts and influences the growth of the human subject in the world. More radically still it can be viewed as a disruptive process in which ‘educational encounters between students, teachers and lecturers and the world hold the promise of a deep emancipatory transformation’ (Vlieghe, 2020 p 187).

1.5 Scope/Aims

The primary aim of this project is to identify and analyse existing community engaged practices in the field of journalism undergraduate education in UK HEIs by undertaking a thematic analysis across a range of empirical data using an established framework for measuring community engagement since the start of the last REF cycle in 2013/14. This enabled me to compare common themes as well as to explore positive and negative aspects of community engaged practices as they emerged in the data. A final aim was to assess the current and future opportunities to generate impactful activity across the different dimensions of the framework, as well as identify the potential for development in the field and its possible limitations.

I have adopted a meta-theoretical approach aligned to critical realism – which I understand as a relatively heterogenous series of positions typically associated with the philosopher Roy Bhaskar (1978), Margaret Archer (2009) and others that emerged out of the positivist/constructivist ‘paradigm wars’ of the 1980s (Fletcher, 2017, p.181). It has informed my thinking about both ontology and epistemology. As a result, I have adopted a realist ontological position that allows for the existence of an independent social reality separate of the observer whilst acknowledging that this reality may be
open to subjective interpretation and that knowledge itself is socially constructed (Scott, 2005, p.2). This also embraces a concept of 'judgmental rationality' – the assertion that there are rational criteria for judging the relative merits of different world views and theories – and the principle of ethical naturalism (Archer et al. 2016). This latter concept resists a naïve belief in objectivity and value neutrality in research whilst embracing the search for the ‘good’ life and society and the creation of favourable conditions for human flourishing. The search for causation privileged by critical realism helps researchers to explain social events and suggest practical recommendations to address social problems (Danermark, 2002). This position entails a rejection of what Pring (2004a) has described as a false dualism between quantitative and qualitative methods. The multi-phase mixed methods study therefore proceeded over three stages:

- Analysis of a range of publicly available documents that enabled a ‘mapping exercise’ to scope out characteristics of journalism education practices that might be defined as community engaged using a pre-existing thematic framework. The documents comprised a purposive sample of REF impact statements, REF environment statements, KEF community engagement narratives and journalism undergraduate programme specification documents.
- Analysis of a self-completed questionnaire targeted at journalism education practitioners in the UK which sought to gain understanding into the attitudes and beliefs of academics into community engaged practice and opportunity.
- A series of eight semi-structured interviews to develop ‘thick’ data to enable me to address research questions around issues relating to the promotion or inhibition of community engaged practice in this field as well as its affordances and limitations.

The intended contribution of this study is to extend knowledge in providing the first description of national community engaged practices being undertaken at a subject level in the UK and to potentially facilitate a new network of interested educator-practitioners able to share and develop expertise and ideas. Finally, my hope is to explore the potential for enhanced engagement between the journalism educator and external partners including marginalised communities or audiences in the development of a more participatory and democratic public sphere.

1.6 Research questions and dimensions of analysis

I have adopted a question-driven approach during the study, which means that the aim of answering the research questions is put ahead of any paradigm. This position has been operationalised by identifying and using appropriate strategies best suited to gathering effective data at each point in the study in response to the research questions (O'Leary, 2021, p.177-78). To achieve my aims,
therefore, I was guided throughout with reference to the following research questions which were broadly set at the start of the project, but which were then developed and focused during the phased course of the literature review, data collection and analysis.

**RQ1: In what ways can undergraduate programmes in journalism education at UK HEIs be described as ‘community engaged’?**

- **SRQ1: What promotes/inhibits community engagement from happening in this field?**
- **SRQ2: What are the affordances/limitations for community engaged journalism educational practice in UK HEIs?**

The thematic analysis encompasses five dimensions from an established framework developed from a synthesis of different models for conceptualising community engagement in higher education to support, monitor and assess effective practice (Ćulum, 2020). These have been developed by a range of bodies including individual institutions, university networks, national and international organisations. It is acknowledged that community engagement in the university arises out of a ‘multiplicity of relational motives and social contexts’ and so provides a problematic object of study best captured in this approach (ibid., p.70).

The five dimensions were developed from the institutional self-reflective framework and toolbox for the project TEFCE – Towards a European Framework for Community Engagement in Higher Education (Benneworth et al., 2018; Farnell, 2020), and that developed on behalf of the UK’s National Co-ordinating Centre for Public Engagement (NCCPE) by Hart, Northmore, and Gerhardt (2009). The following dimensions were constructed based on my own interpretation to make them more readily applicable to the field of journalism education and relevant to the study.

- **Dimension one: teaching and learning:** Sometimes referred to as the ‘first mission’ of the university (Laredo, 2007), this has been the primary means by which universities have historically connected and served the needs of society by providing educational services for an increasingly diverse range of groups to meet the needs of different societal eras (Pinheiro, Benneworth and Jones, 2012). This has been witnessed most recently, for example, in terms of achieving national economic and political competitiveness in a global knowledge economy through the development of human capital (Brown, Lauder and Ashton, 2008). Community engaged learning practice, however, extends to a much more heterogenous range of activities including service, lifelong, workplace and citizen learning and by engaging community groups in the development of curricula and teaching (Ćulum, 2018)
• **Dimension two: Research:** The exploitation of fundamental research into applied, problem solving and, increasingly, societal contexts has been one of the defining characteristics of the development of the university’s ‘second’ mission in the post-war period (Laredo, 2007). This knowledge has been harnessed to meet a range of national and increasingly international economic and technological imperatives. Community engaged research by contrast suggests a less instrumental approach and a deeper participatory commitment to authentic collaboration between academics and diverse communities based on the desire to generate knowledge which contributes towards fruitful and democratic social change (Strand *et al.*, 2003). Here, research may be viewed as a structured and progressive ‘ladder of participation’ (Arnstein, 2019) or as a reflexive form of co-operative inquiry which takes place ‘with’ rather than ‘on’ people (Reason, 1999). The current research landscape in the UK, however, is dominated by the REF, a competitive performance-based mechanism for allocating research funding, which is designed to manage and shape national research outputs and promote ‘excellence’ and which is prevalent in similar formats in many developed nations (Marginson, 1997). Accounting for 25% of the assessment process is the concept of ‘impact’. It is described as ‘any effect on, change or benefit to the economy, society, culture, public policy or services, health, the environment or quality of life, beyond academia’ (UKRI, no date a). Farnell (2020, p.17) has argued that this is one of the key national policy measures which has enabled the UK to become one of the leading nations in Europe ‘in terms of developing policies and measures to support universities’ contribution to societal needs’.

• **Dimension three: Knowledge exchange:** This can be understood as the two-way process whereby universities work with different external partners to create and disseminate useful knowledge for the benefit of the economy and society. The term covers a wide range of activities from high-level research partnerships to hosting public events and sharing facilities and equipment (UKRI, no date b). This may also involve the exchange of skills and experience. Knowledge exchange in the UK is assessed and measured through the KEF. Publication of the first iteration of KEF took place in 2021. It was designed to ‘complement’ and ‘mutually reinforce’ the REF and the Teaching Excellence Framework (TEF) and has been described as affording the potential for recognising and promoting a range of ‘transformative projects’ which generate non-monetary benefits for society (Johnson, 2022, p.201). TEF submissions in its first iteration included a self-assessed narrative statement describing institutional community engagement practice.
• **Dimension four: Student activities**: Students can be the primary beneficiaries from community engagement, notably when activities are student-led (Farnell, 2020). Examples of student engagement activity include volunteering, community placements and collaborative projects as well as curriculum-based experiential learning activities (Hart, Northmore, and Gerhardt, 2009)

• **Dimension five: University activities**: These may include university-level engagement activities, which would not occur without the leadership of the institution, as well as university level supporting policies (Benneworth et al., 2018). Goddard (2016) argues that policy leadership is decisive in creating a coherent institutional approach to community engagement and maximizing benefits to civil society. Types of policy considered include the integration of community engagement into institutional mission statements, promotion, recruitment and funding strategies.

### 1.7 Summary and structure of the thesis.

This section has sought to outline the focus of the thesis and to establish the scope and aims of the inquiry as well as the context in which the research has taken place, the positionality of the researcher and the key concepts which underpin the project. The unique claim of this thesis is the attempt to capture the characteristics of community engaged practice for the first time in journalism education in the UK undergraduate sector by using an established framework of analysis. Whilst this is a first step, the project is intended to provide an initial mapping and explication of opportunities and limitations for future practice as well as the possibilities and affordances for future work in the field among journalism educators, students, community partners and institutional leaders. The analysis is based on data generated from the most recent REF and KEF cycles (2013/14-2021) and from individual academic practice between 2017-2022.

Chapter two will provide an overview of the relevant literature and describe in more detail the context for the study - indicating the range of ideas and knowledge with which I have been able to conceive of and respond effectively to my research questions. The bodies of literature accessed have established the conceptual parameters of the inquiry – enabling me to ask what is relevant and what is not - and allowing me to explore relevant debates and themes within the field. It draws on and is informed by my earlier doctoral assignments which have laid much of the pathway for this project.

Chapter three is the methodology chapter, outlining in further depth the research questions and aims of the project, ethical procedures and considerations encountered as researcher and the philosophical and worldview I have brought to the study. It describes the research design, methods
and sampling techniques, the evolution and application of the framework and my approach to data analysis.

Chapters four and five present the findings. Chapter four reports the data from the document analysis which were read and coded based around the five dimensions to qualitatively address RQ1. Certain documents proved more fruitful reading for certain dimensions. For example, the REF impact environment statements formed the primary – but not exclusive - basis for the analysis of research, whilst the programme specifications were central for exploring aspects of learning and teaching. As well as the five dimensions described above, several overarching and interlaced themes were identified such as around societal good or the geo-spatial contexts of certain practices. Chapter five is divided into two parts. The first part presents findings from the online questionnaire. This enabled me to further develop the analysis in relation to RQ1 through the quantitative demographic data yielded, whilst also allowing both qualitative and quantitative analysis of respondents’ values, ideas and experience. The second part of the chapter presents findings from the semi structured interviews which together with the survey data are analysed in relation to SRQ1 and 2.

Chapter six presents further analysis of the data in terms of the key themes which are discussed in relation to the research questions and the literature. The final chapter provides a summary of findings whilst considering the limitations, implications and future dissemination of the study.
Chapter Two: Literature review

2.1 Introduction:

Educational research has been described as ‘cumulative’ – building on prior scholarship in what has been characterised as a ‘messy’ field (Boote and Beile, 2005, p.3). Research takes place in the context of explosive growth in the volume of information and new knowledge being created as well as against the backdrop of demands for radical and urgent change in both major fields of study - higher education and journalism (Barber, Donnelly and Rizvi, 2013; Zelizer, 2017). A rich understanding of prior scholarship enables researchers to identify challenges and appropriate problems, select suitable methods and conduct meaningful analysis and discussion. My aim by undertaking a wide range of reading is to provide the conditions for ‘doctorateness’ to emerge in the form of a coherent thesis which may positively impact theory, policy or practice within my chosen field (Burgess and Wellington, 2010).

This is an interdisciplinary study crossing across the norms and subject practices associated with distinct ‘academic tribes and territories’ (Becher and Trowler, 2001). My thesis therefore seeks to create a ‘dialogue of interaction’ between disciplines and to address questions that cannot be resolved within a single domain (Moran, 2010, p.14). Situated within educational research – specifically in higher education – this study is concerned with questions arising from journalism education and practice and so draws on extensive literatures and sources across diverse subject areas including media studies, cultural studies, sociology, history and education studies.

2.2 Approach to the literature

I have adopted a qualitative narrative approach to the development of the literature review inductively using keyword and citation searches in a range of university and internet databases (Clark et al. 2021). Exploring extensive literatures across different fields presents a demanding task. Kamler and Thomson (2014, p.36) have described two compelling metaphors that have guided my approach. One is the image of the dinner party – in which the researcher acting as ‘host’ - brings the literature as ‘guests’ into conversation with each other. The second characterises the ‘huge and unruly’ nature of an exercise which can never be complete or exhaustive - describing it as akin to ‘persuading an octopus into a jar’. To visualise and contain the scope of the search I created a Venn diagram to identify the primary areas of overlapping interest and to establish boundaries for the task (O’Leary, 2021, p.102). Employing this technique, I identified three distinctive fields of inquiry with the intersecting area representing the primary area of conceptual synthesis:
The first section of the literature review will trace the evolution of the ‘idea’ of the university, sketching out the current national and global contexts in which higher education institutions in the UK exist and identifying some of the key debates which provide the backdrop to the project. Emphasis here is placed on the argument that universities are ‘fundamentally societal institutions’ which have been historically entwined with meeting the wider needs of society through the production of knowledge since their foundation in medieval Europe (Benneworth et al., 2018, p.19).

The second section of the literature review will explore the concept of ‘community engagement’ as the university’s ‘third mission’ (Laredo, 2007) and describing the emerging policy agendas which encourage and facilitate UK institutions to engage with external publics through metrics such as the REF and the KEF. This section will seek to address the ongoing problems associated with the ‘definitional anarchy’ which has undermined the saliency of community engagement as a concept against the more coherently articulated and better understood missions of research and teaching (Sandmann, 2008, p.14). It will then outline the attempts to reconcile these problems with the definitional and practical frameworks for capturing community engagement at an institutional level.

Finally, the third section of the literature review will provide an overview of journalism as the ‘primary sense making vehicle of modernity’ (Hartley, 1996, p.12) and the formation of the Press as ‘the pre-eminent institution of the public sphere’ (Habermas, 2015 p.181). It will explore responses to what has been described as the current ‘economic, cultural and existential crises of journalism’ (McNair, 2013 p.78) by setting out the range of challenges for journalism education in the academy against this backdrop.
This project occurs in a period when both the academy and wider society are engaged in necessary debates around the epistemic legacy of colonialism and questions of wider racial and social inequalities (Said, 2003; Morris and Spivak, 2010; Fricker, 2015). These discussions are relevant to all three areas of my study and it is important for me to acknowledge at this stage that much of the literature reviewed here is drawn from a white, (male), Western-centred tradition - dominated largely by English speaking and European universities. Whilst not seeking to evade or claim a form of innocence on my behalf by adopting safe metaphors of decolonisation (Tuck and Yang, 2012) I am seeking rather to engage with the additive process of rebalancing hegemonic knowledge structures in the academy (Meghji, 2021). By this I mean the implicit recognition that imperialism and enslavement have been central to the creation of the modern world - including the practice and academic disciplines of education and journalism - both in terms of their contribution to creating contemporary socio-economic and political systems but also in constructing the way the world is understood.

2.3 The University

The university is the primary institutional arena in which the practices and concepts of journalism, journalism education and community engagement are brought together for analysis in this thesis. Yet the academy is not a neutral or value free phenomenon and brings with it its own set of contested histories and powerful discourses.

This section will:

- Contextualise the research within recent debates around the ‘idea’ and purpose of the university.
- Situate the discussion in terms of the growth complexity, scale and function of the academy and changing ideological conditions in which it operates.
- Locate key trends in UK HEIs alongside current challenges and debates in the sector.
- Analyse changes in knowledge and explore how these have affected the university’s wider role in democratic and civil society.

2.3.1 The ‘idea’ and purpose of the university

Ways of thinking about and analysing higher education are increasingly contested. As Scott (2016, p.257) argues this now has significant implications as many of the central concepts that underpin ‘policies, practices, mentalities and ideologies’ prevalent in higher education literatures can no longer be considered immutable. One symptom of this waning certainty is the resurfacing in recent years of the debate concerning the very idea, purpose and value of universities (Collini, 2012).
Histories of the academy have traditionally privileged their ancient links to the philosophies of Plato and Aristotle, describing foundational modes of thought and practice based around the acquisition of knowledge and the exploration of questions of ethics and virtue in the pursuit of the good life and the creation of a just society (Barnett, 2011; Moseley, 2014, p.219; Williams, 2010). In modernity, Newman (1996), valorised the intrinsic pursuit of knowledge describing the university as an institution within which academic disciplines coalesced around a single vision and where the quest for intellectual development was engaged through the ‘true enlargement of the mind’ (Gruenwald, 2011, p.2). Humboldt’s emphasis on science, technology and service to the industrial needs of the emerging nation state in the 19th century privileged the secular development of the personality through the philosophy of bildung (Pritchard, 2004). In the 20th century, the post-war period sought to redefine notions of both universality and plurality through the promotion of shared values and consensus (Jaspers, 1960); universities have been seen as ‘feasible utopias’ at the centre of wider social, cultural and economic ecologies (Barnett, 2011) and the academy as a place of ‘infinite variety … a city upon a hill’ (Kerr, 1964, p.22).

Historical approaches to conceptualising the modern university system have their limitations. McCowan (2015, p.274) suggests ‘we cannot … read off from history what the aims of a university should be, as if by digging down through the layers and discovering the true and original essence.’ Aviram (1992, p.189) warns of the dangers of engaging in concept analysis of the aims and purposes of higher education per se, a philosophical exercise which may simply express ‘ideological views in the guise of results of objective analysis.’ The postmodern turn has brought into question the pursuit of ‘truth’ and undermined some of the university’s post enlightenment epistemological mission. Relativist approaches occurred alongside growing public distrust of expert, particularly scientific, knowledge of the kind produced by academics (Gauchat, 2012; Clarke and Newman, 2017). Readings (1999) suggests a resulting ‘university in ruins’ – evoking the image of an institution that has outlived its historical and cultural purpose. Barber, Donnelly and Rizvi (2013) describe the impending existential ‘avalanche’ brought on by globalisation and technological change and the imminent ‘unbundling’ of the universities’ traditional functions of research and teaching. And whilst Collini (2012) decries the prioritisation of national social and economic metrics at the expense of intrinsic intellectual aims, Grant (2021, p.2) characterises a popular conception of ‘elitist out-of-touch institutions that are exploiting students, their parents and broader society through worthless and expensive degrees and irrelevant esoteric research’.

Three distinct voices emerge in this debate, according to Aviram (1992). A majority Anglo-American voice advocates a ‘service station’ view of the academy whereby the university caters for diverse client needs in relation to the provision of teaching, learning and research services. Secondly,
some conservative and radical critics seek a return to intrinsic and objective academic values in the wake of unfettered marketisation. Thirdly, there are those who seek to align contemporary institutions to the ‘relativistic and pluralist post-modern era … one appropriate to the new social and epistemic circumstances’ (Aviram, 1992, p. 184).

2.3.2 Growth in scale and complexity

The growth in the scale of higher education and the explosion in worldwide student numbers provides the defining context for understanding the dynamics of current debates in the sector (Scott, Gallacher and Parry, 2017). The past four decades have witnessed a global transition from elite to mass and even – potentially - universal systems of provision driven by demand-led growth for university places, mobilities and growing social and economic aspiration (Trow and Burrage, 2010). Yet, whilst high participation systems exist in nearly all countries, national and global systems are characterised by entrenched stratification between elite and non-elite institutions (Marginson, 2016). Rather than promoting universal democratic values, universities have been criticised as increasingly powerful actors commanding vast cultural, academic and social resources, capable of reproducing or even exacerbating existing inequalities (Robbins, 1993, Naidoo, 2004). The emergence of a global ‘graduate society’ meanwhile, sees those without a university degree excluded from the full benefits of national social, economic, or cultural life (Scott, 2021). The expansion in student (and staff) numbers due to massification has dramatically expanded the social, gender and ethnocultural basis of the academy with the higher education experience seen by some as leading to an undermining of traditional cultural norms, particularly around identity, and the establishment of ‘academic metropoles’ detached from non-graduate communities (Scott, 2017). Expansion and the benefits of social mobility afforded by massification are claimed to have altered student motivations and privileged a view of higher education based on consumer and instrumental economic values (Altbach, 2008). Conservatives in the UK and the United States argue that expansion has resulted in declining standards and is linked to the growth of wider cultural tensions (Read, 2018).

Physical and human growth in the academy has occurred alongside increasing complexity in the academy’s function. The enduring notion of a ‘multiversity’ (Kerr, 1964) captured concerns over atomisation of traditional academic communities within the modern research institution as well as increasing size and diversity. The expanding scale and interconnectedness of higher education systems meanwhile, have elicited descriptions such as the ‘mega university’ (Daniel, 1997) or even the ‘global multiversity’ (Collini, 2012).
In modern societies, universities can be seen as complex institutions required to fulfil multiple often politically and socially contested roles and functions on behalf of competing national and global stakeholders. They are subject to an array of external and internal forces that constrain as well as afford opportunities to bring about societal change and to address a range of local, national and global social challenges (Altbach, 2008; McCowan, 2016). The extraordinary breadth of expectation was vividly articulated in the Dearing Report (Dearing, 1997) which described UK universities’ central role in safeguarding the social, economic and cultural health of the nation as well as adding to global knowledge whilst also promoting universal values and the creation of lifelong learning societies.

2.3.3 Ideological changes

Universities have been subject over recent decades to ‘modernisation’ processes using policy and governance tools designed to ‘raise standards’ within the sector and meet the escalating expectations placed on them by governments and other stakeholders (Farnell, 2020). Change agendas in higher education have mirrored those in state health and welfare provision worldwide producing ongoing tensions between ideals of equity and efficiency in the public sector (Hood, 1991, Shattock, 2008). Tools, such as the REF and KEF, have been promoted by governments and supranational organisations engaging metrics, indicators, audits and monitoring systems to enhance the accountability and performance of institutions and their staff (Hauptman, 2005; McLean and Ashwin, 2017). Foucault’s concept of ‘governmentality’ has been widely applied to the field of higher education studies envisaging insidious new forms of social control and self-surveillance prevalent in the sector (Ball, 2013). Lyotard’s (1984) notion of ‘performativity’ has radically informed critiques of the university, encompassing a wide array of interpretations, notably concerns at growing centralised control over curriculum and pedagogy (Munday, 2014). It is a position that calls into question phenomena such as global league tables and ‘world class’ discourses in research and teaching which underpin competitive claims between institutions and nations for student fees and research funding (Hazelkorn, 2018).

Such techniques are typically associated with the governance doctrines of New Public Management (NPM) and the political philosophy of neo-liberalism which seeks to promote human well-being through entrepreneurship, individual liberty, and a reduced state (Harvey, 2011). Fisher (2009) argues that neoliberalism in the 21st century has established a total global hegemony precipitating a state of ‘capitalist realism’ whereby opponents are unable to fashion or conceive of an alternative mode of organising society or the economy. The effects of neoliberalism in the academy have been widely critiqued with the growing nexus of linkages between academics, think tanks, policy makers and global markets considered to have facilitated a new form of ‘academic capitalism’ and exacerbated national and global educational inequalities through the privatisation of learning.
provision in the tertiary sector (Slaughter and Leslie, 1999; Hill and Kumar, 2009). Giroux (2010, p.185) pessimistically describes the 21st century academy as beset by ‘budget cuts, diminishing quality, the downsizing of faculty, the militarisation of research, and the revamping of the curriculum to fit the needs of the market’. Others have heralded a ‘new Brutalism in academia’ brought on by NPM and its administrators (Warner, 2014). MacIntyre (2017, p.46) similarly evokes disdain for this creeping commercialism, describing universities as ‘wonderfully successful business corporations ... exhibiting all the acquisitive ambitions of such corporations.’

The state-backed response to the Covid pandemic may however have exposed the limits of the neoliberal project albeit heralding a renewed and more vigorous assertion of the state through cronyism and surveillance technologies (Macfarlane, 2021). Scott (2017, p.39) suggests the neoliberal account of universities is overstated and true devotees of its instrumentalist nostrums remain the preserve of ‘only a few market zealots’ with only qualified support amongst higher education managers and politicians. This lack of internal cohesion has seen the university described as a site of mounting dissensus and characterised by a state of near ‘permanent conflict’ (Naidoo, 2004, p.459).

### 2.3.4 UK context

The higher education sector in the UK, of which universities play the most high-profile role, is diverse and highly differentiated. According to the Higher Education Statistics Agency (HESA, no date) as of 2022 there were 605 registered public and private institutions with qualification awarding powers. Differences between institutions focus on research intensity, teaching and learning, relative economic resources as well as status and perceived quality of provision and outcome with a key distinction between ‘Old’ and ‘New’ institutions (Boliver, 2015). Oxford and Cambridge continue to enjoy the highest levels of prestige followed by the ‘ancients’ and the 19th century ‘redbricks’ and civic universities; and finally, the new universities of the 1960s, former polytechnics and higher education institutions (Tight, 1996). New private and ‘challenger’ entrants are being encouraged to join the field through Government policy to promote competition between HE providers (Hunt and Boliver, 2021). The interests of elite research-intensive universities are represented by the Russell Group although the sector is characterised by a range of ‘mission groups’ comprising institutions with perceived commonalities and policy interests (Filappakou and Tapper, 2015).

Post-war growth in higher education in the UK was driven by Government policies supporting technical and scientific skill development and the desire to create ‘meritocratic’ pathways for students supported with tuition and maintenance grants (Lane, 2015). Reports and commissions set up under both Labour and the Conservative governments included those of Barlow (1946), Robbins (1963),
Dearing (1996) and Browne (2010). These progressively tasked universities with responsibility in the delivery of national economic and social transformation. This has resulted in increased numbers of students (both undergraduate and postgraduate) and a growing range of subjects and disciplines available for study and research as the system has moved from elite to mass participation. Growth in the UK university sector has been tempered by periods of declining funding, both relative and absolute, as concerns over the economic costs of expansion have continued to prevail (Shattock, 2012). Successive governments have sought to control spending and sectoral debt whilst maintaining or extending participation rates to currently around 45 per cent of eligible young people (Lane, 2015). The ‘cap’ on recruitment was eventually lifted in 2015/16. Systemic cost pressures however, have led to the introduction of student loans and the initial raising and then freezing of fees underpinned by the principle that the cost of higher education should be borne by those ‘who benefit from it’ via higher salaries (Dearing, 1997 para 90). However, despite the extension of the fee burden to students, concerns over graduate employment precarity and the Covid-19 pandemic, demand for university education has remained largely stable following the end of the Covid pandemic (UCAS, 2021).

Principal trends in UK higher education since the financial crisis of 2008 include the intensification of policies promoting marketisation and privatisation in the sector; greater financialisation through the expansion of student loans and increased borrowing and escalating financial risk in some institutions (McGettigan, 2013, p,156). The Higher Education and Research Act 2017 extended student ‘choice’ by seeking to encourage both new educational market entrants and establishing fresh metrics to quantify ‘teaching excellence’ through the TEF. This has been consolidated through the creation of the powerful regulator, the Office for Students (OfS), which is mandated to champion students’ rights as consumers in England particularly in relation to quality and value for money (Kelly, Fair and Evans, 2017).

Higher education is politically, socially and culturally contested territory in the UK and the sector participates as an actor in divisive debates around migration, globalisation and diversity as well as highly polarising issues such as Brexit (Hobolt, 2016; Papatsiba, 2019). University campuses, including those at elite institutions, have become embroiled in ‘culture war’ discourses following decolonisation protests such as Rhodes Must Fall. These have drawn on university scholarship which has turned an increasingly critical lens on traditional imperial histories and their underpinning ideologies (Gebrial, 2018). This echoes earlier debates around ‘political correctness’ and the use of language which privileges racial, gender, sexual, cultural and historical justice (Hall, 1994). Scott (2017) suggests massification of the sector has brought into a majority those most likely to benefit from a recalibration of such language. Critical accounts of student fragility such as ‘generation snowflake’ (Brown, 2019), have become enmeshed with notions of ‘cultures of fear’ and a supposed ‘therapeutic
turn’ in the delivery of education (Furedi, 2007; Ecclestone and Hayes, 2008) prompting government legislation (Williamson, 2021).

Whilst universities sought to position themselves at the centre of the scientific and social response to the Covid pandemic, they also faced students demands for fee discounts and compensation following the switch to online learning (Keyserlingk et al., 2021; Hall, 2021). Institutions sought to harness the rhetorical power of a ‘Covid decade’ to address the impacts of the pandemic on society, culture and the economy (British Academy, 2020) though this agenda has been tempered by worsening economic and global security concerns.

2.3.5 Universities, knowledge and society

Despite these debates, universities have been described as ‘fundamentally societal institutions’ whose institutional resilience and stability is due to their being ‘inextricably intertwined, responsive to and beneficial for societies’ (Benneworth, 2018, p.19). Since its emergence in 12\textsuperscript{th} century Europe, the academy’s primary link to society has been through the production and dissemination of socially useful knowledge (Pinhiero, Benneworth and Jones, 2012). This link has been characterised by ongoing political and economic support by the state in return for serving needs defined by society’s most powerful actors as well as driving change through creative engagement with marginalised and other civil society groups (Benneworth and Osborne, 2014). Historically significant functions have included the creation of skilled administrative elites; the promotion of the nation state and the provision of technical knowledge in the service of complex industrial, mass democratic societies (\textit{ibid.}).

The pursuit of the ‘invisible material’ of knowledge is the foundation stone upon which the modern university is built (Clark, 1998). Knowledge underpins activities involving research, learning, teaching, curriculum and scholarship - encapsulating concepts, skills and competencies. Popper (1992) identified the expansion in knowledge, particularly scientific knowledge, as the central problem of epistemology creating with it the constant possibility for amendment, clarification or falsification. Pring (2004b, p.78) describes knowledge as not a ‘psychological state of mind’ but a logical relative of ‘truth’ and ‘reality’ – contingent on a ‘publicly agreed framework of justification, refutation and verification.’ The post-modern tradition regards knowledge in terms of the relative temporal, cultural or gender positionality of its producer/knower (Lennon, 1995) whilst others focus on its transformative power to enable new ways of understanding (Young, 2009). Universal claims to knowledge meanwhile have been criticised as repressive and for limiting opportunities for personal and political emancipation (de Sousa Santos, 2007).
The nature of the university and its public dimensions over time can be understood through this changing relationship with knowledge transmission, production and application. Central to this is the degree to which institutions are seen as ‘porous’ in terms of the interflow of ideas, personnel and resources with society (McCowan, 2016, p.275). The academy may generate public and private goods/benefits both in the economic sense, through applied knowledge and research, as well as in the political sense, through knowledge that promotes democracy, civic society, enhances social mobility and improves the lives of graduates (Marginson, 2004). As discussed, universities have assumed increasing responsibility for the success of the post-industrial nation’s ‘knowledge economy’, not simply through fundamental and linear ‘Mode One’ research (Laredo, 2007) but by developing human capital, skills and innovation and promoting international competitiveness or dominance in a global marketplace (Bell, 1991; Drucker, 2001; Brown, Lauder and Ashton, 2008). This is evidenced in the growing emphasis on skills transmission and employability discourses and the expansion of vocational degrees such as journalism (Leitch, 2006, McCowan, 2015). Such contextual or ‘Mode Two’ forms of applied ‘problem-solving’ knowledge generation are socially distributed and transdisciplinary and have been encapsulated in the image of the triple helix of state, industry and university (Gibbons et al., 2015, Laredo, 2007). Clark (1998) identified the ‘entrepreneurial university’ to describe ideal institutions whose knowledge production and innovation activities are strategically aligned with the wider aims of government, business and consumer.

Massification of higher education further expands the scale and scope of knowledge production incorporating an ever-wider variety of actors and stakeholders. Boundaries between curriculum, research and knowledge transfer become increasingly porous with the emergence of ‘Mode Three’ knowledge in which clusters and networks of knowledge co-producers - including government, industry, academy civil and grassroots movements – work in ‘co-opetition’ on social and other problems (Carayannis, Campbell and Rehman, 2016). Here the university becomes a ‘zone of mediation’ acting as a site of interconnectivity with different parts of society bringing ‘expert and lay cultures’ into a state of effective communication (Delanty, 2001, p.150).

2.3.6 Summary

This section has sought to outline the renewed debate about the purpose of the modern university. By tracing the historical evolution of the institution, I have tried to provide a basis for demonstrating my understanding of some of the key concepts, language and landscapes which inform the study into community engaged activities within the academy. This has been set in the context of key trends such as massification and globalisation and the increasingly complex demands placed upon higher education institutions by policymakers, students and other stakeholders. The dismantlement of the ‘ivory tower’ of academe has accompanied demands for increasingly applied and ‘useful’
knowledge production. Central to these changes have been the impact of neoliberal ideology and new public management (NPM) techniques, the critique of which have provided an important factor in explaining the limitations and opportunities for an expanded societal role for the academy worldwide. These have been central features of the UK context in higher education with universities, it is argued, now embroiled in deeply contested aspects of wider social and cultural change.

2.4 Community engagement

This section will further explore the evolving relationship of the university with wider society particularly in terms of institutional ability or obligation to address perceived social issues. It will examine the different ways in which universities have sought to work with external communities and identify key tensions within those relationships. Acknowledging the inherent difficulties in defining the concept of community engagement, I will outline competing perspectives on the question of community itself before discussing the forces and structures driving and supporting global and national agendas in the field.

2.4.1 Addressing societal problems

Recent demands for engaging universities in the wider problems of civil society and neighbouring communities became evident in United States from the 1980s. Bok (1982, p.2) called for a new ‘moral basis of the university and the proper nature of its social responsibilities’. This extended the ethos of the US land grant institutions of the 19th century and 1920s Progressive idealism whilst responding to the campus upheavals of the 1960s (Fisher, Fabricant and Simmons, 2004). Significant within this were the application of active learning strategies developed in response to the demand for a more engaged scholarship and the emergence of a civically responsible academy which provided students with increased opportunities for hands-on learning experiences within their communities resolving ‘real-world problems’. (Benson, Harkavy and Puckett, 1996, p.202)

Such efforts to dismantle the ‘ivory tower’ of the university were advanced by Boyer (1997) and others who embraced the aim of universities taking a central role in tackling contemporary social issues such as urban poverty, racism and the environment. This ‘social justice model’ of community engagement has sought to address disadvantage, promote community empowerment, service learning, and widen participation amongst under-represented groups in education (Hazelkorn, 2016). The term ‘third mission’ similarly arose to describe this wider contribution to society alongside the primary and secondary ‘missions’ of teaching (and learning) and research (Millican and Bourner, 2011). However, the increasing requirement for universities to justify their cost to national taxpayers led to the continuing dominance of economic rather than social objectives as promoted by
policymakers on behalf of universities (Laredo, 2007). Thus, the role of ‘strengthening democratic values and civic engagement, addressing the needs of vulnerable social groups, contributing to cultural development, informing public policy and addressing large scale social challenges’ has remained less prominent (Farnell, 2020, p.13).

A range of external and internal factors including intractable ‘wicked issues’ have contributed to the continuing focus on economic rather than societal development (Benneworth, 2018a, p.35). These include a national policy focus on the promotion of the concept of knowledge economy, and the impacts of massification and globalisation which have challenged resources and reorientated institutions towards international competition for students and research talent (Slaughter and Leslie, 1999; Marginson, 2004). Internal challenges include institutional inertia, differences in disciplinary capabilities and contexts, as well as difficulties in developing appropriate metrics to assess impacts particularly in terms of social justice in the context of NPM and neo-liberal policy environments (Farnell, 2020). Despite such obstacles, universities have been seen to come under ‘increasing scrutiny as affluent institutions with resources to help affect larger societal issues’ (Fischer, Fabricant and Simmons, 2004, p.16). A contributing factor here is that well-resourced universities are historically located amidst some of the poorest urban communities and thus face pressure to become more supportive neighbours (Maurrasse, 2001).

Engagement with civil society has taken a myriad of forms in multiple dimensions across a variety of domains with many different levels of possible activity entailing sometimes competing aims, purposes and outcomes. Strier (2011, p.156) describes university-community partnerships as a:

‘... wide umbrella concept which may include community-based research projects, service-learning activities, community-university educational agencies shared programmes and even community-based training’.

Some partnerships may have political aims to mobilise disadvantaged communities and to influence government policy in relation to social justice (Mulroy, 2004; Cunningham, 2007; Strier, 2011). Friere’s (1990) notion of ‘conscientisation’ – the emergence of human criticality and authenticity through education – has been influential in this sub field, providing a blueprint for action that empowers populations to overcome repressive social structures. Here the teacher is the ‘humanist, revolutionary educator’ operating in partnership with students to unleash their latent creative power (Friere, 1990, p.49). Rancière (1991) further radically challenged socially constructed concepts of intelligence, debunking the ‘pedagogical myth’ and rejecting the notion of teacher as emancipator. Community organising across the world including the UK has been influenced by the work of Alinsky (1989) who
promoted a social change model based on political mobilisation for justice aims in deprived urban Chicago neighbourhoods (Fisher, Lawthom and Kagan, 2016).

Novel types of relationship between the university and communities have formed across divergent activities including education, health and employment, making the area a fertile ground in terms of funding and research possibilities (Miller and Hafner, 2011). Barnes et al. (2016, p.1) have called for interdisciplinary approaches in the field arguing that ‘social problems are not the provenance of any one discipline’. Expansion has spawned a cottage industry of often top-down research publications and associations (Lee, 2020) whilst new collaborative structures provide the opportunity for university leaders to ‘reinvigorate their academic missions’ and to counter political claims that they are ‘socially detached and academically irrelevant to the great social diseases of the age’ (Strier, 2011, p.82). Local communities may view the collaborative structures as ways to further instrumental agendas, whilst students and educators may regard them as meeting professional and wider pedagogic goals. Participation may, for example, improve employability, enabling students to develop marketable soft skills which are highly sought after in the modern knowledge economy (Gronski and Pigg, 2000).

Lee (2020) analysed university-community initiatives in the US identifying three categories: ‘incubators’ for developing wider civic participation; those that integrate participation into research and teaching through engaged pedagogy and others that act as a ‘hub’ for collaborations across their local communities. Academics working in the field have focused on the way that community university partnerships can establish ‘democratic spaces for knowledge exchange’ through concepts such as communities of practice (CoP) (Hart et al, 2013, p278). These are ‘learning partnership(s) among people who find it useful to learn from and with each other about a particular domain. They use each other’s experience of practice as a learning resource’ (Wenger, Trayner and de Laat, 2011, p.9).

Community university partnership working has been criticised on a variety of fronts. Whilst advocates argue it helps drive progressive change and advances the interests of the poorest communities, Millner and Hafner (2008) suggest that the dividends from such practices are not always equitably distributed between powerful academic institutions and the communities with whom they engage. Inauthentic dialogical transactions may be rooted in the failure to understand specific cultural-historical contexts and result in breakdowns in trust, conflict and even enduring animosity between university and community. Hart et al. (2013) warn of the danger of judging the success of collaboration in relation to funding or purely institutional goals rather than those originally envisaged by the engaged community.
Unequal and poorly rooted partnerships may foster conflict and animosity over the control of resources, values and aims. Gray (2004, p.166) identified ‘differential knowledge and experience, value clashes, historical mistrust, and frequent uncertainty about the viability of the proposed outcomes’ rendering collaboration across different cultures as highly problematic when there is conflict over values, aims and resources. Strier (2011, p.95) argues that although these ‘entangled perspectives’ between participants are a risk, issues may be negotiated through the ‘constant, on-going investment in increasing trust and face-to-face knowledge between partners’. A study of engaged activity with Canadian First Nations’ communities, it was found however, that cross cultural researchers were able to enter joint ‘ethical space’ concluding that both ‘scholars and communities have a shared responsibility to reduce inequities by engaging each other and being transformative’ (Kajner, Fletcher and Makokis, 2012, pp.267-268).

Fisher, Fabricant and Simmons (2004) have argued that rapidly accelerating ‘privatisation’ of social and economic life under neoliberalism has resulted in the ‘load-shedding’ of welfare and community provision onto volunteer, charity and community organisations such as universities. Taylor (2011) describes how the signature UK social policy project the Big Society, which was designed to promote active citizenship, was juxtaposed against economic austerity and deepening inequality. Bunyan (2015) has argued such that Third Way ‘partnership working’ in relation to urban regeneration has simply consolidated neo-liberal hegemony and entrenched inequalities whilst Garrett (2009) has identified how language in superficially progressive social initiatives in UK eliminated opposition through shallow and superficial discourses.

As universities found themselves facing renewed political, social and economic pressures in light of the global financial crisis Fitzgerald et al. (2016, p.8) warned against a temptation to disengagement to combat budget pressures, suggesting instead the need for a more comprehensive level of collaboration with communities that would ‘foster stronger support from multiple sources for the future of higher education and society’. Lee (2020, pp.1566-8) has argued that to succeed in the current political economic context these collaborations must be ‘intensive, reciprocal, deliberative and appreciative’ and not used as a promotional or public relations tool.

2.4.2 Defining community

Community, like education, is an essentially contested concept (Delanty, 2010). However, its use is pervasive in modern media, political and academic discourses, as well as policymaking, research and funding agendas. Community is now deployed as a prefix to activities ranging from medicine and policing, education to journalism. This has been criticised as a cynical and ideologically driven appropriation of the term in order to provide a veneer of progressive respectability to mask regressive
social programmes (Bryson and Mowbray, 2005). With ubiquity and disagreement comes definitional instability. Studdert and Walkerdine (2016, p.3) describe an ensuing theoretical deadlock around the term community suggesting a

‘... word routinely described in the academy both as confused and equally routinely, by many academics as “theoretically worthless”... a tricky concept, ambiguous, incapable of agreement, permeated with value judgments, contradictorily, emotionally powerful yet somehow incapable of social science encapsulation.’

Hobsbawn (2011, p.428) argued that the term was used ‘indiscriminately and emptily’ due to the loss of ‘real’ communities in modernity. Giddens (1998, p.124) meanwhile warned that calls for community revival resonated across the political spectrum because of a pervasive fear of imminent ‘social disintegration’. The sense of something lost or nostalgic was similarly expressed by Bauman (2001, p.144) who argued that we ‘miss community because we miss security’ and that the appeal of the concept lay in its emotional salience - affording a safe psychological harbour for the individual in a world characterised by disruption and uncertainty. This enduring idea of community as a paradise lost to the forces of modernity is exemplified in the work of Tönnies. The pre-industrial social system of communal society is here seen as one based on personal relations, emotion and sentiment arising from face-to-face connections (Gemeinschaft). Advanced industrial societies, by contrast, contain complex bureaucratic and rational structures in which relations are indirect and politically, legally or economically framed (Gesellschaft) (Tönnies and Harris 2001).

Community may also be seen as a dynamic process in which individuals ‘confirm ourselves to ourselves through the presence of other people’ (Arendt, 1958, p.95) rather than a set of simple descriptors based on location or the particularities of the needs and common claims of interest groups. Philosophical and political opposition to notions of community have developed in the libertarian tradition and influenced a range of conservative thinkers and policy makers in the West (Etzioni, 2014). Liberalism is here seen as antipathetic to notions of strong community because it challenges the primacy of individual freedom (Bernstein and Cochrane, 2011). Nozick (1974, pp.32-33) argues that ‘there is no social entity with a good that undergoes some sacrifice for its own good. There are only individual people, different individual people, with their own individual lives.’

Communitarian political philosophy emerged as a critique of liberalism and moral relativism, emphasising the existence of a common good and state intervention to promote progressive social goals (Etzioni, 2014). These ideas found political support in the political programmes in a range of Western democracies in the 1990s including the US and the UK (ibid.).
Delanty (2003) identifies four broad positions within the literature on community:

- Communities as disadvantaged groups, often requiring support or assistance from government or other more powerful sectors of society such as universities.
- Communities as groups with shared understandings of belonging and identity.
- Community as the basis of (national) political consciousness and collective action.
- Postmodern, cosmopolitan communities, driven by technology and globalisation.

In conclusion, whilst there is no fixed definition of community, there are a number of common characteristics within the literature which have informed my thinking in this project. Communities are complex, historical social structures which comprise collections of people as opposed to organisations or institutions – although these may exist both formally and informally to support the wider needs and aims of specific communities. Communities are connected by a sense of shared understanding, experience and identity. However, individuals may exist in multiple ‘nested’ communities, as citizens, employees or through individual characteristics such as faith, sexuality, ability, profession, interest etc. (Chavis and Lee, 2015). These shared characteristics may occur across different geo-spatial contexts whilst providing the basis for collective social action, in the case of this project, through their ability to interact with higher education institutions in meaningful and fruitful co-operative practices with mutual benefits for both parties (Benneworth, 2018a, p.28).

2.4.3 Emerging agendas in community engagement

Initiatives at international, national, institutional and individual level have led to the increased prominence of the community engagement agenda in recent decades. These moves have been described as either ‘top down’ through policymaking initiatives to promote the contribution and understanding that universities make to society; or ‘bottom up’ via institutional networks and other stakeholder activities designed to support community engagement (Farnell, 2020 p 15).

At an international level, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) identified a ‘new dynamic’ confronting universities from the late 1970s requiring institutions to respond to the economic, social and cultural needs of society and communities (Berger and Duguet, 1982). Follow up reports urged stronger regional engagement dimensions in teaching, research and community service (OECD, 2007) and more effective frameworks to support funding and measurement activities in this field (OECD, 2019). The United Nations, through UNESCO highlighted the wider societal role of the university, in tackling a range of global issues:
‘... higher education has the social responsibility to advance our understanding of multifaceted issues, which involve social, economic, scientific and cultural dimensions and our ability to respond to them. It should lead society in generating global knowledge to address global challenges, inter alia food security, climate change, water management, intercultural dialogue, renewable energy and public health.’ (UNESCO, 2011)

The European Union’s influence over national higher education was formalised in the Bologna Process and Lisbon Treaty which gave universities a leading role supporting the continent’s economic growth strategy through research (Keeling, 2006). The EU’s agenda was driven by evidence, metrics and a ‘what works’ approach to guaranteeing quality in national sectors as well as strengthening collaboration efforts between member states, universities and business. The focus widened in 2017 to promote lifelong-learning, skills and engagement with voluntary and community sectors as well as confronting social and democratic divides. The European Commission argued that higher education institutions could no longer be ‘ivory towers, but civic-minded learning communities connected to their communities’ (European Commission, 2017, p.6). The following year an EU and Erasmus+ initiative was established to develop policy tools that enabled support and the effective monitoring of community engagement practice within the EU and which led to the creation of the multi-dimensional TEFCE framework used in this research project (Benneworth 2018a, p.9).

The historical antecedents and contemporary practices of community engagement have been identified in national systems across North America, South America, Australia and Europe (Farnell, 2020). The Talloires Network, an international coalition of higher education institutions spanning 85 countries, was founded in 2005 on a vision that universities should be ‘anchor’ institutions to their communities and societies whilst civic engagement and community service were inextricable from research, teaching and learning missions of HE institutions (Cavalcanti and Ching, 2017, p.8). The Global Alliance on Community Engaged Research (GACER) brought together scholars and practitioners from the Global North and South whilst the UNESCO-affiliated Global University Network for Innovation sought to foster ‘public service, relevance, social responsibility and innovation’ (GuNI, 2022). The Living Knowledge Network, meanwhile, promotes transformative social change through community engaged projects and science shops (Living Knowledge Network, no date) In the United States networks of universities and colleges have been built through Campus Compact (Campus Compact, no date) whilst the Carnegie Foundation’s Elective Classification for Community Engagement affords formal recognition for institutional community engagement. (Carnegie Foundation, no date).
2.4.4 Community engagement in the UK

Brexit dramatically interrupted UK integration with European HE systems - signalling the withdrawal from high profile projects promoting student and staff mobilities, such as Erasmus+, and created uncertainty over future research associations such as Horizon Europe with its emphasis on meeting global grand challenges as well as on culture, creativity and inclusivity (Marginson and Papatsiba, 2020). It is unclear what effects the UK’s new status will have in terms of the EU’s community engagement agenda although it remains part of the European Higher Education Area suggesting the possibility of ongoing co-operation (Kushnir, 2022). It has been claimed that the UK has ‘arguably led the way in Europe in terms of developing policies to support universities’ contribution to societal needs’ (Farnell, 2020, p.17). The antecedents of contemporary community engagement in the UK can be found in the term ‘civic’ engagement which is widely used in literature, practice and policy and has become synonymous with community engagement (ibid.). ‘Civic’ can be understood to refer to a still evident relationship between British universities and local citizens and the place or city in which institutions are located. The civic tradition in UK universities may be traced to the 19th century establishment of local university colleges in the North and Midlands which privileged practical engagement with local industry as the primary feature of their mission (Vallance, 2016).

The decline of the civic mission in UK universities coincided with greater integration of universities into a national funding system and increasing political and economic centralisation which diminished the status of provincial industrial centres. The growing dominance of an institutional model based on Oxbridge coincided with the post-1945 growth in opportunities for graduates brought on by tertiary level expansion to meet the needs of professions such as law and teaching (Barnes, 1996; Schwarz, 2004). ‘Plate-glass’ universities in the 1960s following the Robbins Report further dislocated institutions from their immediate communities with students recruited nationally and the establishment of a distinctive student residential lifestyle experience. The development of technical colleges and polytechnics in the 20th century mirrored higher educational expansion across Europe with the establishment of institutions with strong regional ties particularly in relation to skill provision and employability (Vallance, 2016). The abolition of the binary system in the UK in 1992 saw institutions such as the former polytechnics further weaken local ties whilst seeking to mirror the high-status research activities of the universities (ibid.).

Numerous structures exist to support engagement in the UK. The NCCPE was established in 2008 as a co-ordinating centre on behalf of the now defunct Higher Educational Funding Council for England (HEFCE). This project was designed to create a ‘culture within UK higher education where public engagement is formalised and embedded as a valued and recognised activity for staff at all levels, and for students’ (NCCPE, no date). Since 2011 it has continued to support public engagement
practices through initiatives such as the Engage Watermark or the Edge tool for self-assessment. The Concordat for Engaging the Public with Research (CEPR, 2020) established a set of principles for researchers in the UK designed to sustain high quality public engagement including open-access festivals, lectures as well as collaborations with museums and galleries. Meanwhile, the Civic University Network seeks to support UK universities to drive place-based societal change and strengthen their roles within their individual geographic setting.

Examples of individual institutional initiatives include:

- The University of Lincoln’s Permeable University, described as a ‘manifesto to reposition the university as a servant of 21st century social challenges’
- Brighton University’s Community University Partnership Programme which benefits from institutional funding and supports a network of scholarship and practice.
- Converge: a collaborative programme between York St John University and the NHS providing high quality education courses for local people with mental health problems (See Rowe, 2015)

Yet whilst support for greater levels of community engagement has grown, popular understanding of this mission has yet to catch up. The NCCPE recently reported that:

‘(T)he current policy environment is demanding a greater focus on societal impact, on addressing inequality and accountability, to both funders and wider society. Universities cannot take for granted that their value is either understood or appreciated by large sections of society’ (NCCPE, 2020, p.2).

2.4.5 Summary

In conclusion, community engagement in this thesis refers explicitly to relationships between higher education institutions, notably universities, in the UK, and their external communities (Koekkoek, Ham and Kleinhans, 2021). I have adopted Benneworth’s (2018a) description of the practice of community engagement as a process whereby universities undertake joint activities that can be mutually beneficial with these external communities even if each side benefits in a different way (see also Boyer, 1996). Engagement also includes a spatial dimension, in that universities may interact with collaborative partners across different geo-spatial contexts seeking to bring about improvements to the wider cultural, social and economic infrastructure of society. This may occur in the immediate geographic proximity of the academy as well as further afield. (Munck, 2010). For the purposes of this project, therefore, community engagement has been defined as a complex, diverse and context-specific range of activities occurring across the dimensions of research, learning and teaching, knowledge exchange, student activities and
institutional policy and practice which support collaboration between groups of people and their representative organisations or institutions with the intended aim of producing a public good of socially valuable and desirable outcomes.

The emergence of the concept of community engagement in the academy and the subsequent rise of global policy agendas designed to support it has occurred despite the underlying and continuing primacy of national economic imperatives pursued by governments. However, whilst definitional and institutional difficulties have exacerbated the Cinderella-status of community engagement, there is growing demand, both globally and in the UK to advance the role played by the academy in addressing societal problems too. This is represented in the expansion in the number and type of initiatives at international, national and local level, as well as increased scholarship and practice. Internal changes in the UK, brought about in part by political uncertainty, but also driven by criticism of the measures, instruments and motivations underpinning the agenda from within the university have combined with continuing public ambivalence and may present continuing obstacles to deeper and more authentic engagement with societal problems.

2.5 Journalism and the academy

This section will explore a body of literature in relation to the third field of inquiry informing this project. It examines the different contexts and competing perspectives on the question of what can be understood as journalism in terms of its associated practices, academic discipline and professional identities or ideologies. The second part will explore tensions in the relationship between journalism and society, particularly journalism’s historic and current contribution to democracy and public understanding. I will then discuss the range of technological, socio-cultural and epistemological challenges which have generated a sense of ‘crisis’ within the field which has acted as motivation for this project. The final part will provide a springboard for the study itself by analysing competing perspectives on journalism education, teaching, research and community engaged practices.

2.5.1 Journalism practices and ideology

Scholars and practitioners have sought to highlight a sense of cohesiveness around what journalism is and how it should be conceived. These may stress a uniformity of purpose and consensus about journalism’s core practices, its theories, methods, technologies and values. Dahlgren (1992, pp.1-2) has described attempts to stamp ‘apparent unity’ on the contradictions, controversies and dilemmas which affect journalism as an ‘understandable tendency’ for those engaged in a field who seek to ‘maintain discursive control over such turmoil’. Journalists themselves understand and explain their work in a variety of different ways. Zelizer (2017) for example, identifies six ‘metaphors’ evident
in professional accounts of practice. Central to these is the notion of news and individual newsgathering skills with the privileging of professional competencies including objectivity and exclusivity, storytelling and an overarching sense of journalistic ‘mission’. Deuze (2005) concludes that journalism can be best defined by a common professional ideology, readily identifiable by those working in the field, which valorises the acts of discovery and public truth telling.

Journalism embodies distinctive news work routines aligned to the requirements of news industries and the understanding of an established productive role within society. Principal to these is the notion of ‘gatekeeper’ of publicly important information (Tuchman, 1973; Gans, 2005 and Usher, 2017). Journalism therefore encapsulates a set of practices or skills centering on the creation of news and information in different and changing media forms and its wider dissemination to public audiences (Harcup, 2015). Journalistic practices have developed in response to specific historical, economic, or technological conditions giving rise to different forms and platform-specific practices such as TV, radio, print or online. The growing repertoire of the modern journalist now extends to blogging, social media influencing and commentary (ibid.).

2.5.2 Journalism and society

Traditional journalism histories stress an entanglement with the notion of modernity. Hartley (1996, p.12) describes the ‘primary sense-making vehicle of modernity’ whilst Conboy (2004) locates the linguistic origins of the term journalism to the mid-1830s, although argues that its practices and traditions were established as early as the 16th century. McLuhan (2001) identifies the emergence of a distinctive early modern ‘print culture’ - disseminating new ideas and disrupting established relationships between existing forms of authority, time, space and language. Printed material facilitated psychologically discrete ‘imagined communities’ united in their consumption of written or visual content (Anderson, 2016).

Habermas (2015, p.181) describes the press in this period as ‘the preeminent institution of the public sphere’ – the historically contingent area between state and civil society, comprising autonomous organisations, movements and associations, where public discussion can take place and in which opinion and ideas are formed and exchanged (Fleming and Murphy, 2010). Williams (2011) privileges the primary role played by popular newspapers and journals from the late 17th century in the democratic expansion that accompanied widespread literacy and universal education in the ‘long revolution’ of English culture and society. The belief in the necessary and symbiotic relationship between journalism and democracy persists in the notion that a free press is inimical to liberal democratic expansion. It is exemplified in terms such as Fourth Estate and enshrined in legal instruments such as the United States’ First Amendment to the Bill of Rights, Article 19 of the Universal
Declaration of Human Rights and Article 10 of the European Convention on Human Rights (Zelizer, 2017). Schudson (2020) positions journalism as the public watchdog at the centre of a democratic market society and purveyor of an irreplaceable public good. The concept of the public sphere generates the potential for social transformation and human emancipation and so mirrors the democratic mission of certain forms of educative practice (Calhoun, 1992; Fleming and Murphy, 2010).

Traditional histories of the press have been subject to growing critical challenge. Curran and Seaton (2018, p.8) dismiss much (journalist-written) historiography of the field as little more than ‘persuasive mythology’. Studies of journalism have typically focused on single nations with the English-speaking world dominating the literature (Hanusch and Hanitzsch, 2017). The development of many national media arose to serve the needs of international and imperial rather than domestic audiences with profound implications for the emergence of authentic global journalistic diversity (Boyd-Barrett, 2015). Journalism studies is subject to but has proved largely resistant to challenges posed by critical race theory or attempts to decolonise, de-hegemonise and de-Westernise the field of study (Shome, 2000; Weaver and Willnat, 2012). Papoutsaki (2007, p.86) identifies this impasse as presenting an imperative for action and has called for:

‘... a re-focus of present journalism research conceptualisation and educational practices in order to give greater consideration to the Chinese-ness or Indian-ness or Arabic-ness/Islamic-ness or Pacific-ness, for example, of social phenomena and human behaviour as expressed in modern communication practices.’

Journalists and the media companies that employed them were integral to the development of national and global capitalism. UK histories of journalism extol the influence of 20th century press barons (Williams, 2010). Finding themselves in the vanguard of technological and social changes, newspaper industry owners were able to establish independent political power bases to promote personal ambition whilst claiming a form of democratic legitimation through their newspapers (Curran and Seaton, 2018). Murdock and Golding (1973, p.205) suggest ‘mass media are first and foremost industrial and commercial organisations which produce and distribute commodities’. Herman and Chomsky (2002) warned such companies were responsible for ‘manufacturing consent’ for global capitalism and justifying inequalities. Gramsci, himself a journalist, described the notion of hegemony whereby journalism could create ‘spontaneous consent given by the great masses of the population to the general direction imposed on social life by the dominant fundamental group’ (Gramsci, Hoare and Nowell-Smith, 1971, p.72). Habermas described in similar terms the colonisation of the life-world – whereby everyday practices are subordinated to the needs of capitalism, money and power, resulting in the demise of the genuine public sphere (Fleming and Murphy, 2010).
The intensification of economic competition in media – particularly newspaper markets – has been demonstrated by phenomena such as ‘celebrification’, ‘tabloidisation’ and ‘infotainment’ as alternatives to socially useful news production (Franklin, 1997; Allan, 2010; Marshall, 2014). Squeezed editorial budgets and the growing power of the public relations industry later spawned the notion of ‘churnalism’ (Davies, 2008). Discussion of the ‘moral decline’ of journalism practice in the UK preceded the hacking scandals of the early 21st century whilst questions of ownership and journalistic conduct informed the remits of three Royal Commissions into the condition of the British Press (Curran and Seaton, 2018, p.188).

Twentieth and early 21st century critiques of journalism notably in the field of cultural studies, have examined the role of language and power in journalism. Critical studies from the 1960s onwards explored concepts around the construction of deviance (Cohen, 2011; Hall, Critcher and Jefferson, 2019) and the formulation of the ‘Other’ (MacLure, 2003) through the operation of discourse in media texts. News production has been conceived of as a particularly potent discourse – a ‘refracturing, structuring medium’ capable of constructing a particular world view (Fowler, 1991, p.10). Media texts and journalistic practices can be read through a framework of critical discourse analysis to reveal implicit ideological claims or silences that legitimate patterns of inequality and domination in society (Fairclough, 1995, Van Dijk, 1983).

More recently, critical analysis of the political economy of media has come to focus on the impact of the giant digital companies and new methods of collaborative information or data sharing. Fuchs’ (2014) describes the emergence on the internet of a ‘surveillance-industrial complex’ dominated by global platforms and corporate interests. Here journalistic content is intensively commodified to sell advertising and journalistic forms of work are exploited as free labour by social media companies, for example. Again, the public sphere is degraded, becoming primarily an arena for commercial exploitation, ideological and physical control rather than a democratic forum of rational-critical debate (Calhoun, 1992, p 9).

2.5.3 Journalism in ‘crisis’

Journalism’s entanglement with concepts of rationality, objectivity, universality and liberal progress has created an enduring association between the practice of journalism and its role in promoting an ‘optimum public life’ (Zelizer, 2013, p 463). The paradigmatic shift in the 20th century has disrupted this relationship with the emergence of concepts of ‘late’, ‘information’ or ‘post-industrial’ modes of capitalism to describe the contemporary or post-modern configuration of social and economic relationships in the developed world (Bell, 1991; Castells, 1996; Jameson, 2007). Giddens (1999) and Beck (1999) have described a period of late modernity characterised by
uncertainty, risk and reflexivity. This theme is reflected in the work of Bauman (2019, p.1) who evokes a state of ‘liquid modernity’ in which a society ‘cannot keep its shape or stay on course for long.’ This concept of liquidity has been applied to journalism. Deuze (2007) argues that it calls for a rethinking of journalistic culture and ideology. For example, liquid modernity elicits profound changes in the occupational characteristics of journalism such as the growth of freelance work, multiskilling and precarious employment. More significant, perhaps, is the epistemological claim that postmodernity’s ‘embrace of relativity, subjectivity and engagement’ has produced a ‘fundamental ambivalence about journalism’s foundational reverence for facts, truth and reality’ (Zelizer, 2017, p.142). Wahl-Jorgensen (2016, p.18) identifies the ‘post-modern turn’ in journalism whereby digital technologies have undermined the boundaries between journalists and the public rendering journalism ‘one of many voices’ rather than a ‘privileged provider of truth’. This is exemplified in contemporary concerns over ‘fake news’ and the internet’s amplification of conspiracy theories (McNair, 2017).

For the journalist, the emergence of terms such as user-generated content, citizen journalism and journalistic free labour or ‘playbour’ and the ubiquity of digital platforms attest to the far-reaching impacts of new technological forces (Fuchs, 2014). Processes of convergence have brought unprecedented changes to the production, form, content and consumption of journalism. These trends and technologies are held responsible for the fragmentation of mass news audiences and the deritualisation of news consumption - particularly amongst the young where news avoidance is increasingly pronounced (Newman et al., 2022). This has heralded claims of imminent collapse in the mass production business model of journalism, premised on sales revenues and advertising, bringing about irreversible structural change to industrial journalism (Peters, 2012, p.30; Bell, 2021). UK governmental concerns over the sustainability and diversity of journalism and its democratic impact in the UK and have led to calls for the enhanced state regulation of digital platforms and the education of audiences through media literacy initiatives (Cairncross Review, 2019). The situation has been accelerated by the Covid-19 pandemic with the further decline in newspaper print circulations, (Communications and Digital Committee, 2020).

The proliferation of user generated applications including social media networking sites, blogs, wikies and file sharing sites propelled what McNair (2013, p.78) has described as the ‘economic, cultural and existential crises of journalism’ – a condition characterised by the dissolution of boundaries in the fields of journalistic production and consumption. Yet whilst few downplay the challenges facing contemporary journalism, Tunstall (2002) has described how the perception of crisis and decline has permeated the journalistic profession for more than a century. Zelizer (2015, p.889) has warned that invoking the concept of crisis to explain the current state of uncertainty within the
field ‘misses an opportunity to recognise how contingent and differentiated the futures of journalism might be.’

More optimistic accounts of journalism’s role in participatory democracies in the digital age stress the democratic opportunities of technology. Jarvis’s (2006) notion of ‘networked’ journalism arose out of the concept of ‘citizen journalism’ describing an encounter in which professional journalists work alongside unpaid citizens to discover and promote publicly valuable news and information. Shirky (2009) and Rosen and Mandiberg (2012) argued that the advent of new communication tools could revolutionise and democratise global society. Jenkins, Ford and Green (2013) employed the term participatory culture and media to describe this new technologically enabled democratic public sphere in which barriers to civic engagement are dramatically reduced. Romano (2015, p.209) argues that the ‘processes and products of journalism’ can still empower communities and ‘are vital for understanding root causes of problems, weighing up competing claims, forming networks around shared concerns, reaching decisions and undertaking action.’

Alternative, community or even radical media offers a parallel history to that of the industrial mainstream. Harcup (2016, p.12) describes this form of media as an ‘alternative public sphere in which groups and individuals on the margins of mainstream culture and media can form communities of interest within which they can communicate and debate issues of mutual interest.’ This might involve the participation of private citizens with no formal journalistic training as well as activists and campaigners. Other radical and emancipatory forms of community-based journalism have emerged both within and outside the academy. ‘Engagement’ journalism (Brown, 2015) – now a masters’ programme of study at the City University of New York (CUNY), puts ‘community needs at the centre’ of its work and seeks to offer a ‘sustainable and equitable future for news’. ‘Movement’ journalism is a form that ‘meets the needs of communities directly affected by injustice’ (Vasquez, 2020). The media collective Press On for example, collaborates with local storytellers and activists to generate ‘journalism in the service of liberation’ addressing issues raised by marginalised groups. This has cast a new focus on the desirability or otherwise of the notion of journalistic objectivity to protect public journalism with claims that journalists themselves can no longer stand aside from the injustices of their subject or the needs of their audience (Wallace, 2019). It echoes Bell’s (1998) call for a ‘journalism of attachment’ in which the journalist adopts a more reflexive approach in their role as moral witness. Solutions journalism, meanwhile, has generated a network of practitioners affording an antidote to conflict-based news reporting by incorporating potential responses to the problems covered with the intention of eliciting a less psychologically anxious response from audiences (McIntrye, 2019).
2.5.4 Journalism education

Undergraduate and postgraduate journalism programmes are offered at a wide variety of further education colleges, universities and private providers in the UK (Frost, 2017). London University delivered the first diploma in journalism in 1919 although industry took over the ‘training’ function of journalists following the 1947-9 Royal Commission. This led to the founding of the National Council for the Training of Journalists (NCTJ) which along with the Broadcast Journalism Training Council (BJTC) provide accreditation at around 30% of university journalism programmes (Canter, 2015).

Traditional hostility to graduates – particularly journalism graduates – was a longstanding feature of the UK journalism industry, notably in the provincial press, which favoured school leavers to undergo bespoke training on industry-sponsored short college courses (Berger and Foote, 2017). The range of journalism courses increased from the 1980s following the withdrawal of government funding for industry training. Postgraduate conversion courses became popular with graduates seeking to enter the industry followed by undergraduate programmes which took root predominantly in post-92 former polytechnics (Frost, 2017). The number of journalism students at UK universities underwent ‘explosive growth’ between 1994/5-2004/5 – rising from 415 to 2,035 full time students (Hannah and Sanders, 2007, p.404). This mirrored a similar expansion in other countries at the same time (Splichal and Sparks, 1994). The University College and Admissions Service (UCAS) is a private company which operates application processes for British higher education institutions. In 2022 (when this study was conducted) it offered 604 undergraduate journalism-related degree courses at 104 providers taking in subjects as diverse as Creative Writing, Photography and Marketing alongside Sports Journalism, Multimedia Journalism and Journalism and Media Studies (UCAS, 2022). Journalism is now established as a graduate occupation with 90 per cent of professional practitioners educated to degree level (NCTJ, 2018). Universities and colleges now dominate journalism education although alternative and private sector providers offer a wide range of digital and other learning opportunities in an increasingly competitive marketplace (Berger and Foote, 2017). The growth in journalism programmes in the UK has paradoxically coincided with deteriorating employment prospects for journalists and has led to growing pressures on student recruitment at some institutions (Canter, 2015).

Modern journalism practice is now seen as an autonomous field of study across the world with similar challenges and dilemmas (Deuze, 2006, p.19). Recent decades have witnessed international efforts to bring together journalism educators, enhance the quality of journalism practice and to improve the skills of media practitioners and researchers internationally (Gaunt, 1992). UNESCO sought to promote greater media pluralism in the global south in the early 1980s culminating
in the establishment of the global network for journalism and media education, JourNet in 1999 (Morgan, 2001). The growth of specialist national and international journals has been accompanied by the emergence of scholarly networks, associations and conferences, and the development of a wide-ranging literature examining both theoretical and practical journalism issues. Diversity of provision has been accompanied by a growing internationalisation of delivery. However, critics of the dominant Western model of journalism education have criticised the didactic nature of much journalistic teaching and curriculum, such as its emphasis on professionalism and competency frameworks, arguing these embody regressive and repressive colonial attitudes and structures. In the Global South, educators have inherited a legacy of training and education practices bequeathed by colonist governments and agencies which they must adapt to widely varying economic and political contexts (Skjerdal and Ngugi, 2007). In South Asia, Ullah (2013, p.189) has described how:

‘Bangladeshi journalism educators follow the Anglo-American curriculum model without any rigorous examination of its suitability in the local context. This model incorporates the normative values of journalism in the name of universality.’

Academic journalism has on the one hand been criticised as a ‘soft discipline’ – lacking clear boundaries and theoretical frameworks, whilst on the other it is promoted as an ‘applied’ subject allied to a professional body of knowledge and expertise (Zelizer, 2004; Mensing, 2010). This brings industry demands for more concentrated journalistic vocational training into conflict with the critical liberal arts and research-based curriculum (Frost, 2017). Zelizer (2017, p.114) describes tensions as resulting from ‘parallel universes’ inhabited by competing interpretive communities in a field which includes journalists, educators, scholars, students, university managers and the public. This dissonance is illustrated by UK journalism educators’ desire to distance the subject from media or cultural studies which is heavily criticised in sections of the Press and some politicians (Barker, 2000). Sociological and cultural accounts of journalism have often been highly critical of journalism practices, texts and ownership, problematising questions of media representation, discourse and political economy. Radical forms of academic ‘oppositional practice’ have been described as politically motivated designed to bring about wider democratic social change and justice (Ferguson, 1994 pp. 5-6). Policy discourses, meanwhile, have formed around the notion of ‘creative industries’ with an emphasis on the reproduction of technical skills, including those of journalists, to meet the needs of the national knowledge economy (Garnham, 2005). This has manifested in funding strategies, for example, the Arts and Humanities Research Council (AHRC) which provided £120m to drive ‘creative’ clusters involving universities, industry and government in specified geographical regions (UKRI, 2022a).
The professional identity of many journalism academics in the UK is therefore a conflicted one with the recruitment of many former professional journalists into universities to deliver the expanded number of programmes – so called ‘hackacademics’ (Harcup, 2011). Bromley (2014) identifies resistance to research and scholarly publication in many journalism departments as the result of hackacademics’ ‘residual romanticism’ of heroic forms of creative journalism practice. However, some leading media businesses continue to fund journalism research notably Oxford University’s Reuters Institute for the Study of Journalism, the Knight Foundation in the US as well as Google Digital Fellowships.

Zelizer (2004) concedes there are ‘existential’ questions about the very future of journalism as an academic discipline. In the US, where wide scale university-based journalism education pre-dates that of the UK, the ‘J-School debate’ is unresolved (Camp, 2012). Even before the rise of web 2.0 or social media, journalism education was identified as a ‘candidate for elimination’ from the academy due to the cost of programme delivery and the declining number of graduate jobs available (Fedler, Carey and Counts, 1998). However, journalism academics may also be seen as:

‘…uniquely positioned to act as agents for greater collaboration between academic departments and disciplines across the university … Journalism can provide a truly big tent under which varied disciplines inform communities while preparing students for the intellectual agility and collaborative skills that are the linchpins of 21st century workplaces and economics’ (Franciso, Lenhoff and Schudson, 2012, p.2690).

2.5.5 Journalism education and society

Whilst some evidence suggests that the journalism retains its reputation as an unconventional, sociable and interesting graduate pathway (Hanna and Sanders, 2007), declining interest in news and the marginalisation of professional journalism in public communication has raised important questions for journalism education, threatening its future watchdog role as well as its relevance to potential students as a democratically informed discipline (Donsbach, 2014). Concerns over diversity amongst the population of journalists in the UK predates Black Lives Matter and #Metoo movements (for example Harker, 2012 and Creedon and Cramer, 2006). The Sutton Trust and the Mobility Commission (2019) identified significant over-representation of privately and Oxbridge educated individuals working as senior journalists, particularly newspaper columnists, in the UK media. A recent workforce survey found that ‘journalism remains an occupation where social class affects the likelihood of entering the profession’ (NCTJ, 2018). Transformation of the media landscape has resulted in profound changes both to the practice of journalism and to its audiences. Donsbach (2014) envisages a new ‘knowledge profession’ with an enhanced societal role in response to the explosion of information through technology and the social atomisation this brings. Digital communication threatens communities which are ‘at risk of falling apart and splitting into many
different units – each of which have their own reality, but very little shared reality and therefore lack
the capability to communicate with each other’ (ibid., p. 668). And although the core functions of
‘traditional journalism’ remain intact – such as accurately reporting and reflecting reality and building
a trusted social consensus – journalism now requires a different range of skills and competences. This
has implications for journalism education. Solkin’s (2022) landmark review of 20 years of journalism
education literature identifies three broad approaches to the discipline:

- A ‘standard model’ which draws most heavily on the professional background of journalism
  educators themselves, the so-called hackademic, privileging normative historical accounts of
  journalism history and practice favoured by industry.
- A less static conception of the discipline which acknowledges the changing technological and
  financial context of journalism within an increasingly globalised marketplace for news. This
  reformist approach seeks to modify rather than transform the standard model.
- Finally, a radical approach, which synthesises critique of the standard model of industrial
  journalism and its claims to democratic legitimacy with learning theories and approaches
  from cultural, media and anticolonial studies.

The third model suggests a pivot away from current professional modes of teaching and
learning and the embrace of communicative approaches to journalism education which ‘reconnect
journalism to its democratic roots and take advantage of new forms of news creation, production,
editing and distribution’ (Mensing, 2010, p.512). This echoes Dewey’s problematisation of vocational
education as the rejection of a process of ‘adapt(ing) workers to the existing industrial regime’ and
which denies students the right to be ‘masters (sic) of their own industrial fate’ (quoted in Carr and
Hartnett, 1996, p.64). In a study of deliberative pedagogy initiatives in journalism education in the US,
Australia, New Zealand and South Africa, Romano (2015, p.153) identified a range of benefits to the
third model including enhanced employability with students able to ‘apply skills in real world settings,
broaden their knowledge, deepen their expertise, meet new contacts and mentors and build a
portfolio of practical work to showcase to potential employers.’

2.5.6 Summary

Journalism is a complex social and cultural phenomenon embodying different practices,
histories and ideologies. Technological transformation has challenged the traditional business model
of journalism and the democratic rationale which underpinned journalistic expansion in modernity
amid an increasingly degraded public sphere. Meanwhile, journalism’s historically uneasy position
within the academy has come under challenge, epistemologically through the post-modern or de-
colonising turns, but also over its ability to deliver skilled workers into the global knowledge economy.
idealised by policy makers. This has led to calls for new ways to imagine the future of journalism within the academy such as through greater and more authentic community engagement.

2.5.7 Conclusion

This research presents a unique synthesis of three expansive bodies of literature. My motivation for conducting this project arose from my experience as a ‘hackademic’ – a professional journalist now working in an academic context (Harcup, 2011). This created an ethical imperative to engage with an area of concern that was affecting me – and most likely many others - as an educational practitioner and journalist (Sikes, 2015) whilst affording the opportunity to undertake a process of ‘systematic self-critical inquiry’ (Stenhouse, 1981) in pursuit of the EdD. This emerged initially from my teaching practice but was brought into focus through exploration of the literatures described above. The challenge faced was best described by Zelizer (2017) who called for the need to respond with ‘imagination’ to the threats and opportunities facing professional journalism in the wake of a dramatically changed context and landscape. Parallels can be observed between the challenges faced by journalism and those confronting the academy. These include altered political, technological and epistemological contexts but also the cultural and policy environments within which the respective fields must operate (Scott, 2022; Wahl-Jorgensen, 2016). Common ground in terms of responding to these threats was identified initially through Dewey’s (2022) notion of democratic education and the concept of the public sphere (Habermas, 2015). Here both educative and journalistic missions are concerned with the promotion of social and political consensus through the creation and dissemination of reputable knowledge and the call to ethical social action (Fleming, 2010).

Community engagement affords an appropriate lens to explore these commonalities further - providing an opportunity for new ways of doing journalism and for the academy to demonstrate its relevance by responding to challenges through collaboration with external community partners (Farnell, 2020). The emerging policy agenda and analytical frameworks in this field suggest both the potential to find possible solutions for the lingering concerns over the relevance of journalism as a university discipline aligned to wider concerns over the future of the academy itself. The research thus provides a potentially valuable resource primarily for journalism education practitioners seeking to diversify their practice but also university managers, policymakers and community groups seeking to find new ways of working together for mutual benefit.
Chapter Three: Methodology

3.1 Introduction:

This chapter will lay out the methodology and methods that I have used to carry out the study and address the research questions. The first section will describe the aims and objectives of the project, provide definitions of some of the key terms used in the research and explain my own positionality and motivations for carrying out the study. The second section will outline my philosophical approach or worldview and explain my reasoning in adopting a mixed and multi-methods approach informed by critical realism. This section provided details of ethical considerations and procedures. The third section will explore the multi-phased research design, explaining my choices informing the multiple methods and instruments used whilst the fourth section provides further detail on the sampling techniques for the documents and human participants. The fifth section describes the construction of the multi-dimensional framework and my approach to data analysis.

3.1.1 Positionality

The motivation for carrying out this project was a result of my professional experience as a journalist turned academic and the ethical contradictions that became apparent as I transitioned between industry and university. Most striking of these was the realisation that my academic practice should be authentically informed by my professional experience whilst still meeting the needs of students who would, most likely, never work in the well-paid journalistic field I had proudly – and successfully - inhabited for the past 20 years. During my journalism career I had worked as a writer and senior editor at the national news agency The Press Association, The Times and the Daily Express and, for 14 years prior to joining the academy, The Independent. This located me firmly as a ‘hackademic’ and so subject to the full range of tensions and contradictions associated with this composite professional identity and role previously described (Harcup, 2011). This created an ethical and critical imperative for me described eloquently by Sikes (2015) as akin to being ‘hijacked’ by ‘research that needs to be done’. Sikes, quoting C. Wright Mills, has argued for the need for personal engagement with issues that arise out of ‘personal uneasiness ... things that touch us: either because we are moved by what we hear or because of things happening in our own lives’ (ibid. p44). Concerns over the integrity of my new role over the past nine years have suggested I needed to do more than replicate professional or industrial modes of behaviour that had sustained my own media career. These were often at odds with the ethical standards of academic conduct or incompatible with the interests (both personal and in terms of employability) of students. My experience of engaging with external groups, notably working for York St John University’s Converge project (see section 2.4.4),
suggested community engagement as a suitable lens for examining new opportunities and affordances presented by journalism education in the academy. Adopting Stenhouse’s (1981, p.103) definition of research as ‘systematic self-critical inquiry’ coupled with Sikes’ exhortation to action, the EdD provided an opportunity to investigate community engagement and so address my own sense of uneasiness at the future of the established field of journalism education.

3.1.2 Aims and objectives

The aim of this project is to identify and analyse existing community engaged practice in the field of journalism undergraduate education in UK HEIs. This, it is hoped, will enable the explication of common characteristics as well as to identify positive and negative aspects of community engaged practice and assess the potential impacts and scope for future development in this field. By doing this it is hoped that new possibilities in journalism education that are of mutual benefit to society, the university and other stakeholders may be revealed alongside the acknowledgment of potential limitations.

The following objectives were pursued:

- To undertake an analysis of a sample of publicly available documents including REF impact and environment statements; community engagement narratives from the KEF submission as well as programme specification documents to facilitate an exploratory ‘mapping’ exercise of existing community engaged practices in journalism education at UKHEIs.
- To collect qualitative and quantitative data using a self-completed questionnaire circulated nationally amongst academics and other practitioners operating in this field.
- To conduct a series of one-to-one semi structured interviews with appropriate practitioners.
- To code and analyse data using a thematic framework analysis method employing NVivo software.
- To present and interpret the results in relation to my research questions.

3.1.3 Research questions:

The following research questions may be characterised as largely descriptive in that they address matters such as what, where, when, who and how and have been conceived as a foundation for descriptive and explanatory analysis and discussion (Clark et al. 2021).

RQ1: In what ways can undergraduate programmes in journalism education at UK HEIs be described as community engaged?
- SRQ1: What promotes/inhibits community engagement in this field?
SRQ2: What are the affordances/limitations for community engaged journalism educational practice in UK HEIs?

I have sought to describe and understand community engagement that has taken place over approximately the past five years. However, this includes some research included in the most recent REF cycle which was carried out between 2013 and 2021. Community engagement is defined here as the process whereby universities interact with community stakeholders to undertake joint activities that can be mutually beneficial even if each side benefits in a different way. (Benneworth, 2018a, p.28). For the purposes of this study the term university refers to any tertiary education institution in the UK with degree awarding powers, regulated by the Office for Students in England, the Scottish Funding Council, the Higher Education Funding Council for Wales or the Department for the Economy in Northern Ireland and which offers a current – primarily - journalism undergraduate programme through UCAS. Communities were initially defined as publics or groups external to the university which typically do not engage with the university, may be socially weaker and/or socially excluded and may lack resources. It was not originally taken to include major, powerful industry/business partners who may benefit through conventional technology or knowledge transfer processes. However, as the study developed, I consciously adopted a broader approach to external partners to include all groups, publics or communities external to the university with whom journalism educators collaborated. This was to capture the full range and richness of practices encountered.

The principle conceptual tool for addressing the research questions and achieving the aims of the research is a framework developed from existing frameworks designed to enable institutions to map community engagement practices. The key influence was the institutional self-reflective framework and toolbox developed by the TEFCE project (Benneworth et al. 2018; Farnell, 2020), and that of Hart, Northmore and Gerhardt (2009) for the NCCPE. The approach here is not to carry out an audit or to create a metric for measuring performance but to add to an approach which emphasises self-assessment and reflective learning for those interested in engaging in the field. The adaptation of existing toolkits is an efficient and methodologically robust approach to the study. It seeks to acknowledge context-specific nature of much community engaged work whilst adding to the current focus on creating institutional frameworks by devising a new method for tackling the question at subject/discipline level. The following dimensions have been used to explore the research questions:

- Teaching and learning
- Research
- Service and knowledge exchange
- Students
• University-level engagement and supporting policies.

3.2 Philosophical approach

Sikes (2010b, p.29) describes methodological work as ‘philosophical, thinking work’. I therefore seek to clarify the philosophical approach taken within the study and aim to justify the choice of methodology and procedures/methods selected to address the research questions. These in turn will be reconciled with my own assumptions about the nature of reality, knowledge, and human agency alongside my personal values and motivations for conducting the study.

Philosophical debates in education are deeply contested. The central fault line is often characterised – albeit reductively - as a conflict between the opposing paradigms of positivism and interpretivism. The term paradigm as defined by Kuhn (1996) suggests a set of generalisations, beliefs and values which drive an inquiry as set out by a particular expert community and is sometimes used synonymously with the notion of ‘worldview’ (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2018). The positivist paradigm or worldview implies a ‘scientific’ approach to truth and research strategies that regards reality and knowledge as something hard or tangible. It suggests adopting an empirical approach to data and the use of quantitative research methods, such as surveys, large studies or even experiments designed to observe and measure objective empirical phenomena and produce widely generalisable results.

Whilst this was the dominant tradition within the academy from the Enlightenment, perceived limitations of this worldview in the latter half of the 20th century have privileged a more subjective, softer conceptualisation of truth and social reality. This in turn suggests an approach to research which employs qualitative methods such as small-scale studies aiming to uncover interpretative meaning and the existence of ‘multiple realities’ providing insight rather than generating cast iron social laws. The approach taken in this study is informed by Pring (2004a, p.243) who warned of the methodological implications of establishing a ‘false dualism’ between the opposing paradigms arguing that: ‘The qualitative investigation can clear the ground for the quantitative – and the quantitative be suggestive of differences to be explored in a more interpretative mode’. The incompatibility of the key philosophical paradigms means differences are ultimately irreconcilable with no way of arriving at which one is rationally superior. The rival merits between different schools of thought therefore cannot be evaluated from an independent or neutral standpoint as there are ‘no standards of rationality external to, or independent of, some philosophical tradition’ (Carr, 2008, p.1).

Education is here treated as an ‘essentially contested concept’ - an idea to which ‘no neutral or agreed definition is accepted’ (Winch and Gingell, 1999, p.108). One of the consequences of this is that whilst educational research has become more widely applied, generously funded, accessible and disseminated in recent decades it has developed a problematic relationship with both policy and
practice communities (Nisbet, 2005). This has brought into question the utility of educational research, arguably reducing its influence and leading to criticism of its perceived value (Pring, 2000), eliciting claims that it is overly theoretical or even politically motivated (Darby and Tooley, 1998). Research may be seen as an ‘instrumental’ device to ‘solve problems or guide policy’ (Nisbet, 2005, p.39) and one that must (more cynically) provide decision makers with ‘the reassurance of certainty to ameliorate the agony of responsibility’ (Stenhouse, 1983, p.193). This ‘what works’ approach to educational research - the belief that policy and practice should be informed by evidence - has become dominant in policymaking circles around the world affecting a diverse range of professional domains, notably medicine, but also education (Biesta, 2010). This instrumental approach has led to calls for the adoption of health-based methodologies such as evidence-based randomised control trials to assess the effectiveness of interventions in education (Haynes, et al. 2012). However, a recent British Educational Research Association (BERA, 2020) report on educational research and educational policy making concluded that ‘evidence-based policy is not a neutral descriptor but instead has become a highly charged and polarising idea in educational research’ and recommended a more constructive approach between research and policy communities. Biesta (2010a) argues that educational professionals should use research to inform intelligent problem solving in specific situations based on educationally desirable outcomes and values.

3.2.1 Journalism and methodology

As previously described, journalism has its own extensive literatures, theories and practices, as well as a growing body of writing associated with journalism education in both national and global contexts. Although these may differ from those of the traditional academic social sciences or education studies, journalism also has its own established professional ethical codes and methodological approaches many of them constrained within powerful legal and regulatory national frameworks (Hanna and Harrison, 2022). Yet a persistent criticism of journalism from within the academy is that journalists are guilty of ‘dramatising, oversimplifying, and sensationalising their findings’ (Gans, 2018, p.3). Journalism has been condemned as the outcome of non-methodologised inquiry as well as a casualty of undue influence from commercial and economic demands. These factors, it is claimed, subvert the academic principles of peer-review and the privileging of objective knowledge values adding to tensions between journalism and the academy in general and in institutional ethics committees in particular (Beasley and Walker, 2014). However, there are areas of commonality and overlap and the subsequent opportunity for mutual methodological enrichment (Gans, 2018). These include the adoption by journalism practitioners of realist ontological approaches to social reality and a concern for justice and human flourishing; an epistemological imperative to uncover empirical evidence (both qualitative and quantitative) to support assertions and claims; and
an emancipatory tradition to challenge powerful interests and promote democratic accountability. Common methods include the widespread use of interview, observation (both participant and non-participant), data and documentary analysis (Boellstorff, 2012) as well as the use of documented self-reflection (Beasley and Walker, 2014).

This next section will address my own assumptions around ontology, epistemology and agency which have informed the study.

3.2.2 Ontology

Ontology can be described as ‘the study of what exists, and how things are understood and categorised’ (O’Leary, 2021, p.6). For this research project I have assumed a realist ontology which is based on the assertion that much of the world exists independently of the observer even if that reality is beyond their immediate knowledge and awareness. However, realism also suggests that it is possible to access this reality identifying the relationships between phenomena, events and objects, and that the researcher is able to describe and present these through findings in the form of truth statements (Pring, 2004b).

Here ‘truth’ does not have a simple correspondence or ‘picture book’ relationship to language through speech or writing – a naïve approach to the real - but presents a more sophisticated metaphysical concept. Bridges (1999) outlines five different theories for truth – correspondence; coherence; consensus; pragmatic and warranted belief – suggesting that different theories align more naturally to different educational researchers’ worldviews, aims and objectives. For example, a classical positivist/scientific approach is associated with correspondence; pragmatic theory with action research and consensus with a constructivist approach. Yet as Bridge argues, whilst different approaches may be suggestive of different theories, methodologies and methods in educational research, none are able to dispense entirely with the underlying concept of truth.

A distinguishing feature of educational research is that its objects, themes and concepts of study may be subjective, are closely associated with meaning and meaning making, and may be personal and social in nature. Social science is therefore marked out from the physical and natural sciences by what Archer (2009) has described as the ‘vexatious fact of society’ - the unique role played by individuals in creating or constructing social reality for themselves and others. Yet, I believe that the possibility of constructing and negotiating meanings, settling on agreed concepts, subjects and objects, presupposes the existence or reality of things. Therefore, the acceptance of a distinctive reality separate from the researcher does not contradict the possibility that there may be many different and competing interpretations of that reality (Pring: 2004b, p.114).

This is important in relation to educational research. Biesta (2015, pp.11-22) describes the existence of ‘two cultures’ in the field that view education either as a closed, mechanistic system,
characterised by series of inputs and outputs, and that which views it as a complex or open system – a site of human communication and meaning-making. The former culture affords a ‘technological’ view of education where ‘the internal connections between the parts of the system operate in a mechanistic way, so that the system can operate as a deterministic causal machine’ (Biesta, 2015, p.16). This notion is rejected here and instead, education viewed as an ‘open, semiotic and recursive’ process in which machine-like expectations may misconstrue the (subjective) ‘nature of education’ (ibid.).

3.2.3 Agency-structure

Another way of understanding this question of open or closed systems has been expressed in the structure-agency debate. Structure includes the mechanisms and arrangements which set the scope for human action whilst agency is the degree to which human beings can individually or collectively influence those constraints (Barker, 2000). Different theorists have placed differing emphases on the role and relationship of structure and agency in constituting social reality. Giddens’ (1984) theory of structuration suggests agency and structure are mutually constitutive with neither having primacy. Archer (2009) argues they should be understood as separate though inter-dependent entities. Whilst it is beyond the scope of this study to resolve the tensions between these views, I have attempted to formulate a methodological approach that acknowledges human agency by understanding action in terms of the constraining and empowering properties of wider structural factors. Scott (2005, p.640) describes the methodological implications thus:

‘It is therefore not appropriate to argue that investigation of structures lies in the quantitative realm, and investigation of agential activities lies in the qualitative realm, but instead argue that appropriate methodologies need to be developed and used that allow understanding of the relations between the two...’

3.2.4 Epistemology

The conflicting world views – crudely characterised as interpretivist ‘versus’ positivist are not watertight categories. Crotty (2015, pp.10-11) describes how ‘(T)he existence of a world without a mind is conceivable. Meaning without a mind is not. Realism in ontology and constructionism in epistemology turn out to be quite compatible.’ This is important in the realm of epistemology. Here epistemology can be understood as ‘how we come to have legitimate knowledge of the world ... the rules for discovering what exists’ (O’Leary, 2021, p.6). As previously discussed, the objects which make up social reality can be identified and studied through empirical observation – by direct experience, through the senses. These findings can be checked, repeated, shared and subsequently deployed to build a body of knowledge containing both truthful and false statements which correspond to the world as it is (Pring, 2004b, p.48). However, there also exists a social world constructed from ideas,
indivisible from the perspective of the researcher/observer and the development of educational knowledge or truth from this perspective is a constantly negotiated consensus producing multiple realities (*ibid.*, p.49). Key tensions thus arise around the relationship between the researcher and the researched – and the degree to which one’s research findings can be said to be ‘discovered’ or ‘constructed’.

3.2.5 Values

A final consideration in relation to conducting educational research is the question of values. Clark *et al.* (2021, p.33) describe values as a reflection of the personal beliefs or the feelings of a researcher. Rokeach (1973) identified 36 ‘instrumental’ or ‘terminal’ human values. The latter may include social objectives such as equality and freedom or individual desires such as pleasure or comfort. Instrumental values may refer to an individual’s competency as well as how to achieve targets or outcomes. A significant question for this project has been the degree to which values do or should feature in the research. The position taken here is that no research can be regarded as ‘value free’ but that researchers should take a reflexive approach and be transparent about how values have influenced their work (Greenbank, 2003). As well as suggesting the researcher’s worldview, values necessarily affect the research from the identification of an object of study, the articulation of research questions and methods to the implementation of data collection, its analysis and interpretation (Clark *et al.*, 2021). As previously discussed, the research stems from my interests and experiences as a journalist turned journalism educator as well as a citizen. Underpinning this is my belief that both journalism and the academy can be forces for good in the world as well as a desire to promote the critical, democratic and ultimately emancipatory potential of education and journalism.

3.2.6 Critical realism

Critical Realism informs this project as a complementary meta-theory which adds to the ‘sophisticated’ realism model discussed above. It proposes an objective, three-layered nested framework of reality comprising the *empirical*, the *actual* and the *real* (Bhaskar, 1978; Danermark, 2002).

- At the first level – and visible to observers – is the *empirical*. This constitutes the surface level of reality, available to researchers through methods such as observation or experimentation.
- Below this level is the realm of the *actual*. This comprises *all* social phenomena, observable and non-observable, including those beyond the reach of researchers’ experience. Bhaskar described the ‘epistemic fallacy’, arguing that the world is not reducible to what is known or observable.
• At the deepest level is the real. Here reside the underlying structures and mechanisms which cause phenomena - both those that can and can’t be experienced by the researcher - to emerge.

This approach is significant both in terms of ontology and epistemology. It describes the existence of a ‘real’ domain beyond the ability of humans to experience whilst privileging and necessitating the role of theoretical explanation and description of the social world through forms of reasoning, which conceptualise the underlying causes of social phenomena (Cohen, 2019). This approach suggests that whilst potentially fallible, critical realism affords the opportunity for identifying relationships in research and to making ‘concrete policy recommendations and definitive claims for action on social problems’ (Fletcher, 2017, p.191). It affirms the notion that ‘realist explanations possess emancipatory implications’ (Bhaskar, 1986, p.104).

3.2.7 Theory and analysis

This research project addresses questions of both theory and practice. The practical focus is on the research, teaching and engagement activities of journalism educators working in UK HEIs. Theory is an inevitable part of all research, not just in terms of constructing ideas about the underlying mechanisms of social phenomena but in linking new work to an existing field of practice. Pring (2004b) describes theory as an inescapable framework of individual values, beliefs, and assumptions – potentially unacknowledged or unchallenged - embedded in the research process or finished text. For Wellington the question was not if but when theory should be acknowledged in the process, posing the dichotomy of ‘whether to impose theory on findings or whether theory frame the findings?’ (Wellington, 2015, p.40). As previously highlighted, educational research in the UK has been criticised for over-emphasising theoretical considerations and alienating research users and policy makers seeking practical suggestions in the field (Hargreaves, 2007). Yet Marxist, continental, feminist and postmodern social theoretical perspectives as well as critical race theory continue to be applied to investigate contemporary educational questions. Murphy (2013) espouses a catholic approach to theory, which has been adopted here, suggesting that:

‘...cherry picking and cross-pollination should be positively encouraged- for how else do we arrive at original and innovative forms of knowledge that can help us progress through the world of often stale and moribund arguments and paradigms in educational policy and practice?’ (ibid, pp.7-8).

This project does not align to a single total theoretical system seeking to explain all social phenomena. Instead, it aims to understand and describe the community engaged journalism education in UK HEIs as an empirical phenomenon. Critical realism however goes further and suggests an explanatory dimension through the adoption of different types of thought operations to speculate on the
underlying mechanisms which cause phenomena observed empirically to occur. Two forms of reasoning are privileged here (Danermark, 2002). Abductive reasoning suggests the continuous cross-checking of data and theory to formulate creatively and imaginatively a ‘best guess’ approach to explaining underlying causes of empirical observations (Clark et al. 2021). Retroduction, meanwhile, encourages the researcher to scrutinise the distinguishable elements comprising particular phenomena and discern which distinguishing characteristics enable them to exist, or which create the circumstances without which they could not do so (Lunnay and Meyer, 2013). Techniques of retroduction included counterfactual thinking, thought experiments and the examination of extreme cases (Danermark, 2002). Inductive and deductive reasoning techniques were also employed in this study, notably in the formulation of the analytical framework, which is discussed in section 3.3 on research design.

3.2.8 Ethics

Ethical systems in social science have developed in response to the need to protect participants from potential or actual harm, particularly vulnerable groups, and to maximise the benefits of research to society as whole (Israel, 2015). As my study involved human participants and potentially sensitive topics, I required approval by the University of Sheffield Ethics Committee. This rigorous process sought the identification of potential physical and/or psychological harm to participants as well as all those potentially impacted or indirectly involved in the research. A risk-based approach was taken with the identification of suitable mitigation measures put in place before approval was granted (see appendix A). The key risks identified were:

- Safe working practices during the Covid pandemic.
- The potential harm caused by working with disadvantaged communities.
- Engagement with ‘unethical’ journalistic practices

Mitigation measures included:

- Operating within the university guidelines on conducting research during the Covid pandemic. This included preparing to conduct interviews online rather than face-to-face.
- Anonymisation of participant identities in the final thesis and subsequent dissemination. Processes were agreed with the participants that reduced the risk of accidental or jigsaw identification or other harms. Raw data was anonymised as soon as possible and stored securely in compliance with the university’s privacy statement and GDPR rules. Data from publicly available documents was not anonymised although the names of individuals have not been included in the thesis.
• Alignment with institutional ethical frameworks already in place in any research environment outside the university, ensuring these were compliant with my own ethical clearance standards and values as well as meeting the standards laid down by existing journalistic legal and regulatory frameworks of industry regulators.

• Ongoing reflexivity to monitor ethical compliance in the light of changes to the research design, aims or findings.

A participant information sheet (see appendix B) was drawn up based on the university guidelines. Participants were required to read this before providing consent and completing the online questionnaire (see appendix C). The research was also required to conform to the university’s safeguarding policy with the identification of a designated safeguarding contact. I also assessed any risks to my own safety whilst conducting the study such as lone or night working. A separate data management plan was also developed (see appendix D) and approved which required me to describe secure methods of data collection, storage and end use in relation to confidentiality and the future availability of data to other researchers.

3.3 Research Design

Critical realism privileges the role of theory generation rather than methodological purity or the stipulation of methods. It is therefore appropriate to apply to quantitative, qualitative, mixed and multi-methods approaches (Danermark, 2002). My decision to adopt a mixed method approach was therefore based on the assumption that this would be the most effective way to answer the research questions. There is a considerable literature on the use of mixed methods. Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner (2007, p.129) have described mixed methods as a third paradigm – ‘an intellectual and practical synthesis based on qualitative and quantitative research’ – which may occur on a continuum with either approach privileged at any point. It aligned to my philosophical and methodological standpoint, approaches to methods and my values (Greene, 2007). I similarly sought to engage multiple methods – different data gathering techniques - that would be sufficient to capture the complex/context specific practices of community engaged journalism education in UK HEIs (Anguera et al. 2018). This is designed to enable a process of ‘triangulation’ in which data, theories or methods may be analysed and mutually corroborated against each other to improve the reliability of findings (Denzin, 1970). Cross verification may produce enhanced confidence in results and a more creative synthesis of concepts and thus richer understanding of the phenomena under research (Jick, 1979). Bryman (2008) has identified 16 ways in which a mixed methods approach may add value to research including improving the utility of findings to practitioners, enabling contextual understanding of phenomenon and affording a platform for a diversity of views.
Nonetheless, the mixed methods approach has limitations and challenges. These have involved understanding and reconciling the philosophical differences in the competing research paradigms previously discussed, as well as mastering the diverse range of methods suggested by a potentially overambitious approach that may not be deliverable within the time and resources available (O’Leary, 2021). The scope for effective elaboration, enhancement, illustration and clarification is dependent on the complementarity of appropriately chosen methods and analytical techniques (Creswell and Plano, 2018).

One of the attractions of using mixed methods was the possibility of adopting a multiphase approach to the research design. This is a well-established technique that was consistent with my resources and time constraints as a solo researcher and enabled me to combine both concurrent and sequential data collection to inform the unfolding study. The data-gathering phase of the study took place between March and October 2022. Qualitative and quantitative strands were treated equally and afforded opportunities for both explanation and deeper exploration. This enabled me to develop the sampling frame, the research instruments, the research questions and aims across the different phases as new themes, codes and theoretical insight emerged (Creswell and Plano, 2018).

3.3.1 Documentary evidence

The first phase of the study employed a qualitative analysis of a range of public documents. Whilst these sources have their own ‘documentary’ reality they are not treated as ‘transparent’ or ‘simple reflections of reality’ but texts created for a specific purpose and which need to be understood within the socio-economic and political context within which they were made (Clark et al., 2021, p.514-515). Atkinson and Coffey (2011) argue that it is necessary to consider the documents as a distinctive form of self-presentation, sometimes to compete against rivals operating within the same market or cultural space for resources or status. In this specific context the documents may be read critically as forms of ‘institutional performance … ways in which universities perform an image of themselves … ways in which universities perform in the sense of “doing well.”’ (Ahmed, 2006, p.114). Documents are produced for a range of expert and inexpert audiences and draw heavily on context-specific language and forms. They must be understood in relation to the way they seek to exert power and authority through a range of complex processes such as discourse and intertextuality (Fairclough, 1995).

The following documents were used to provide the context for the study:

- REF impact statements
- REF unit level environment statements
- KEF public and community engagement narrative statements
The decision to use these documents was influenced by Farnell’s (2020, p.17) assertion that the UK has ‘arguably led the way in Europe in terms of developing policies and measures to support universities’ contribution to social needs’ particularly through the development of the concept of impact which has developed in the REF since it was introduced in 2014. The REF succeeded six iterations of the Research Assessment Exercise (RAE) which was first conducted in 1986. The framework was reviewed in 2016 and the most recent exercise took place in 2021. The REF describes ‘impact’ as ‘any effect on, change or benefit to the economy, society, culture, public policy or services, health, the environment or quality of life, beyond academia’ (Watermeyer and Chubb, 2019, p.1555) Impact is assessed through a series of case studies in which institutions provide information about their purported external influence and effect via a template (see appendix E). These impact statements were published most recently in 2022 and account for 25% of the overall quality rating for research. The impact statements include narrative case studies. Rather than being blunt ‘performance indicators’, which are regarded as poor proxies of the central concepts under research, they have transformed the UK research environment and how researchers think about and conduct research (ibid., p.1554). Whilst they have been described as part of a wider performative audit culture within the sector, they do provide both quantitative and qualitative insight into activities which may otherwise remain obscure from the public or academic audiences. One obvious limitation is that they are self-selected to represent the strongest rather than the wider spread of research. Papatsiba and Cohen (2020) have illustrated through an analysis of REF impact statements how the notion of impact can reinforce existing stratification within the UK HE system with more powerful institutions able to exploit the impact agenda and notions of quality research to sustain a competitive advantage in performance-based funded research rounds worth up to £2bn.

A second set of REF documentation was included in the analysis. These were descriptive pilot documents submitted alongside the most recent REF submission worth 15% of the overall marks. These unit-level environment statements seek to demonstrate the wider vitality of research culture within both the institution and each unit of assessment. These lengthy, (8-12,000-word) documents account for each 70-staff unit and were completed via a template (see appendix F). They included data on research strategies and context, staff, income and facilities. The third set of documentation was drawn from the KEF. Knowledge exchange can be defined as the way that ‘useful knowledge’ generated in universities through research and teaching is used for the benefit of the economy and society (UKRI b, no date). Examples may include public events, facility sharing, collaboration with local, national or international business, civic or community organisations. This benchmarking process was launched in 2021 aimed at increasing:
‘... efficiency and effectiveness in the use of public funding for knowledge exchange (KE) and to further a culture of continuous improvement in universities. It will allow universities to better understand and improve their own performance, as well as provide businesses and other users with more information to help them access the world-class knowledge and expertise embedded in English Higher Education Providers (HEPs).’ (UKRI, no date b).

This information is encapsulated in five ‘perspectives’ with respondents asked to submit additional narrative statements in relation to local growth and regeneration alongside public and community engagement practice carried out at institutional level. These statements, again based around a template (see appendix G) formed the basis for this part of the documentary analysis and are publicly available via an online dashboard (see UKRI, no date c).

The fourth set of documents comprised a range of programme/course specifications for a sample of journalism programmes currently delivered in UK HEIs. Programme specifications were devised as part of a ‘new quality assurance regime focused on the public assurance of standards’ and part of a ‘system-wide’ move towards outcomes-based learning which referenced learning activities to a national qualifications framework (Jackson, 2000, p.134). This was introduced as part of the move to support assertions of transparency and quality in the UK university system as it expanded from an elite to mass system. The UK Quality Code for Higher Education describes programme specifications as a ‘concise description of the intended learning outcomes of a Higher Education (HE) programme and the means by which the outcomes are achieved and demonstrated’ (QAA, 2011). Produced primarily by academics within the field they are intended to demonstrate a programme of study’s key attributes such as its distinctiveness, industry focus etc. and explain how individual modules combine into whole qualifications as well as the overall intended learning and attributes. Institutions are given the autonomy to decide the format of the programme learning outcome documentation – such as the use of free text, narrative or template (see appendix H). However, they are intended to provide transparency, accountability and the opportunity for deliberative reflection, such as during programme validation, and are aimed at delivering information to a range of diverse audiences such as students, employers, external examiners and professional bodies – such as the NCTJ and BJTC in journalism, which examine the documents as part of the accreditation processes. Accreditation documentation and feedback is not publicly available although successful accreditation ‘kitemarking’ is typically evidenced on institutional programme website pages for journalism courses. The UK Quality Code was updated in 2018 with no reference to programme specifications and is currently subject to consultation and review.

Criticisms of outcomes-based learning has focused on questions of bureaucratic overload as well as philosophical, epistemological and political opposition to their adoption. A study of teachers,
managers and learning experts involved in media education in Ireland (McCormick 2015, p.4) concluded that learning outcomes continued to be philosophically ‘divisive’ between ‘those who find them to be a representation of the continued marketisation of education and the embodiment of managerialism and ‘quality’ in HE and those who feel they epitomise a certain conception of democracy in their begetting of fairness and transparency.’

3.3.2 Self-completion questionnaire.

One of the research objectives was to collect primary data specific to the project I was undertaking to address my research questions and provide original and unique insights into the field of study (O’Leary, 2021). It was intended that this could be achieved using a survey to generate both quantitative and qualitative data in line with the mixed methods approach. The use of a self-completion questionnaire (see appendix B), administered through email and online, aligned to my research aim of exploring the potential for mapping characteristics of community engagement in journalism education, identifying factors that promoted and inhibited CE, as well as identifying possible affordances and limitations of existing or potential practice.

The relative advantages and disadvantages of this method were considered as outlined by Clark et al. (2021). The self-completed questionnaire was initially sent out in March 2022 and offered a quick and efficient method to administer whilst being capable of reaching large numbers of potential respondents. There was no financial cost for me as the researcher as the required software (Qualtrix) was freely available through the University of Sheffield. It was also convenient for respondents who were able to complete the survey in their own time and at their own pace. The survey was live for eight months. Whilst it is impossible to eliminate all presence of the researcher, the physical absence of an interviewer may help reduce bias in relation to gender and ethnicity as well as mitigating against social expectations of respondents thus eliciting potentially more truthful responses – particularly in relation to sensitive or professionally problematic questions. Potential disadvantages were that the absence of an interviewer meant that data in some areas would be partial and limited because I was not able to prompt or question for further information. However, it was able to provide a snapshot of the population at large and a basis for further sequential examination that might elicit richer responses. This is further discussed in section 3.45.

Because the questions were pre-set and limited in number and scope, it required a priori application of theory through a pre-existing framework which may have reduced the validity of the findings and exacerbated bias through imposing my own expectations and views on the study. Participants were also self-selected – further reducing validity. Attempts were made to understand
this by adding biographical and institutional detail in the initial questions. Use of a framework allowed me to control the quantity of qualitative data and focus on the quality of information gathered so that it was explicitly applicable to the research questions (Wolcott, 1990).

Response rates are often very low for this type of survey. However, Mellahi and Harris, (2013) suggest that published research using these types of instruments varies hugely in response rate and there is little agreement on what constitutes an acceptable rate among journal editors. However, median return rates of 35-50% in some management and business academic surveys have been described as ‘good’. High response rate is not the defining criteria for enhanced validity in all cases and in some contexts, lower rates may be more effective such as if the survey takes place amongst better-informed respondents or in a timelier fashion in relation to a particular event under study.

The instrument contained two levels of questioning. The first sought to elicit general biographical information about respondents including gender and ethnicity as well as details about the respondents’ professional career stage, interests and identity. The second stage was for those with a declared interest in community engagement. It invited free text responses and was premised on the idea that those that continued to this stage in the survey would be more willing to complete these more time demanding sections. Questions were kept short and clear with the ‘easiest’ questions at the beginning to maintain the interest of the respondents. For the more ‘complex’ questions I provided further information and clarification. The Qualtrix system was used because this created an easy-to-follow template with a range of question choices and formats that would be familiar to the respondents. It also enabled me to integrate display logic into the instrument to tailor the questioning to a respondent’s previous answers. This created a better user experience, avoided unethical time wasting and potentially ensured a higher response rate.

3.3.3 Interviews

Interviewing can be described as a data collection method in which researchers seek open-ended answers to questions across a range of specified topics or themes (O’Leary, 2021, p.250). Interviews therefore provide rich, in-depth qualitative data and the method enabled me to draw on my experience as a journalist and employ a technique with which I felt comfortable and enjoyed doing. The interviews elicited ‘thick’ descriptive data to augment and develop my understanding from the previous two methods. The concept was popularised in the social sciences by the cultural anthropologist Geertz (1973, p.10) who described the challenge faced during data collection where the researcher is confronted with:

‘a multiplicity of complex conceptual structures, many of them superimposed upon or knotted into one another, which are at once strange, irregular and
The concept of thick description is widely used by qualitative researchers across different disciplines, including education, and is a common objective of an interview study (Ponterotto, 2006 p 247). Thick description also provides a data set for other researchers enabling them to make judgments and thus enhance the potential for transferability of data to other social settings. Aspects of ‘thick description’ include:

- The accurate description and interpretation of social actions within the appropriate context.
- The capturing of the thoughts, emotions, and social interaction of participants in their operating context.
- The assignment of motivations and intentions for social actions. (ibid.).

I opted to undertake a semi-structured interview – sometimes described as a ‘conversation with a purpose’ requiring a balance between talking and listening whilst remaining ethically alert (Heywood and Harding, 2021, p.23). The question schedule linked directly to my analytical framework and research questions but also allowed me flexibility to pursue interesting points as they emerged and to identify potential new codes THEMES as they arose in the discussion.

Interviewees self-identified through the self-completed questionnaire, providing an email address on which they agreed to be contacted with further information about the interview stage. The interviews were conducted online between September – October 2022. Each one-to-one interview lasted between 30-60 minutes and was recorded and later transcribed. An informal approach was adopted in the interviews as I sought to gain trust and to establish a rapport, enabling the participant to speak freely and honestly about their experience – for example in relation to the degree to which they felt supported in their community engaged practice. By being on camera I was able to pick up on a range of non-verbal communication – such as expression and body language – to enrich my understanding of the contexts and suggest new question pathways. The use of the online platform was convenient for participants who were based across different regions of England and who were overwhelmingly working at HEIs so were busy preparing for the start of the new semester. The times of the interviews were arranged over email with me providing a wide range of available dates and then booking the calls at the agreed time. The interview schedule (see Table 1) was drawn up in relation to the research questions. A pilot interview was carried out with a colleague, however, the questions were not significantly changed as a result and the test interview comprised part of the final sample.
Participants were given the following clarification and guidance at the beginning of the interview:

‘Community engagement is defined here as a process whereby universities engage with community stakeholders to undertake joint activities that can be mutually beneficial even if each side benefits in a different way. The focus here is on Journalism education. The project seeks to evaluate what these benefits/disbenefits are, how they arise/fail to arise and to identify best practices in this field and how/whether they may be shared.’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Q</th>
<th>Interview schedule of questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Can you tell me about your work in HE and how it has been community engaged? This may be in reference to projects you have taken part in including research, teaching or knowledge exchange.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>What were the aims/outcomes of this work? Were they achieved and how were they evaluated/benefits captured?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>What incentives have you encountered to support CE practice at your institution/in the discipline?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Can you identify any specific barriers that have inhibited your work in this field – these may be institutional, discipline-based, personal?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>In what ways do the ethos and values of journalism/journalism education in HEIs support community engaged practice?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>How would you describe the value and potential of CE for improving/changing or offering new opportunities for journalism education in the UK? Can you give examples?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Can you think of any drawbacks or limitations that mean CE is not desirable or compatible with journalism/journalism education?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Is there anything else you would like to add about journalism education in UK HEIs, CE or an issue that we have not addressed?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 1: Interview schedule of questions*
Although I am an experienced journalistic interviewer, this form of interviewing was novel for me. However, I was guided by Kvale’s description of the interview as a ‘craft’ developed through practice. He argues that the success of interviewing rests on the practical skills and the personal judgments of the interviewer; it does not follow practical steps of rule-governed methods’ (Kvale, 1996, p.20.) The attributes of a successful interviewer include strong knowledge of the subject under discussion; clarity and structure to the interview as well as sensitivity and flexibility in listening and responding to answers.

### 3.3.4 Validity/generalisability/replicability

This study is intended to provide insight into the research questions and ultimately support my own and the future practice of those working in the field of journalism education at UK HEIs. It is not designed to create a replicable set of procedures or measures that can necessarily be applied in other contexts or to devise social laws. However, as this project adopts a ‘sophisticated’ realist ontology and a relativist epistemology I am concerned with the ability to make conditional claims about emergent social reality and phenomena – albeit that they are contestable and subject to change. The validity of the claims may therefore be assessed on the ability to offer credible evidence in support and generate findings that are of relevance to practitioners in the field (Hammersley, 2008).

The keyways of demonstrating this evidence and its relevance are through:

- Thick description/rich data (see above)
- Triangulation – the use of ‘multiple observers, theoretical perspectives, sources of data, and methodologies’ (Denzin, 1970, p.310)
- Transparency/trustworthiness - a clear articulation of sampling methods and data analysis (see section 3.3.4)
- Reflexivity – the acceptance of the position that knowledge ‘is always the reflection of a researcher’s location in time and social space’ (Clark et al., 2021, p.367)
- Ethical considerations (see section 3.2.8)
- Explanation of reasoning techniques and theory formation through critical realism.

### 3.4 Sampling methods

Sampling refers to the segment of the population selected for the research. The human population for my study consisted primarily of educators employed at UK HEIs where journalism is studied and taught at undergraduate level. A sample frame of n= 77 institutions was identified through UCAS as offering appropriate journalism undergraduate pathways – by this is I mean single honours
named titles which included the term Journalism (see appendix H). This included a wide range of compound degree titles such as Sports Journalism, Multimedia Journalism, Broadcast Journalism etc.

In the instance of this target population, which is journalism educators, no reliable central data source exists. However, I have estimated the total population at around n=800 based on the variation in size and capability of each programme team using a range of measures including my own survey data, personal knowledge of the sector and institutional websites.

The institutions at which the journalism educators worked were stratified using Boliver’s (2015, pp.619-620) four-tier cluster analysis based on publicly available data for research activity, teaching quality, economic resources, academic selectivity, and the socio-economic background of students. This enabled me to create a sample for the document analysis which was representative of the institutions currently delivering journalism undergraduate programmes in terms of their perceived status and prestige within the sector (see table 2). This is significant when analysing documents related to REF and KEF which have been criticised as reflecting pre-existing and historic power relations within higher education (Papatsiba and Cohen, 2020).

In Boliver’s analysis, cluster 1 includes only two institutions – Oxford and Cambridge; cluster 2 comprises 39 institutions including the remaining ‘research-intensive’ 22 Russell Group universities; cluster 3 comprises 67 institutions of which 61 are post-1992 or new institutions; cluster 4 is made up of one ‘old’ (pre-92) and 12 ‘new’ universities. A significant limitation of this analysis is that it does not include ‘new-entrant’ universities which have been encouraged to enter the market and that it fails to capture the relative status or otherwise of individual (journalism) programmes or the lived experience of those that study there.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Universities offering undergraduate Journalism (UCAS 2022)</th>
<th>Cluster 1</th>
<th>Cluster 2</th>
<th>Cluster 3</th>
<th>Cluster 4</th>
<th>New entrant</th>
<th>N/A</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Universities offering undergraduate Journalism (UCAS 2022)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Breakdown of universities offering Journalism programmes by status.

NB: Boliver’s analysis does not include Birkbeck College, University of London which offers BA (Hons) Journalism and Media and BA (Hons) Journalism and Digital Media)

A non-probabilistic approach was taken to the overall sampling strategy with the creation of a range of separate purposive samples across the different modes of inquiry. Purposive or purposeful sampling has been described as a deliberate choice or decision on behalf of the researcher to focus on ‘selecting information-rich cases whose study will illuminate the questions under study’ (Patton,
The size of an appropriate purposeful sample may be arrived at inductively and in ideal circumstances sampling continues until theoretical saturation is reached (Guest, Bunce and Johnson, 2006).

The non-human population of the study comprised the following units of analysis:

- 19 REF impact statements
- 11 REF unit level environment submissions
- 12 KEF public and community engagement narrative statements
- 11 Journalism programme/course specifications

The next sections will describe the rationale for the choice of these documents and the specific approach to sampling taken.

### 3.4.1 REF Impact statements

The first set of documents sampled were the REF impact case studies. These were identified through the REF 2021 website, results and submission page (REF, 2021) by accessing the impact case study database. An initial filter applied was through a keyword search for the term ‘journalism’. This produced a sample of 96 case studies. Many of these were not relevant as they incorporated academic fields including English, Music and Drama, politics and economics. A further filter was applied by limiting the search to ‘unit of assessment 34: Communication, Culture and Media Studies, Library and Information Management’ (UoA 34) in which most journalism educators at UK HEIs are encouraged to submit. This further reduced the number of impact statements to 27. A new filter was then added to limit findings to the societal summary impact type. This was felt to align most closely to the definition and aims of community engagement being studied in this project. This resulted in a total of 20 impact case studies identified from a sample of 12 institutions. These were geographically diverse across England and Wales and included institutions from tiers two and three, based on Boliver’s system.

Most institutions (seven) returned more than one impact study, with a tier three institution, the University Bournemouth, producing the highest number of submissions at three. It should be noted that Loughborough University and King’s College did not feature on the sample frame of institutions offering undergraduate journalism courses on UCAS. At this stage I decided to include these two institutions in the initial analysis as I was unsure how much data I would be able to generate. A final sample of 11 was settled on as two institutions, the University of East Anglia (UAE) and City University, submitted impact statements after collaborating on the same project. UAE was not included in the analysis at this stage.
Each submission was also accompanied by a range of supporting references to the research which included links to academic monographs as well as articles in peer-reviewed journals. The published articles were read but not coded.

### 3.4.2 REF environment submissions

The next stage of the document sampling involved the REF 2021 environment database for submission in UoA 34 (REF, 2021). This was searched for each of the remaining institutions delivering undergraduate Journalism programmes identified on the UCAS sample frame excluding those that had submitted impact case studies. This produced a total of 58 narrative statements. (Note: two narratives are submitted – institutional and UoA - however only the UoA was included in the sample as this was felt to be the best way to find out about journalism specific activity relevant to the study. UoA data had been included in REF2014 however the introduction of institutional narrative statements was new for 2021). The 58 UoA narrative statements were then filtered using a keyword search *journalism*. Those with more than five references to journalism in the narrative were considered sufficiently

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cluster</th>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Submissions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>University of Newcastle upon Tyne</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Goldsmiths University of London</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>King’s College London</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The University of Sheffield</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cardiff University</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>City University of London</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Loughborough University</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>The University of Westminster</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>University of Bedfordshire</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>City University Birmingham</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bournemouth University</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 3: REF impact statement sample group:

The next stage of the document sampling involved the REF 2021 environment database for submission in UoA 34 (REF, 2021). This was searched for each of the remaining institutions delivering undergraduate Journalism programmes identified on the UCAS sample frame excluding those that had submitted impact case studies. This produced a total of 58 narrative statements. (Note: two narratives are submitted – institutional and UoA - however only the UoA was included in the sample as this was felt to be the best way to find out about journalism specific activity relevant to the study. UoA data had been included in REF2014 however the introduction of institutional narrative statements was new for 2021). The 58 UoA narrative statements were then filtered using a keyword search *journalism*. Those with more than five references to journalism in the narrative were considered sufficiently
journalism intensive and resulted in a final sample of 17 statements. This was then reduced to 11 units to make a complementary and comparable sample to the REF impact group. This was done by making selections to create a balance of institutions across different clusters, regions and nations of the UK based on those with the highest level of journalistic activity described in the keyword search. Two additions were made. One cluster four institution had submitted an environment statement (University of East London), producing two returns on the keyword search and was included to provide insight into this cluster. The University of Leicester was also included although it had not been categorised as journalism intensive in the keyword search.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cluster</th>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>University of Leicester</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>University of Leeds</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>University of Derby</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>University of Ulster</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>University of Stirling</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>University of Huddersfield</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Liverpool John Moore’s University</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Glasgow Caledonian University</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>De Montfort University</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>University of Central Lancashire</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>University of East London</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Unit level environment submissions sample

3.4.3 Knowledge Exchange Framework – public and community engagement statements

This is a purposive sample seeking to identify where community engaged practice is happening. Therefore, cluster three institutions that had been included in the REF research impact group were included in the sample KEF narrative statements. This is except for the University of Westminster which was replaced by University of Sunderland to enhance the geographic spread of the sample and reduce the focus on London-based institutions.

It was anticipated that the KEF narrative statements would reveal further ‘lower’ levels of engagement taking place compared to the REF documents. The number of tier two institutions was
reduced compared to the REF impact statement group to align more representatively to the clusters of institutions delivering undergraduate journalism education as revealed in the UCAS group. Extra cluster three institutions were added based on an assessment of the prominence of journalism in the REF environment statements ie. those that were deemed journalism intensive (with more than five references in the keyword search). It should be noted that Welsh, Northern Irish and Scottish institutions could not be included in this group as they do not participate in the KEF which covers only England. Leeds Trinity University and Buckinghamshire New University were added to the sample to represent further cluster four institutions. This addition expanded the KEF sample group to 12 and provided an opportunity to explore the range of practice at lower status institutions based on Boliver’s model.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cluster</th>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>University of Kent</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>University of East Anglia</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>University of Derby</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>University of Sunderland</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>University of Lincoln</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>University of Central Lancashire (UCLan)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>City University</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bournemouth University</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Birmingham City University</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>University of Bedfordshire</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Buckinghamshire New University</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Leeds Trinity University</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>12</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 5: Final KEF sample group*

3.4.4 Programme/course specification documents

Programme specifications are publicly facing documents that provide information for students, employers, external examiners and university quality officers. However, there is inconsistency in the way that each institution makes these documents available. The sample for this part of the document analysis was therefore opportunistic based on those I was able to find on each institutional website. Whilst all universities offered details on ‘what you will study’ not all provided links to PDFs or other official documents outlining full programme aims, learning outcomes or
distinctive features. A sample of 11 institutions was collected in this way including my own university which I had access to as a member of staff. I was able to include a new entrant institution in the sample for the first time, University Campus of Football Business (UCFB), which further expanded the scope of the study. Falmouth University, which offered a joint honours programme including journalism, was included having appeared on the original UCAS population.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cluster</th>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Goldsmiths, University of London: BA (Hons) Journalism</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>University of Leeds: BA (Hons) Journalism</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>University of Portsmouth: BA (Hons) Journalism</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>University of Bedfordshire: BA (Hons) Journalism/ BA (Hons) Journalism (with Professional Practice Year)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Birmingham City University: BA (Hons) Journalism</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bournemouth University: BA (Hons) Multimedia Journalism</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>City University BA (Hons) Journalism</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Falmouth University: BA(Hons) Journalism and Creative Writing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kingston University, London: BA (Hons) Journalism</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>York St John University: BA (Hons) Journalism</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>University Campus of Football Business (UCFB): BA (Hons) Multimedia Sports Journalism</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>11</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6: Programme/course specification sample

3.4.5 Documents sample summary

The documents that formed the corpus for the first section of the analysis were produced by a range of different institutions (see table 7) and were all publicly available. The sampling was both purposive and opportunistic in that I deliberately chose sources that would provide rich data in relation to the research questions whilst also being constrained by availability. In total, 53 documents were read and coded based on the framework (see next section for details) from 31 institutions. The institutions were contextualised using Boliver’s model so that they could be understood in terms of their distinctive clusters indicating status and research intensity. Some institutions appeared in more than one sample such as Birmingham City University, which featured in three data groups. Whilst I did
not set out to achieve this, it did enable a snapshot of one institution across multiple dimensions being studied.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>REF impact (# case studies)</th>
<th>REF Environment</th>
<th>KEF</th>
<th>Programme specifications</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Cardiff (2)</td>
<td>Leeds</td>
<td>Kent</td>
<td>Leeds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Newcastle</td>
<td>Leicester</td>
<td>UEA</td>
<td>Goldsmiths</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Loughborough (2)</td>
<td>Ulster</td>
<td>Lincoln</td>
<td>City</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Goldsmiths</td>
<td>Stirling</td>
<td>UCLan</td>
<td>Bedfordshire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Sheffield (2)</td>
<td>Huddersfield</td>
<td>City</td>
<td>Portsmouth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>King’s College</td>
<td>UCLan</td>
<td>Bedfordshire</td>
<td>Birmingham City</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Birmingham City</td>
<td>Glasgow Caledonia</td>
<td>Derby</td>
<td>Bournemouth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Bournemouth (3)</td>
<td>De Montfort</td>
<td>Birmingham City</td>
<td>Kingston</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>City (2)</td>
<td>Derby</td>
<td>Bournemouth</td>
<td>Buckinghamshire New University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Westminster (2)</td>
<td>Liverpool JMU</td>
<td>Sunderland</td>
<td>York St John University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Beds (2)</td>
<td>East London</td>
<td>Leeds Trinity</td>
<td>University Campus of Football Business</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>London Met</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7: Summary of document samples
Cluster two institutions
Cluster three institutions
Cluster four institutions
N/A or new entrant institution

3.4.6 Questionnaire sample method

The questionnaire was compiled in April 2022 and a pilot was sent to my supervisor and three colleagues. Minor changes were made to the question wording and some of the answer categories following feedback. My population of journalism educators who are members of the following networks were accessed via email inviting them to take part in the study (see appendix J):

- Media, Communication and Cultural Studies Association (MeCCSA) – a subject association representing those that teach and/or research in higher education in media, communications and cultural studies. Members receive daily emails from those in the field publicising events, research and publications.
• Broadcast Journalism Training Council (BJTC): a professional accreditation body comprising a network of 27 universities in the UK involved in delivering undergraduate journalism education.
• National Journalism Training Council (NCTJ): oversees journalism training schemes and accredits HEIs and non-university provider programmes.
• Association of Journalism Educators (AJE): an association of journalism academics which promotes ‘excellence’ in education, teaching and research.
• My own professional network of colleagues working in journalism education.
• Colleagues’ networks.
• Personalised emails to academics identified at the document stage of analysis.

Many of the practitioners within my target population may be members of more than one of the networks. In addition to circulating the email to colleagues I presented my research to the AJE annual conference at Middlesex University and was able to invite attendees to fill out the survey by sharing a QR code with the link (see appendix K for my abstract from the presentation).

In total I received 56 anonymous responses producing a final sample of n=43. However, the method of dissemination meant I was unable to know how many had seen the email or been successfully contacted. To improve the response rate, I engaged in a series of follow up emails and pursued further snowball and opportunistic sampling methods to grow the number of participants. Overall, I felt this sample was sufficiently representative of the target community based on my methodology, although it was not possible to account for non-response bias or bias from having failed to reach appropriate sections of the population.

3.4.7 Sample interviews method

Participants in the interviews were recruited using the questionnaire. As previously discussed in section 3.2.8, I had undergone a rigorous ethical approval process before I could begin working with a human population. To recap, the key ethical considerations involved ensuring that participants were fully informed of the nature and intention of the study; that they had consented to take part and were aware of the appropriate data management protocols and their rights to withdraw at any time; that they were fully anonymised. They had all consented via the online questionnaire (see appendix C) in which respondents were also asked to signify whether they would be willing to take part in a follow up interview. This purposive sampling method is a particular strength of a mixed method inquiry methodology and was effective here in generating a purposive initial sample of 12 academics (Clark et al., 2021). A total of eight interviews were carried out between September-October 2022 with a
further four held in reserve pending data analysis. They were subsequently informed that they would not be required to take part and thanked for their time and help.

The sample size was consistent with findings by Guest, Bunce and Johnson (2006) that coding saturation may occurred within 12 qualitative interviews and that the ‘basic elements of meta-themes’ are emergent within six interviews. They argue that saturation is reached even more quickly when the participant sample is homogenous ie. ‘... the more similar participants in a sample are in their experiences with respect to the research domain’ (ibid., p.76) which concurred with my experience in this study especially when the interview data was triangulated with the questionnaire and document analysis.

3.5 Developing the framework:

The first tools designed to assess university-community engagement emerged in the United States in the mid-1990s and several dozen instruments have developed since then (Ćulum, 2018). The TEFCE framework, which informs this study, was developed from 2018 to develop policy tools ‘for supporting, monitoring assessing the community engagement of universities’ in the European Union (Benneworth, 2018b, p.9). This was based on more than 60 definitions and established assessment frameworks, typologies and classifications of community engagement in higher education worldwide (Ćulum, 2018). These employed a variety of methodologies with the aims ranging from the provision of metrics designed to rank and categorise institutions to processes of kite/watermarking for quality assurance and self-assessment reflection as well as planning tools to guide and enhance practice.

Examples of previous frameworks include:

- The Russell Group indicators for measuring UK HE third stream activities (2002)
- The Carnegie Foundation’s classification for community engagement (2005)
- The Australian University’s Community Engagement Alliance (2006)
- European indicators and ranking methodology for University Third Mission (E3M, 2011).
- Campus Compact (1999)
- NCCPE Edge tool (2020)

The rationale for choosing and adapting the TEFCE framework was that it was the most comprehensive and up to date available to me and also that it privileges ‘sense-making and institutional learning around community engagement’ (Benneworth et al, 2018b, p.77) designed to capture a complex and highly context specific range of activities. This aligns to the aims of the project
and rejects top-down approaches to the development of metrics in favour of systems whereby individual institutions select their own reference group, performance indicators and goals through reflection.

The second framework influencing this study took a similarly reflective approach and was created by Hart, Northmore and Gerhardt, (2009) on behalf of the NCCPE as part of a systematic literature review into public engagement designed to assist UK academics, university administrators and community groups to audit, benchmark and evaluate existing practice in the field. This also acknowledged the complexity of the task and identified six dimensions to public engagement (ibid., p.14-15). These were:

1: **Public access to facilities** such as libraries, sports grounds, university buildings, shared facilities such as museums and galleries which may increase public support for the institution, result in a better-informed public and improve citizen health and wellbeing.

2: **Public access to knowledge** through curricula, engagement events such as law clinics and science fairs which may enhance local quality of life and promote public scholarship.

3: **Student engagement** through volunteering, collaborative research projects and student-led activities which enhances student civic engagement and political participation.

4: **Faculty engagement** such as research centres that work with community groups as advisors, staff with community engagement as a role, promotion policies that reward engagement as well as public lectures and alumni services.

5: **Widening participation** by improving recruitment of students from non-traditional and previously excluded backgrounds.

6: **Encouraging economic regeneration** and enterprise in social engagement through technology and skills transfer, setting up business advisory services and prizes for innovation and entrepreneurship.
The following table seeks to synthesise the respective dimensions of the two frameworks and to map which methods were used to capture and analyse them in the study:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TEFCE</th>
<th>NCCPE</th>
<th>Data sources in the study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Research</td>
<td>Faculty engagement</td>
<td>REF impact/environment statements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching and learning</td>
<td>Widening participation</td>
<td>Programme specifications</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Environment statements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge transfer/service learning</td>
<td>Encouraging economic regeneration/public access to knowledge</td>
<td>KEF narrative statements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>REF environment statements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student initiatives</td>
<td>Student engagement</td>
<td>Programme specifications</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional initiatives</td>
<td>Public access to facilities</td>
<td>KEF narrative statements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional policies</td>
<td>Faculty engagement</td>
<td>KEF narrative statements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Interview</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 8: Synthesis of previous frameworks mapped to data sources in the study.*

The two approaches highlighted above can be seen in contrast to educational concepts of ‘effectiveness’ and ‘improvement’ – both at individual and institutional level – and which hitherto have been closely associated with the growth of metrics, examination, and league tables through quantitative analysis of educational performance indicators. These cannot be seen as neutral indicators. For example, Wilsdon *et al.* (2015 p. viii) have described ‘powerful currents whipping up the metric tide’ including political demands for greater value for money, accountability and audit within the sector as well as competition between institutions for prestige, resources and students.
3.5.1 Analysing the qualitative data

Qualitative research tends to generate large amounts of unstructured, detailed and unwieldy data with the researcher tasked with imposing order and coherence to different accounts of social phenomena (Ritchie and Spencer, 1994). An adapted framework approach adopted here provides a paradigm-neutral yet systematic method for sifting, sorting and ordering the data. This method has been successfully used across multiple research projects spanning different social science disciplines involving the thematic analysis of semi-structured interviews and documents (Gale et al. 2013). The following analytical stages were followed:

Stage 1: Creating a framework: As described above, I identified and synthesised appropriate *a priori* frameworks as part of the literature review and deductively devised a suitable mixed and multiple methods research design that would enable me to address each relevant dimension as well as exploring the research questions.

Stage 2: Data familiarisation: During this stage I repeatedly read through the documents to gain a perspective on the richness and scope of the data whilst assessing the viability of the research design to meet my aims and objectives. I made memos identifying key themes through the cognitive processes of abstraction and conceptualisation. This same method was used at each phase of the data gathering. The qualitative data from the questionnaire was reviewed in the same way whilst the semi-structured interviews were transcribed and subject to similar close reading techniques.

Stage 3: Coding/identifying themes: Cases were loaded into NVivo with all data read again and coded to the pre-existing dimensions of the framework alongside new sub dimensions and themes as they were constructed during the analysis. Coding was not a straightforward or mechanical process but required intuitive reasoning and judgement that resulted in the creation of several new sub themes with much of the data from each case assigned to more than one of the themes.

Stage 4: Code/theme consolidation: All codes were reviewed and I produced a further series of memos summarising the data and logging preliminary ideas, identifying potential relationships and tentatively beginning the retroductive process to consider the underlying mechanisms that may lead to the phenomena being investigated. The number of themes was gradually reduced and condensed. The data was then transferred from NVivo and applied thematically using headings and subheadings in response to the framework and the research questions. A key focus here was on how the findings could be presented coherently using data visualisation techniques and to identify which findings were the most significant and should be prioritised for analysis and discussion within the thesis word count.
Stage 5: Discussion and conclusion: This section returned to the aims which have framed the study. By seeking to identify the structural patterns and associations within the data, I have tried to address the research questions, consider weaknesses and limitations and future dissemination of the study.

As discussed, large amounts of qualitative data were generated in the document analysis and through the semi-structured interviews. This required particular care as much of this comprised performative public facing texts as well as interview data comprising subjective and ambiguous statements that were sometimes problematic to align to specific aspects of the framework. Relevant sections of the data set were initially aligned to specific dimensions of the framework sometimes corresponding to more than one dimension. For example, REF documents were revealing about aspects of community engaged research as well as subject-specific knowledge transfer, whilst KEF narrative statements could be mapped to both institutional behaviours as well as university-level knowledge exchange activities.

In the mapping section (chapter four) it was possible to build a picture of the different aspects of each dimension through careful reading and coding of the document data informed by the literature thus allowing the development of sub-themes within the dimension, such as around academic status, authenticity or the challenges of professionalism. These were illuminating in both responding to the research questions and for subsequent structuring of the interview schedule and interpreting the interview data, for example, in relation to the question of funding support or the geo-spatial nature of the projects. This method enabled me to triangulate findings in relation to the research questions by cutting across the different dimensions of the framework to identify relevant insights or contradictions in the discussion thus enhancing the validity of the study (see section 3.3.4).

3.5.2 Analysing the quantitative data

Whilst statistical analysis has been described as an ‘inexact, controversial and inaccessible science of little direct use to the public’ in relation to educational research (Gingell and Winch, 2002, p.75) it has also helped facilitate legitimate discussion of different issues around public accountability and performance (Mayston and Jesson, 1988). Processes, such as multi-level modelling, which is typically used to gauge effectiveness and improvement, can potentially promote formative ‘private’ developmental moments for schools, universities and individuals (Goldstein, 2020). As a mixed methods study this project also elicited quantitative data via the self-completed questionnaire. This instrument thus produced a range of descriptive statistics using multiple choice questions, Likert scales, matrix and sliders designed to capture and demonstrate a range of characteristics relating specifically to the respondents with no attempt to infer properties of the entire population.
These included:

- Respondent demographics
- Professional identity characteristics
- Attitudes to journalism education and community engagement

Descriptive statistics provide a fruitful method of analysis for new topics of study helping identify key concepts and problems. Loeb et al. (2017, p.39) have described descriptive research in this sense as capable of standing alone, relying ‘primarily on low-inference, low-assumption methods that use no or minimal statistical adjustments.’ The descriptive statistics provide further context to the qualitative findings from the document analysis, the semi-structured interviews and data from the open-ended text questions in the questionnaire. They are presented in the second section of the analysis chapter and the findings visualised using charts and tables.

### 3.6 Summary

This chapter described the methodological approach and the management of ethical issues and risks encountered during the study. I sought to describe the motivation for the project as arising from my sense of uneasiness over the future of journalism education and the desire to reconcile some of the contradictions contingent on my position as a ‘hackademic’. The chapter included a more detailed articulation of the research aims and objectives as underpinned by my own philosophical worldview, beliefs and values. My professional biography as a journalist can be seen to have informed my approach to ontology and epistemology and has been reflected in my decisions around the choice of methods such as the use of interview. My own experiences as an educator and facilitator of community engagement projects have naturally influenced my approach to analysis and conceptualisation. I have also sought to explain and justify the decisions to embark on a mixed methods study, over multiple phases, and how my approach to using different modes of reasoning to understand empirical observation of community engagement was influenced by a critical realist approach. I also sought to lay out the rationale for sampling across each unit of the population – both human and documentary. The latter focus in this chapter described the attempts to synthesise pre-existing frameworks as the primary method for categorising the data and finally discussed the different approaches taken to analysing the large amount of qualitative and quantitative data generated.
Chapter Four: Mapping the field of community engagement

4.1 Introduction

Chapters four and five will present the findings of the data gathered for this research project. The sequential research design comprised three distinct phases of data collection and fulfilled my intention to use mixed and multiple methods to respond to my research questions. It also aligned with a critical realist meta-theoretical standpoint whereby methodological approaches are informed by the nature of the object of study and the research questions (Sayer, 2000).

This chapter is based on a qualitative analysis of a range of publicly available documents. This will develop the mapping of the field of community engagement at UK HEIs and will address RQ1: In what ways can undergraduate programmes in journalism education at UK HEIs be described as community engaged? This section adopts the multi-dimensional framework previously discussed exploring research, knowledge exchange, learning and teaching, student activities and institutional factors. These dimensions of community engagement will be explored in relation to a further range of sub themes within each dimension that were developed in the analysis of the data (see appendix L for code book).

The first part of chapter five will present of the findings of an online questionnaire. This data enabled me to develop a range of descriptive statistics that provided further insight into both the characteristics of the field (RQ1) but also to begin to develop insights into (SRQ1) which seeks to understand: What promotes/inhibits community engagement in this field? It also provided data relevant to addressing RQ2: What are the affordances/limitations for community engaged journalism educational practice in UK HEIs? The second part of chapter five will present the findings of further qualitative data gathered from eight semi-structured interviews based on a purposive sample of journalism educators with an interest in community engagement. The interview schedule was broadly aligned to the three research questions and enabled me to enrich both the questionnaire data with more detailed data gleaned from appropriate professionals and to critique and challenge the more performative dimensions of the documentation analysis in chapter one.

4.2 Dimensions of community engagement in journalism education

This chapter is based on an analysis of a range of publicly available documents. As previously discussed, the aim of this mapping exercise is not to create an audit or establish metrics for measuring or ranking the effectiveness of community engaged practices in journalism education in UK HEIs. It is seen rather as an efficient and robust methodology for generating insights into a range of work that is highly-context specific. Journalism education at UKHEIs is described here as an
academic rather a social field in the classic Bourdieausian sense although notions of power, position-taking and the relationship between structure and agency are addressed within the critical realist meta-theoretical approach (Bourdieu, 1993; Sayer, 2000; Marginson, 2008). Details of the research design and methods used for developing the samples of documents were described in sections 3.3 and 3.4 whilst the analytical techniques were discussed in section 3.5.

The following documents were analysed for this study. REF impact statements

- REF UoA environment statements
- KEF public and community engagement narrative statements
- Journalism programme/course specifications

4.3 Dimension one: Research

The section considers research as a key dimension of community engaged practice in journalism education at UKHEIs. It draws primarily on two categories of documents. The first comprised 19 REF impact statements from 11 institutions whilst the second sample was composed of 11 REF environment statements from 11 institutions (see section 3.4.1 and 3.4.2 for full details of the institutions studied). All documents relate to UoA34 which contains most journalism research and were published in 2022 as part of the most recent REF cycle. Whilst REF impact statements provided the opportunity for in-depth analysis of a range of case studies of outputs in the field, the REF environment statements provided complementary fine detail on the wider context of the research culture within each institutional unit of assessment. This enabled some further insights into the supportive structures, range of staff engaged, types of practice and collaboration, as well as underlying research themes facilitating community engaged activity not captured in the impact statements.

The documents were read and then coded based on a community engagement framework (see section 3.5) and key themes that are central to the practices as understood within this project. The chart below indicates the number of references that were identified in the texts. The first section provides an overview of three general features related to journalism research which emerged in the data. These were:

- Institutional demand for research growth/quality supported by academic networks and research centres
- Characteristics of academic status
- Sources of funding
4.3.1 Overview: Journalism research at UKHEIs

Institutions expressed common aims relating to a general expansion in the quantity and quality of research outputs. This involved increasing the number of researchers and research leaders, supporting early career researchers and expanding postgraduate research provision in the field of journalism. Changes in the expectations of journalism educators in terms of being research active were apparent. Accompanying reforms of structure, policies and practices including recruitment appear explicitly designed to orient academic activities towards research and the potential funding and status rewards this may bring through the REF. This was particularly apparent in ‘cluster 3’ institutions not typically considered ‘research-intensive’.

For example:

‘At the start of this REF cycle provisions in Communications, Cultural and Media Studies at the University of Huddersfield focused on journalism training with no developed research culture.’ (University of Huddersfield, 2021).

Another ‘post-1992 institution with a large professional teaching element described how:

‘The first priority is to continue expanding our capability to create knowledge and deliver innovation by targeting specific areas of research potential and growth (such as Journalism), increasing the number and diversity of professors and associate professors and recruiting new colleagues with strong track records in research outputs and research income generation.” (Derby University, 2021a)
Membership of academic and other external networks was highlighted by most institutions as evidence of research vibrancy in the UoAs as well as demonstrating impact and influence. This included highly prestigious external staff roles on national and international subject associations, engagement with research communities as well as appointments to industry bodies such as the UK Editors Network (Uclan, 2021), the regulator IMPRESS (University of Ulster, 2021), the European Neighbourhood Journalism Network (University of Bedfordshire, 2021a) and the Diaspora Journalism Group (University of Lincoln, 2021). Journalism academics were identified as part of specialist disciplinary and multidisciplinary research groups. These may be within the subject area, such as the Journalism Research Group (University of Derby, 2021a), within the UoAs, or aligned to research themes or challenges in the wider institution and with researchers or industry groups nationally and internationally. These have been described as successful in leveraging research grants, such as the Centre for Community Journalism (Cardiff University, 2021b), promoting advocacy work (Goldsmiths, 2021) or developing new knowledge in specialist areas such as international crisis reporting (City University of London, 2021a) or promoting journalism safety (University of Sheffield, 2021b).

4.3.2 Academic status

One of my early assumptions was that academic status would be a factor in understanding the research landscape in the field. This was based on my perception of the highly performative nature of the REF process, its centrality in attracting research funding and its powerful role inferring institutional status on a university within a competitive higher education system. It therefore seemed likely that institutions would seek to present the kind of research that was most likely to score well according to REF assessment criteria. The notion of accumulative advantage, which presupposes more experienced academics benefit from their longevity and legacy of prestige within an institution, suggested that the most senior researchers in the field would therefore be best represented in the public documentation (Abramo, D’Angelo and Murgia, 2016). This was borne out by analysis of the REF impact statements which revealed a significant weighting in favour of the most senior academics (see table 10). It was also noted that whilst contributors to the REF are not required to self-identify in terms of gender, internet searches of submitting academics revealed a slight imbalance in favour of men of 20:19.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Impact statements</th>
<th>Professor</th>
<th>Associate prof/ reader/principal academic</th>
<th>Senior lecturer</th>
<th>Lecturer</th>
<th>Research assistant</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10: Academic status by submission of REF impact case studies. NB: total number of contributing academics n = 39. Some academics were submitted more than once and some research was multi-authored.
4.3.3 Funding

The REF impact statements were able to provide insight into sources of funding in the field of journalism research. There was no formal requirement for submissions to include full details of funding and in some instances grant and financial support was either presented as an indicative sample or not included in the narrative statement, corroborating sources or underpinning research information. The data revealed a range of external as well as internal funding streams available to researchers. External sources were characterised as international, national or local/regional (see table 11). The Arts Humanities Research Council (AHRC) took a leading role in funding journalism research – accounting for £2.43m of the £3.99m identified in the documentation or approximately 62% of the total value. EU Horizon funded two projects (£650,709), whilst the BBC and communications regulator Ofcom were also significant supporters of research. This suggests the future of research in the field is exposed to political influence – such as the UK’s membership of Horizon which is subject to ongoing negotiation, funding of the BBC, Channel 4 (C4) and potential changes to the media regulatory framework.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>External</th>
<th>National</th>
<th>Local/regional</th>
<th>Institutional</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>International</strong></td>
<td><strong>National</strong></td>
<td><strong>Local/regional</strong></td>
<td><strong>Institutional</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EU/Horizon</td>
<td>UK funding councils (AHRC, ESRC, EPSRC, NERC)</td>
<td>Industry/professional practice</td>
<td>Sabbatical, buyout, workload measures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNESCO/international development agencies</td>
<td>UK and national government (direct) British Council</td>
<td>Community companies</td>
<td>Strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intl governments eg. SFHSS</td>
<td>Targeted funds:</td>
<td>Charities</td>
<td>Prizes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intl foundations</td>
<td>Newton/Global Challenges Research fund*</td>
<td>Non-standard sources eg. crowdfunding</td>
<td>Specialist funds/staff development (ECRs)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Global business eg. Google</td>
<td>HEIF (knowledge exchange) National cultural organisations eg. BBC/C4</td>
<td></td>
<td>Local QR funding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Regulators: Ofcom Industry/professional practice eg. publishers (Reach) Professional bodies/research networks eg. AJE/NCTJ Trades unions Third sector Campaign/advocacy groups</td>
<td></td>
<td>Faculty/ school Network/clusters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Individual contacts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-graduate Doctoral school (UKRI)/external doctorate funding</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 11: Sources of journalism research funding by types. *Replaced by International Science Partnership Fund
Indicative figures for the value of funded research were revealed in 19 impact case studies based on a sample of 11 institutions (see table 11). Not all impact case studies were accompanied by details of the value of funding grants.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BBC</th>
<th>Ofcom</th>
<th>AHRC</th>
<th>British Academy</th>
<th>EU Horizon</th>
<th>QR GCRF</th>
<th>FCO SIDA</th>
<th>SFHSS</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>£325,845</td>
<td>£2,430,391</td>
<td>£50,932</td>
<td>£650,709</td>
<td>£15,000</td>
<td>£450,000</td>
<td>£64,000</td>
<td>£3,986,877</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 12: Indicative funding value based on REF impact case studies.

4.3.4 Community-engaged research

The following two sub dimensions have been identified as key signifiers of community engaged research (Farnell et al., 2020).

- Research which meets societal needs of external communities.
- Collaborative/participatory research conducted in co-operation with the university’s external communities.

Again, the documents used for this section of the analysis primarily comprised the REF impact and the REF UoA environment statements. However, the community engagement narratives submitted as part of the KEF also informed this section. Three key areas were recorded in the coding of the documents which might be considered as practices meeting societal needs. These were:

- Enhancing editorial (journalism) practice
- Promoting the public sphere
- Advocating for social justice

Areas of practice were also identified as occurring either internationally, nationally or locally (see table 13)
4.3.5 Societal impact: Enhancing (journalism) editorial practices.

Changing editorial practice was privileged as an impactful outcome in much of the journalistic research under analysis. The University of Leicester (2021), for example, described its UoA34 research, as ‘oriented to real world relevance and impact’ stating that 20 academics had acted as consultants and advisors to ‘grassroots and community media organisations’. Another institution described how its research unit had achieved ‘significant research impacts … (C) changing journalistic organisational policies through advanced understandings of the impact of new digital technologies on the practice and management of news organisations’ (University of Central Lancashire, 2021a). Meanwhile, the University of Stirling (2021) characterised a reciprocal relationship in which dialogue with practitioners would ‘inform(s) research ideas and, in turn, media and communications research helps shape practitioner conception of the challenges they face.’

It was striking how the impact statements evidenced ways in which researchers had sought to respond to international and global societal needs. One project, for example, aimed to ‘transform the scale and quality of citizen journalism activity documenting the Syrian uprising-war and preserved the work of these citizen photographers and videographers’ (Birmingham City University, 2021a). A second impact case study was described as leading to ‘a world-first dedicated disaster journalism policy at the Kamana Group, a major (Nepalese) media house’. This had led to enhanced ‘news industry cooperation with national disaster management and response planning’ as well as garnering
governmental and institutional ‘support for disaster journalism and protecting journalists during Covid-19 in Nepal’ (Bournemouth University, 2021a). Global South journalistic communities and audiences were similarly the beneficiaries of a University of Sheffield (2021a) project aimed at ‘changing the policies and practices of radio studios, professionals, media experts, and women’s associations’ in Niger as well as ‘shaping the practices of the Swiss-based media development organisation Fondation Hirondelle’ which operates in war affected and post-conflict countries globally.

A national approach to enhancing editorial practice was evident in Cardiff University’s longstanding association with the BBC, having produced six ‘Impartiality Reviews’ commissioned by the corporation’s governing board. This was part of a wider body of work exploring accuracy, impartiality and devolution in national media, with particular focus on the UK national broadcaster. This, it was asserted, had resulted in the ‘reshaping of broadcasters’ editorial guidelines and practices’ (Cardiff University, 2021a). Institutional level change in BBC editorial policy was said to have been brought about as the result of a research project by City University (2021b) inspired by a lack of ‘expert women’ used by the corporation in broadcast programming and which was credited as leading to the development of the BBC’s 50:50 Project – a data driven equality initiative designed to ‘consistently create journalism and media content that fairly represents our world’ (BBC, no date).’ Loughborough University submitted a REF impact statement entitled ‘Improving the Accuracy and Impartiality of the BBC’s Coverage of Rural Issues in the UK’. This commissioned study involved a large-scale content analysis exploring ‘metropolitan bias’ in the BBC’s news coverage and was described as resulting in new staff appointments and changes to workplace practices supporting rural affairs.

4.3.6 Societal impact: Public sphere and social justice

One of the motivating factors for this project was to explore the democratic possibilities for journalism education in UK HEIs, a potentiality which is contingent on the concept of the public sphere as an intermediary space between citizens and governments in which rational debate may occur. The language of the public sphere was well evidenced in the documents under study. For example, one research strategy articulated in a UoA environment statement aimed:

‘To maintain and develop our research culture to generate impactful research that contributes to the creation and maintenance of diverse, pluralistic and democratic media environments and societies’ (The University of Huddersfield, 2021).

The University of Leeds (2021) noted that it had been ‘recognised as a major locus for political communication research since the 1960s, focusing upon studies of media and democracy.’ At
Goldsmiths, University of London (2021), research revealed trends in UK media that ‘significantly undermine the ability of media to act as a ‘fourth estate’, holding power to account and acting as an independent intermediary between citizens and the state.’ Cardiff University (2021b) was distinctive in its focus on ‘fostering and developing local community news in the UK’. It argued:

‘Independent community news outlets play an important democratic role in UK communities left behind by the decline in traditional print media. Cardiff researchers identified challenges faced by this sector, including economic precarity and a lack of training and support.’ (ibid.)

Social justice discourses have become firmly established in higher education at institutional as well as national and international policy level covering a wide range of philosophical positions and embracing diverse issues of inclusivity in terms of race, gender and ability in a globalised society (Singh, 2011). I was interested to see how this tendency was evidenced in the documentation and ways in which this might be seen as a dimension of community engaged research. Social justice approaches may, of course, overlap with the desire to address societal needs through research and wider engagement as well as embodying concern for the reform and repair of the public sphere. However, there was evidence of a desire amongst researchers to address issues that may be seen to relate to demands for wider social justice aims including disadvantaged groups. For example, Goldsmiths, University of London (2021) described how its work sought to address ‘declines in the levels of trust in media, a phenomenon that is particularly acute for those on low incomes, BAME audiences and young people’. Social justice imperatives were also formalised in wider frameworks. For example, some research strategies in the units were guided by the United Nation’s Sustainable Development Goals (SDG). De Montfort University (2021) described conducting work:

‘...with particular reference to SDG 16 (Peace, Justice and Strong Institutions), exemplified for instance in our work on social movements, protest, peace journalism, the mediation of far-right politics, and feminist public culture’.

Glasgow Caledonian (2021) also aligned its research strategy to the SDG through its ‘general engagement with the societal challenge of ‘inclusive societies’ and within that the theme of ‘Social Justice, Equalities and Communities’. Social justice focussed research was also aligned to institutional missions such as the notion of the civic university as a ‘progressive force for societal change locally and, where possible, beyond’ (University of Ulster, 2021). Ulster academics in UoA 34 were therefore able to:

‘... publish research and engage in civic spaces in order to inspire and motivate the critique of inequality and precarious labour in the regional economy .... to focus attention on those politically marginalized whether on the basis of class or ethno-religious background .... gender and sexuality .... or race’. (ibid.)
4.3.7 Collaboration and participatory research

Authentic community engaged research has been described as antipathetic to allegedly more instrumental approaches encouraged by evaluative frameworks such as the REF (Marji and Pain, 2022). This study therefore provided an opportunity to explore the participatory, collaborative and reflexive dimensions of research practice in the field. The documents revealed a wide range of practice with different communities using diverse methodologies. Some involved open-ended, ongoing and deep democratic engagement with communities whilst others embraced approaches with less explicit emphasis or transparency over participatory co-production practices that had taken place particularly that involving the subjects of rather than the end users of research.

For example, De Montfort University’s Media Discourse Centre (MDC), which includes journalism academics, high-profile visiting professors and research associates from media industries, described its collaboration with the radical charity Global Witness highlighting illegal logging in Myanmar as ‘one its strongest external links’ resulting in several research and media outputs (De Montfort University, 2021). The University of Leicester (2021) cited the diversity of its research staff, who come from 13 nationalities, as ‘crucial in supporting our commitment to conducting interdisciplinary, collaborative research on ‘real world’ problems with impactful outcomes across the Global North and South’. This included an EU-commissioned international collaborative research project exploring the media’s role in migration patterns and violent extremism in the Horn of Africa.

The University of Huddersfield (2021) highlighted a strategic approach to impact across the UoA34 subject area which aligned to the Concordat for Public Engagement with Research (CPER). It said this ‘operates along the principle that impact is often best generated by producing research in consultation and collaboration with user communities’ (ibid.). The University of Ulster (2021), meanwhile, described ‘transformative impact through collaborative and co-creative practices’ and its ‘participatory/collaborative media practice and … research as a starting point for engaging in civic and impactful projects with marginalised groups in Northern Ireland’.

The Check Global project (Birmingham City University, 2021a) reported collaboration with a US-based technology organisation and 20 civil society groups in the Global South. Project partners were engaged across the research process including in the ‘design and delivery of quantitative and qualitative evaluation methods customised for the realities and particular challenges they face in their own contexts’ (ibid.) Research aims included the identification of ‘solutions that were produced by and through grassroot community partners’ (ibid.)

A study of radio station output in the Sahel adopted what might be considered the most
explicit participatory approach. It reported:

‘... a novel, holistic, mixed-methods approach with strong participatory engagement from international and in-country stakeholders at all levels, including strategic partners, media organisations, civil society leaders, radio listeners, communities, donors, and academics. This approach includes listener focus groups before and after a series of women-related programmes, a content analysis of the broadcasts, and a series of knowledge exchange workshops with civil society and media experts.’ (The University of Sheffield, 2021a)

4.3.8 Dimension summary

Research is a key dimension of community engagement and the REF system provided an expansive and readily accessible data set for analysis. The performative nature of the documents was noted and the findings were contextualised within evidence of an expansion in the demand for research in the field of journalism per se. A range of policies had been enacted at institutional and unit of assessment level to facilitate this process. The demand for increased research intensity potentially exposes journalism educators from industry backgrounds, so called ‘hackademics’, to future job insecurity whilst the submission of the most senior and well-funded academics’ work may indicate that the data offers only a partial reflection of research being conducted in the field. The findings suggest the need to address the competitive design of the metric frameworks and to find new ways to showcase less ‘REFable’ work which may be engaged in unglamorous domestic grassroots participatory projects. The relationship between impact and funding, star rating requirements in peer-reviewed journals and inequitable access to some research funding by less prestigious institutions, reinforce the continued dominance of current academic capitalism models whereby the most powerful players cultivate the most successful (and longstanding) relationships with the key funders whilst institutions and individuals operating outside the Premier League of top researchers may - at best – simply be overlooked by the data or ignored. Institutional discourses around democratic-public sphere and social justice are well evidenced in the findings and there is reason to suggest these themes provide a potential ‘route to impact’ for researchers in the field and so align with some of the key characteristics of community engaged journalism research and practice.

4.4 Dimension two: Knowledge Exchange

Knowledge exchange is described as a two-way process in which universities collaborate with non-academic external partners to create and disseminate useful knowledge for the benefit of the economy and society (UKRI, no date a). For academics it is sometimes described as offering a ‘route
to impact’ – increasing the visibility and accessibility of research and maximising its potential to affect the world outside the academy (LSE, no date). Critics have described the KEF which measures and scores academic activity as one of a range of instrumental neo-liberal tools, which along with REF, promotes particular values and aims (Watermeyer and Chubb, 2019), whilst others have seen its potential for promoting more socially valuable engagement despite limitations and academic resistance (Johnson, 2022). Knowledge exchange activities for the purposes of this study include not only the provision of expert knowledge through consultancy but the hosting of public events and the sharing of facilities and equipment with wider publics (UKRI, no date b). This section will explore knowledge exchange as a dimension of community engagement by describing a range of knowledge exchange activities identified in the document analysis. The primary documents used here were the 19 REF impact statements and the 11 UoA environment narratives which provided subject level data as well as the 12 KEF public and community engagement narratives which focused on institutional level activities.

These activities were consolidated into two key areas:

- Activism which included efforts to influence policy or media collaboration.
- Resources for communities created to support specified objectives including societal change and impact.

Table 14: Knowledge exchange: coding chart

4.4.1 Academic activism

Submissions in both sets of documents suggested that academic staff were alert to the
importance of knowledge exchange as a route to impactful research.
For example:

‘Our staff are encouraged to disseminate their research and knowledge through public talks, exhibitions, film and cultural festivals, blogging, media appearances, media training initiatives, consultancy and secondment with private, public and third sector organisations, engaging with media policy and regulatory agencies and sitting on media award panels.’ (University of Stirling, 2021)

But it was also apparent that academics and institutions were prepared to take a more ‘activist’ approach to knowledge exchange. Academic activism embraces the dichotomy between theory and practice, ‘real world’ and ‘ivory tower’ (Syson, 2020). It may also challenge hegemonic structures and neo-liberal management policies within the HE sector itself (Erickson et al., 2021; Hanna et al., 2022).

This form of engagement assumes a critical even political dimension to academic activism and suggests the potential at least for genuinely transformative democratic approaches to academic practice being supported within the KEF.

The study found that academics subscribed to ‘a model of academic praxis in which critical inquiry feeds into and is informed by practical interventions that result in concrete actions for reform’ (Goldsmiths, University of London, 2021). This manifested itself in a range of high-profile formal and semi-formal roles for journalism educators. These included the first UNESCO Chair on Media Freedom, Journalism Safety and the Issue of Impunity as well as advisory positions at the European Alliance of Listeners' and Viewers' Associations (Euralva), World Association of Newspapers and News Publishers’ Global Alliance for Media Innovation (GAMI), IMPRESS and the Thomson Foundation UK.

Collaborative research centres within the university appear to have further enhanced institutional permeability and the ability to engage with wider knowledge exchange aims. Cardiff University’s Centre for Community Journalism (C4CJ) successfully advocated on behalf of the community news sector to share content provided by the BBC’s 150 local democracy reporters (Cardiff University, 2021b) Similarly, the C4CJ played a representative role in securing funding from the Welsh and Scottish Governments to help the sector during the pandemic including seeking access for micro publishers to Government advertising revenues in England. The Centre for Freedom of the Media (CFOM) at Sheffield University was also credited with providing a vehicle for ‘shaping the Implementation Strategy of UNESCO’s UN Plan of Action (UNAP) on the Safety of Journalists and the Issue of Impunity’ (The University of Sheffield, 2021b)

Claims to have influenced policy as a route to societal impact emerged consistently in the documentation. This area is problematic as there is little agreement on appropriate metrics to evaluate impacts on policy in the context of REF 2021 or in the wider higher education sector (UK Parliament, 2021). However, in terms of knowledge exchange, the data suggested that attempts to
influence policy were also closely aligned to academic expert roles. For example, one impact case study entitled ‘Promoting the Public Interest in Communication Policy’ (University of Westminster, 2021a), described how an academic:

‘...made significant contributions to policy recommendations concerning the undertaking of the 2016 BBC Charter Review and played a direct role in the shaping of the public service broadcasting policy debate through his appointment as the specialist adviser to The House of Lords’ Communications and Digital Committee.’ (ibid.).

Academics from a range of universities (University of Huddersfield, 2021; UCLan, 2021a; University of East London, 2021 and Goldsmiths, University of London, 2021) were all cited as having engaged in the influential Cairncross Review into the Future of Journalism in the UK (2019)

Whilst not specifically considered a knowledge exchange activity under the terms of the KEF, media appearances, commentary and contacts were included as evidence of impact as well as illustrating the richness of the research environment. This provides unique opportunity for journalism academics with professional media skills to engage with external communities whilst disseminating expert knowledge. For example:

‘Our research appears regularly in the press, including articles in the Financial Times, BBC News website, Metro Online, Wired, International Business Times, Media Lawyer, Yorkshire Post, Hold the Front Page and Yorkshire Evening Post, as well as in articles for The Conversation reaching a total of 131,778 readers.’ (University of Huddersfield, 2021)

The Conversation describes itself as ‘an independent source of news analysis and informed comment written by academic experts, working with professional journalists who help share their knowledge with the world’ (The Conversation, no date). The website, to which universities pay to publish, was identified six times in the environment statements and twice in the community engagement narratives. The University of East Anglia (2021) said engagement with the website enabled academics to share research ‘insights and expertise.’ whilst PhD students at the University of Stirling (2021) were able ‘to attend training on writing for news outlets.’

Loughborough University (2021a) reported that it had used ‘selected contacts’ in the national and international media to promote the work on the BBC by its Centre for Researchers in Communication and Culture (CRCC) by sending out advance copies of reports and through press releases and podcasts. Engagement with journalists by academics at City University (2021b) was even deeper. After initially promoting the findings of its investigation into the underrepresentation of women experts in radio news programmes though the TV industry trade magazine Broadcast, it organised a series of ‘Women on Air’ conferences attended by ‘politicians, academics, and, crucially, the editors of the programmes monitored.’ (ibid.)
4.4.2 Journalistic resources for communities

The creation of resources for communities, like activism, was underpinned by expert knowledge. This form of exchange activity is not unique to journalism education and is likely to inform many forms of engagement with non-academic communities both at a disciplinary and institutional level. However, resources produced by the work of journalism academics were distinctive in that they addressed the needs of journalism professionals, audiences and students – often embracing a wider democratic commitment to promoting and repairing the public sphere. These engaged societal needs internationally, nationally and locally as previously described. For example, a ‘suicide reporting toolkit’ was designed as a resource for journalistic communities including professional practitioners, educators and students aimed to enhance the safe and ethical reporting of suicide across all media forms (Bournemouth University, 2021b). Meanwhile, ‘open-source verification tools’ were created to develop citizen journalists’ skills in the documentation of war crimes in Syria and Yemen (Birmingham City University, 2021a). These resources were distributed digitally thus enhancing their reach and potential impact. An online course created to support the global grassroots news sector was used in 131 countries (Cardiff University, 2021b) whilst a ‘Field Guide’ comprising an open-access set of original digital methods for the practical investigation and visualisation of flows of online misinformation had similar global reach (King’s College, London, 2021). Online resources were also designed for international media professionals, students, and civil society groups in challenging gender-based inequality in global media industries (University of Newcastle, 2021)

4.4.3 Dimension summary

Journalism educators engaged in a wide range of activity which brought expert knowledge produced in the academy into contact with wider publics and provided a means to address a range of societal problems. It was also notable that engagement captured in the data could assume critical forms – challenging hegemonic structures - despite concerns over the prevalence of an audit or performative culture within the academy and the potential limitations imposed by metrics systems such as REF and KEF.

4.5 Dimension three: Learning and teaching

The next section explores the question of community engagement in journalism in relation to learning and teaching. Often referred to as the ‘first mission’ of the academy (Laredo, 2007) learning and teaching in a community engaged context may be seen to have broader aims that reach beyond traditional notions of providing either public or private economic goods. The range of learning and teaching activities considered to be community engaged has expanded and may include service, lifelong learning and the engagement of external groups in the development of curricula and teaching
To address the primary research question, I read and coded the sample of 11 programme specification documents (see section 3.4.4). These are publicly facing documents available through institutional websites designed to address different audiences including students, and to enhance the use of benchmarking as well as develop frameworks supporting minimum service levels and quality standards. It should be noted that not all institutions make programme specification documents readily available and course information is often presented in various aggregated forms on institutional websites. The programme documents discovered, were augmented by the analysis of public and community engagement narratives submitted as part of KEF 2022 which provided an institutional level perspective where appropriate.

Two top-level themes were developed in the analysis. The first focused on the area of professionalism, industry and employability and how these were promoted through accreditation arrangements, learning facilities, staff biographies and skills provision. The second area concerned more explicitly community-focused activity, the question of authenticity and the use of external facing media as learning and teaching tools. The final part of this section will explore potential tensions between the critical study of the media and journalism - including journalism practices, values and ethics - and professional training.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>References in the texts</th>
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<td>Criticality</td>
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</tr>
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</table>

Table 15: Learning and teaching coding chart
4.5.1 Professionalism

Professionalism is a problematic concept to define with wide-ranging conflation and overlap of related ideas such as industry, skills and competence. One useful definition, however, is that in a higher education context it can be viewed as a ‘process of learning, relating and behaving’ rather than the ownership of a discrete set of acquired skills (Bader and Salinas, 2017, p.101). At institutional level the goal of professionalism is highly sought after. The University of Sunderland (2021), for example, describes how its strategic plan is informed by a ‘career-focused and professions-facing emphasis to our teaching’. Programme documents also suggest the aims of ‘equipping students with the key skills for professional careers in journalism or other areas of the media’ (City University, no date); engendering ‘professional agility’ in students (Goldsmiths, University of London, 2020), facilitating the ability to ‘provide students with a fuller range of professional competences and knowledge relevant to journalism’ (Kingston University, 2019) or the development of ‘an awareness of professional values, ethical codes and regulatory frameworks governing practitioners of journalism’ (University of Portsmouth, 2021).

One of the key questions facing any journalism programme is whether it should be accredited. Although none of the bodies described have statutory powers, accreditation may be seen as a primary form of engagement with the wider journalistic community as well as a potential route to enhanced professionalism. Of the 11 programme specification documents studied here, four of the programmes were accredited by either the National Council for the Training of Journalists (NCTJ), the Broadcast Journalism Training Council (BJTC), the Periodical Training Council (PTC) or all three. This agrees broadly with Cantor’s (2015) finding that around a third of all post and undergraduate journalism programmes are accredited and reflects the importance attached to PSRBs by institutions as a means of enabling programmes to compete in a crowded marketplace whilst also appearing to meet potential employer expectations.

Accreditation here operated in the data as a form of ‘kitemarking’ seeking to assure students that they would acquire key journalistic skills during their periods of study. For example, Leeds University (2022) stated that:

‘The programme provides students with a consistent focus on journalism leading to the acquisition of journalistic skills and knowledge necessary to work in the industry. The programme meets the requirements for accreditation by the Broadcast Journalism Training Council.’

Portsmouth similarly aligned a specific programme outcome enabling students to ‘meet professional and practical standards equivalent to the NCTJ Diploma in Journalism.’ At an institutional level, Leeds Trinity University (2021) cited accreditation per se as a factor underpinning its ability to deliver on ‘the
three themes of its strategic plan: building our community and bringing about greater inclusivity, ensuring sustainability, and delivering quality and societal impact.’ However, some of the sector ambivalence and tensions over accreditation and its continued value to programmes in the face of the digital transformation of the industry was reflected by Bournemouth University (2021c) which is accredited by all three bodies. It stated:

‘The scope of ambition for our journalists far exceeds the skills-based demands of our accreditation councils and continues to be a key source of interest and communication with employers.’

Skills can be viewed as ‘the norms, techniques, procedures, attitudes, and abilities that future graduates acquire as they go through university, to perform their professional functions appropriately’ (Aranda, Mena-Rodríguez and Rubio, 2022 p.1). The demand for skills is an increasing feature of global, technologically driven workplaces such as those found in journalism (Hubbard, Kang and Crawford, 2016). Two different groups of skill sets emerged in the documents. Firstly, students develop skills in relation to key journalistic production processes and professional practices. For example, students ‘will ‘develop skills as a news gatherer, features writer and editors. In addition, ... learn to both produce and present your journalism across media platforms’ (University of Bedfordshire, no date). Secondly, they are said to acquire ‘soft’ skills – a broad definition which may be seen to include diverse competencies such as collaboration with fellow students (York St John University, 2022) and equipping graduates with the ‘necessary transferable skills for lifelong learning, employability and flexibility in the context of changing labour markets and the growing importance of global engagement’ (Birmingham City University, 2022). This was encapsulated in Goldsmiths, University of London’s, (2020) notion of ‘professional agility’ – described as ‘the capability to modify and adapt behaviours and approaches to better meet challenges’ both in and outside journalism’.

4.5.2 Authenticity and ‘real-world’ learning

Professionalism and the development of skills may be understood here in terms of demands for authentic education. Conceptualisations of authenticity in higher education can be defined as generating ‘real-life tasks and creating environments which reflect the manner in which the knowledge will be used in real-world contexts’ (Ornellas et al. 2018 p 115). The discourse around ‘real-world’ learning is also clearly evidenced in the data but focused primarily, though not exclusively, on the professional-industrial rather than the community setting for the exercise of journalism skills. For example, students are promised that ‘(M)uch of the time you will be producing work for real products – social media, public websites, printed publications, live briefs for clients, live productions, work experience and so forth’ (York St John University, 2022).
One way of replicating ‘real-world’ environments is in the use of external facing media platforms in which students can publish, share or broadcast their work. These covered a range of different media seeking engagement with both student and general public audiences.

Examples of the media created included:

- University news websites
- Independent community websites
- An OFCOM regulated broadcast television channel
- Campus radio stations and newspapers

Another dimension of institutional drive to demonstrate professionalism and authenticity was the emphasis placed on academic staff professional biographies with little mention of research prowess (see 4.3.1). For example:

‘The academic staff team is made up of practising journalists who have worked at a range of national and international newspapers, news agencies, publishers and broadcasting companies...’ (Kingston University, 2019)

Similarly promoted was the real-world environment in which journalism was taught. The University Campus of Football Business (UCFB), for example provides sports journalism degrees at the Wembley and Etihad Stadiums – ‘professional environments reflective of that in which students aspire to work’ (UCFB, 2021). The high cost, technological quality and privileged access to prestigious facilities are also routinely highlighted with documents describing ‘dedicated’ and ‘industry standard’ production facilities (York St John University, 2022) or the ‘£62 million Parkside Building (where) - you can take the first steps to a career in journalism’ (Birmingham City University, 2022).

Institutions also emphasised the availability and/or requirement to complete work placement as a means of enhancing employability and as evidence of professionalism and authenticity. At a programme level this mirrors institutional commitment to work based learning. For the University of Derby (2021b), for example, the first ‘pillar’ of its strategic plan describes ‘an undergraduate and postgraduate curriculum that is industry relevant and shaped through engagement with external partners in charities and businesses.’ A central component of this is the provision of work placement and volunteering opportunities via a dedicated engagement team and accountable to university leaders. At programme level, successful completion of a work placement may address externally set criteria such as meeting accreditation requirements or demonstrating ‘professional behaviour and produc(ing) appropriate professional work’ (Bournemouth, 2021c). It may also meet the requirements of a sandwich degree programme or provide students with the opportunity ‘to link their engagement
with industry and the academy in a range of contexts’ (Leeds University, 2022).

Professionalism is thus inferred as a route into ‘industry’ and graduate employment. To demonstrate this, graduate destinations including lists of broadcasters and publishers where it is reported alumni now work, are often listed. It is noticeable that the documents are silent on detailing ways in which students may be financially remunerated during work placement, receive wider wellbeing support whilst working away from the institution or explain ways in which work placement opportunities may be quality assured thus raising wider questions around potential exploitation or misrepresentation.

4.5.3 Criticality

Criticality has become a central concept in higher education and has been described as underpinning the pursuit of truth and the development of students’ social and intellectual capacities (Dunne, 2015). Barnett (1990, p.5) called criticality a form of both ‘social and personal epistemology’ involving a range of practices including critical thinking, analytical reasoning, critical self-reflection and critical action. It can be seen as equipping students for life but also as a way of life in itself and thus fundamental to democracy (Dewey, 2022).

In the programme specifications, students are promised opportunities to critically evaluate a wide range of journalistic practices and contexts. These include the ethical, legal and socio-political frameworks within which journalists operate and to apply these insights to their practice. For example, students are asked to: ‘Create work that develops and/or challenges current trends in industry, the marketplace and professional environments through an acute awareness of audience and diverse contemporary contexts’ (Falmouth, 2021). Another feature of the documents was the role of critical self-reflection, notably in relation to ethics and values. Goldsmiths (2020) expresses the desire for:

‘... all our students to become critical and self-reflective thinkers, with a set of skills and personal values that will be of benefit in the future, whether in employment or whether undertaking further studies.’

Self-reflection and experiential learning are also characteristic of programmes’ different pedagogical approaches which seek to balance sometimes competing or even contradictory dimensions such as critique and professionalism, ethics and marketplace, theory and practice.

4.5.4 Dimension summary

The data suggests learning and teaching in journalism at UK HEIs clearly privileges notions of professionalism, practical skill acquisition and industry links including accreditation arrangements, and high-quality facilities. These are embedded in learning and teaching processes and are persuasively expressed in the publicly available documents. Not only are these presented as desirable features for potential students in linking the experience of studying journalism at university to the ‘real-world’ of
work but they mirror the growth across the academy of a separate ‘employability mission’, articulated initially by Dearing (1997) – one which has become central to the function of universities and the wider political economy (McCowan, 2015). However, a range of other pedagogic features are evidenced in the programme specifications both prized in the practice of journalism but which may also be regarded as transferable skills equipping students for lifelong learning. The focus in the documents is generally but not exclusively on professional notions of skill acquisition as a route to graduate employment rather than developing processes of learning aligned explicitly to community engagement practices. External engagement is seen as a means of reassuring students of the value of an institution’s learning and teaching as well as a method for promoting courses in the competitive educational marketplace. Similarly evident are processes of engaging students in deeper questions of their role as ethical and creative practitioners capable of critiquing inequitable contexts and structures whilst ‘becoming more fully human’ (Ornellas, Falkner and Stålbrandt 2019, p.215) through criticality and self-reflection, however these play a secondary role to the promise of a future job in journalism.

4.6 Dimension four: Student activities

Documents used for this analysis primarily comprised the 12 KEF public community engagement narratives. These were augmented with 11 REF environment statements, which provided data on unit of assessment level activities whilst 19 REF impact statements gave complementary insight at research project level. Student engagement activities in the context of community engagement can be understood as when students directly address the needs of external communities through independent engagement, student organisation, activism or similar means (Farnell, 2020.) Whilst there was evidence of student engagement in a range of activities described variously as ‘student-led’ (University of East London, 2021) or ‘student-centred’ (University of Derby, 2021a) there was much more limited data that could identify these as explicitly student-initiated activities. Another limiting factor for this study was that few initiatives were directly related to journalism education but rather institution wide. The amount of data available in relation to student activities was considerably less than for the other dimensions and so was collated under a single code (see table 13) and a broad typology of activities is offered below. It should be noted that many of the community engagement narratives were strongly influenced by institutional responses to Covid although these have not been included in the findings.
Table 16: coding chart for student activities

The following student activities received a range of support from both institution, faculty and external sources.

- Collaborative working with external partners including innovation challenges with businesses as part of a formal student knowledge exchange programme (University of Kent, 2021) or through individual projects (University of Sunderland, 2021)
- Co-production of media artefacts with local organisations and businesses. These included a book celebrating the anniversary of city status (University of Derby, 2021a) and students acting as researchers for film and media monitoring projects (University of Stirling, 2021)
- Collaborative training workshops among students from different institutions in the Global South (Birmingham City University, 2021a)
- Volunteering, paid outreach, placement, mentoring and internship activities (Bournemouth University, 2021d; Birmingham City University, 2021b; Leeds Trinity University, 2021).
- ‘Student-led’ research networks promoting knowledge exchange and supporting employability, entrepreneurship and enterprise (University of East London, 2021; City University, 2021c; University of Bedfordshire, 2021c; Buckinghamshire New University, 2021)

Community engagement activities were reported to be embedded in students’ programmes of study (Leeds Trinity University, 2021) whilst other institutions also enabled students to benefit from engagement such as through employability schemes promoted centrally and externally (Birmingham City University, 2021b). Bournemouth University (2021d) described how students could ‘achieve recognition and rewards via the Community Action Network’ and were acknowledged as student ambassadors at an annual awards event. Intriguingly, the socio-economic make-up of existing community networks of students was seen as an institutional asset and opportunity, such as in terms of widening participation (University of Sunderland, 2021). This was strikingly described by the University of Derby (2021) which linked this aspect of community engagement to one of the core strategies of the university:
'Our pedagogical Research Strategy capitalises upon the diverse socio-economic community of UoD students, typical of post-1992 universities, including a relatively high proportion of mature and part-time students with current or previous careers. Most come from the Region and already have strong links with its social and cultural life and are therefore a less transient body than at universities with wider national intakes.'

4.6.1 Dimension summary

A range of student activities were identified in the data. These fit broadly into the five types of activities identified above and enabled students to engage with international, national and local communities. These activities received a variety of sources of support, notably at institutional level, with universities required/encouraged through the KEF public and community engagement narrative to collate and publicise evidence for these activities. Student engagement was described as embedded in programmes of study and supported by a range of more formal organisations and staff (see next dimension). Whilst there was some evidence of students initiating activity (University of Stirling, 2021) it was difficult to ascertain the degree to which these activities are genuinely collaborative with staff or communities, or student led. Whilst some institutions acknowledged the diversity and socio-geographic disadvantage of the student body, there is limited evidence of consideration of factors which might limit students’ ability to engage with communities or engagement activities such as the pressure to carry out paid work, indebtedness or mental and physical health challenges.

4.7 Dimension five: University level community engagement

Large volumes of data were readily available in seeking to identify different dimensions of institutional level engagement. The primary sources used in this section were the public community engagement narratives. These are lengthy documents submitted as part of the KEF 2021. Here universities were required to self-assess across a range of metrics and represent these findings within a quasi-competitive benchmarking system. It can be inferred that this process elicited considerable institutional resources or even the use of external consultants in the production of the statements as has been described in the response to REF and its predecessors (Watermeyer and Chubb, 2019). UK HEIs were organised into seven ‘clusters’ with broadly similar characteristics in relation to size, research intensity and subject specialism, such as STEM or Arts. They were then required to self-assess against seven different ‘perspectives’ including public and community engagement, which was supported with the submission of the narrative statement. Institutions were then ranked in relation to their cluster using a quintile system measuring engagement levels from very low to very high. Institutions could then be measured against similar institutions and against the cluster average. This
data has been included in table 17. Community engagement narratives were analysed in a sample that included a range of journalism teaching universities informed by Boliver’s (2015) clusters. Three of the universities fell below their benchmark cluster average for community engagement (as defined by KEF) whilst five exceeded and three achieved the cluster average.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cluster</th>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(Cluster average)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>University of Kent</td>
<td>Low (med)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>University of East Anglia</td>
<td>Med (med)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>University of Derby</td>
<td>High (med)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>University of Sunderland</td>
<td>Low (med)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>University of Lincoln</td>
<td>V high (med)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>University of Central Lancashire (UCLan)</td>
<td>High (med)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>City University</td>
<td>Med (med)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bournemouth University</td>
<td>Med (med)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Birmingham City University</td>
<td>V high (med)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>University of Bedfordshire</td>
<td>V high (med)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Buckinghamshire New University</td>
<td>Low (low)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Leeds Trinity University</td>
<td>Very low (low)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 17: Sample institutions by community engagement ranking with cluster average in brackets.

The narratives were read and coded using the following themes. Initial low-level codes were consolidated into higher codes on re-reading and further analysis. For example, references coded around cultural or economic engagement were consolidated into the high-level theme of place and anchor to capture the different dimensions of an institution’s connectedness to local external communities. Those initial codes which generated few references were either discarded or, if felt to be significant, consolidated across the other dimensions.
Mission and strategies have become ubiquitous features of the contemporary university’s public pronouncement of its purpose, ambition and values (Cortes-Sanchez, 2017). The community engagement narratives clearly captured this sense of outward positioning in relation to external non-academic publics. Whilst some statements focused on the private transformational nature and value of education, such as Sunderland (2021) which stated: ‘In short, our mission is to be a life-changing university.’ This was balanced with wider societal goals, for example, ‘making a positive impact on the lives of students and the community is at the forefront of what we do’ (Buckinghamshire New University, 2021). The sense of multiple mission was also encapsulated in the more generic notion of an institution’s overall sense of ‘Common Good’ … ‘transforming lives, enriching communities and helping to contribute to societal benefit’ (Glasgow Caledonian University, 2021).

This sense of ‘Common Good’ can be seen to have been similarly expressed in a variety of different ways and enshrined in a panoply of agreements, strategies, plans and manifestos. To give a sense of the range, three indicative examples include:

- The University of Lincoln (2021) which has adopted a ‘permeable university manifesto (which) identifies ‘a complex set of wicked problems which need to be urgently addressed’.
- University of Bedfordshire (2021c) which ‘embed(s) complementary learning, KE, research and public engagement strategies within one overarching Strategic Plan…’
- The University of East Anglia (2021) whose institutional level plan 2016-2020 was ‘focused
activity around six broad interdisciplinary themes spanning global challenges and UN development goals’.

4.7.2 Place and anchor

Mission statements and strategies routinely invoked a sense of place and the notion of the institution as ‘anchor’ in its locality and amongst local communities. Birmingham City University (2021b), for example, described its embeddedness in terms of recruitment, citing the fact that two thirds of its students were from the city and the wider region thus reflecting the diversity of the region and informing its ‘mission ... to be the University for Birmingham’ (my italics). UCLan (2021b) described a more physical manifestation of this sense of connectedness outlining investment in a satellite campus at Burnley to create a new ‘University Town’, whilst developing its traditional base in Preston’s ‘University Quarter’ through a ‘campus masterplan’. University of Lincoln’s (2021) interdependence with its environs is highlighted by the description that ‘1 in every 6 working age residents in the city ... (are) either a student, direct employee or their job indirectly linked to the University’.

The use of the image of the anchor is evident, particularly amongst the post-92/cluster 3 institutions and was prominent in the narratives of six institutions. For example:

‘... our role as a significant regional anchor institution in a region which has undoubted economic challenges around productivity, employment, R&D, higher level skills and business birth rate. We have been rooted in the city of Sunderland since the establishment of Sunderland Technical College in 1901.’ (The University of Sunderland, 2021)

Institutions sought to highlight their influence on the region through the promotion of economic and cultural development. Community engagement statements contained considerable detail on institutional links and benefits to the economic health of the region, often intertwined with claims of cultural benefits and wider societal gain. University of Kent (2021), for example described: ‘Our impact on the region's economic, social, and cultural life through the delivery of excellent education, research, and engagement is significant, and generates £0.9bn annually for the Southeast,’ whilst The University of East Anglia (2021) stated: ‘External consultants have verified that UEA contributes around £1 billion to the economy.’ Cultural regeneration was evidenced by the association with events such as City of Culture or through links with local cultural organisations or as a talent pipeline to creative industries via students who stay in the area after graduation (Bournemouth, 2021d). The University of East London (2021) adopted an approach to cultural regeneration with a distinctively
social justice flavour focusing its engagement work ‘on areas of deprivation and regeneration in Essex coastal areas and Newham, aiming to empower local communities by providing a space in which they can contribute to local policies’.

4.7.3 Facilities, events and open access

The permeability of university facilities is regarded as an important dimension in promoting community engagement. This was well captured in the documents which evidenced a range of public lectures, festivals, educational opportunities and events. Institutions again drew attention to the quality of their resources – although it is not always clear which facilities were open to be shared with communities and when these are available to external users. For example, Birmingham City University (2021b) describes ‘(W)idening access to the University and its resources’ as an institutional goal; the University of East Anglia (2021) highlights its ‘open campus’ policy enhanced by sculpture, nature and architecture, whilst City University (2021c) asserts: ‘New public spaces on campus are well regarded by visitors, and we are continuing to invest in areas of our campus to provide our stakeholders with cutting edge facilities and space.’ Buckinghamshire New University (2021) more explicitly promotes the commercial potential of its facilities and services including its film and TV studios which are available for hire by external users.

4.7.4 Staff policies

A range of self-identified strategies were highlighted that purported to seek to promote community engagement through staff policies. At a basic level, institutional support was available to enable staff and students to engage with volunteering as previously described. This was formalised in different ways. Buckinghamshire New University (2021) provided staff with two days of paid leave to take part in volunteering activities. This commitment was also evident in strategic planning. Birmingham City University (2021b) developed a Public and Community Engagement Strategy and Plan which ‘provides detailed goals, leadership and governance for University staff; and makes clear the responsibilities of senior academic and professional service managers’ in relation to public and community engagement. This was supported through recognition and rewards systems for staff and students who ‘make a difference to the local student body, community and region.’

Academic pay progression and promotion criteria have also been developed to include a public engagement section, sometimes supported by awards and backed by senior leaders. At City University (2021c), promotion to professor was described as requiring ‘evidence of strong and sustained evidence of industry/community engagement with proven benefits to both the university and the external community’. At the University of Sunderland (2021) external engagement was ‘a
major part of the responsibilities of senior staff and many are members of boards and initiatives to engage with local communities' whilst the University of Derby (2021b) operated a ‘Professional Practice route to Associate Professor which recognises successful knowledge exchange activity’. The University of East Anglia (2021) has enacted a similar policy stating that:

‘Engagement is factored into workload models; embedded in academic promotions criteria for staff and with new Professorial roles that acknowledge Public and Community Engagement; rewarded through annual Public Engagement Awards’.

Vice chancellors (VC)s took a role in promoting activity. At the University of Bedfordshire (2021b) the VC has ‘direct portfolio accountability’ for public and community engagement whilst at the UCLan (2021b) the senior management team received reports on community engagement from the university’s chief marketing officer. This was supported by staffing structures lower down the institutional hierarchy. For example, Bournemouth University (2021d) had a ‘centrally based Knowledge Exchange and Impact Team’ to support academic planning, delivery and recording of knowledge exchange activities. Capacity-building measures included NCCPE supported training sessions and events for staff and students to enhance their engagement skills.

4.7.5 Dimension summary

Institutions were required to develop outward facing narratives detailing the degree to which they are community engaged. This formed part of a competitive benchmarking system that allowed universities to be compared against a range of similar institutions. Whilst performative in nature, these did provide evidence of a wide range of initiatives, policies and projects which suggest a desire and capability to demonstrate engagement with external communities at institutional level. The primacy of economic engagement was balanced against wider cultural and societal benefits emanating from institutions which often regard themselves as ‘anchors’ to the region in which they are based and after which they are named, and there was evidence of a desire to connect with creative industries both through the provision of graduates but also via the sharing of facilities and the hosting of events. Many of the policies and structures in place were reported to be supported and accountable to senior management including vice chancellors, and there was similar evidence that community engagement may now be seen in some universities as a legitimate route to promotion alongside research and teaching.
Chapter Five: Journalism educators and community engagement

5.1 Questionnaire data

This chapter forms the second part of the presentation of the findings of the study. To recap, the research seeks to explore ways that journalism education at UK HEIs can be said to be community engaged (RQ1). The first section of the findings, which drew on a range of public documents, generated qualitative data that I used to address this primary research question in relation to the five dimensions using an adapted framework designed to capture community engagement practice. It sought to contribute towards an initial descriptive mapping of the field in relation to journalism education. However, it was anticipated that it would also be necessary to develop further methods to address my two secondary research questions. These seek to identify what promotes or inhibits community engagement in the field (SRQ1) and what might be the potential affordances or limitations of practice (SRQ2).

As previously described, two methods were employed. The first was an online questionnaire (see appendix C), respondents to which were also invited to take part in a semi-structured on-line interview (see section 3.7). The first section of this chapter will review the findings of the survey whilst the second will present results of the semi-structured interviews. The survey instrument was developed in March and April 2022 and circulated through different academic networks, most notably Meccsa and the AJE, until October 2022. The participants were academics either working full or part time at different institutions in England, Wales and Scotland. In total, the online survey generated n=56 responses, n=43 provided sufficient data to be included in the survey. Not all respondents answered all questions.

This non-probability purposive sample (n=43) enabled me to generate a range of descriptive statistics providing primarily quantitative but also some qualitative data for analysis - aligning to my mixed methods approach. The integration of both qualitative and quantitative data allows for the exploration of potential structural trends alongside personal experiences with the aim of generating increased understanding compared to a single or multimethod approach (Anguera, et al. 2018; Cresswell, 2015). It is important to stress that my desire was not to establish firm evidence of causality or generate inferential statistics with high levels of generalisability but rather to conduct descriptive quantitative research with the hope of exposing emergent phenomena, issues, and relationships in a specific context with the wish to generate future discussion and research. Appropriate methods for presentation have been included here including measures of central tendency using simple graphical representations. Where measures of central tendency have been used these are generally expressed as percentage means unless stated otherwise, with results rounded up or down to the nearest whole
number. Note that not all figures for questions will therefore add up to 100%. All data has been anonymised in accordance with my ethical clearance (see section 3.2.8 and appendix A).

5.1.1 Demographic data

The sample consisted of more respondents identifying as male than female (54% to 44%). This compares to 53% male and 47% female of all academic staff in all disciplines at universities (HESA, 2021). Most respondents identified as white (85%), compared to Black (6%), Asian (3%) or Jewish (6%). This compares to 17% that identify as Black and minority ethnic (BME) or other in the UK academic population (HESA, 2021). The respondents were generally in secure employment. Most were employed full time (81%) with a minority reporting that they worked part time (13%). Only 5% described being on a temporary or fixed term contract compared to 32% of all UK academic staff (HESA, 2021).

There was a variation in academic status. The largest category identified was senior lecturer (45%) followed by lecturer (21%), associate professor or reader (16%) and professor (13%). Other identified roles were programme leader and consultant (5%). Respondents (n=34) were quite equally spread in terms of being early (35%), middle (35%) and late career stage (29%) in the academy. Early career was defined as having worked for between 1-9 years at a university; mid-career at 10-19 years and later career as more than 20 years. However, this is a problematic definition of career stage in this context as many had previous careers as journalism practitioners. No questions were asked around identification in terms of nationality or ability/disability.

There is no known figure to indicate the total number of journalism academics working in this field. However, based on n=77 UKHEIs identified as delivering journalism undergraduate programmes in the UK (UCAS, 2021) my assumption was of approximately n=800 educators in the total population. Most respondents worked in relatively small academic teams. More than half (54%) reported working in a team of between 1-9 colleagues, 30% worked in teams of 10-19 and 16% had more than 20 academic colleagues delivering journalism.

In terms of institutional status, respondents were asked to describe their university based on an approximation of Boliver’s (2015) cluster analysis of institutional status. From the sample most respondents reported being employed at ‘post 92’ institutions (66%) followed by pre-92 but non-Russell Group universities (24%), Russell Group (7%) and international establishments (3%). This reflected the dominance of cluster three institutions as described by Boliver (2015) in the original population analysis previously discussed.
Respondents were from universities across seven different English regions as well as from Wales and Scotland. There were no respondents from Northern Ireland. In terms of accreditation for the undergraduate programmes, 55% of respondents reported that they worked at universities with an industry accreditation, compared to 45% without.

The final question on the survey asked respondents whether they had led or taken part in a journalism related community engaged project or activity within the past five years. Those that answered positively were asked to spend 5-10 minutes completing a further section which provided further qualitative data on the activities they had been involved with. A consequence of this question was that I was able to establish two discrete groups – those that had taken part in CE practice and those that had not - creating the opportunity for comparison of the descriptive statistics generated for each group (Clark et al. 2021). From the total sample n=43, 35% of respondents answered positively whilst 65% reported negatively to having been involved in CE practice in the indicated timescale. Those that answered yes to this question will be described as actively community engaged or active, the second group as not actively community engaged or non-active although it is acknowledged that these terms may not capture the full extent or richness of the educators’ practice.

Respondents in the active group described a range of projects. Three engaged with what might be considered ‘marginalised’ communities including asylum seekers, children affected by armed conflict and local established immigrant groups. One respondent described how they were required to develop a ‘creative and flexible methodology’ to deal with the ‘mistrust participants felt towards institutional media, and also the precarity of their (the community group’s) situation’. Two involved working with schools, including children at year six, as well as older children and adults to develop media literacies and challenge fake news. Three projects engaged with existing community media supporting the training of community journalists or in directly running a news website. Two of the projects were related or emerged out of the PhD research conducted by the respondents.
The active group (n=15) was split evenly between those that identified as male or female (47%) or declined to answer whilst the inactive group (n=28) was skewed female against male (46% versus 36%) or declined to answer. One notable feature that emerged in the survey data was that none of the respondents who identified as either Black or Asian formed part of the active group which self-reported as either white (93%) or Jewish (7%).
It was noted that the active group was marginally less likely (67%) to have a full time employed position than the non-active group (71%). Both those (n=2) that reported being on fixed term contracts were among the active group. The non-active group contained proportionately fewer professors (11% compared to 14%) and fewer associate professors or readers (11% compared to 20%). Senior lecturers and lecturers were equally represented in the active group (27% each) though senior lecturers constituted the significant majority position of those in the non-active group (46%). The non-active group divided evenly between late, mid and early career academics whilst the active group was skewed more heavily towards those in mid-career (47%) compared to early (27%) and late (20%) stages.

Respondents were asked to choose between a range of terms that best described their academic role. Significantly, respondents in neither group saw their role as primarily concerned with community engagement and only 27% in the active group reported community engagement as part of their duties. Only 7% of those in the non-active group described community engagement as relevant to their role. All those that identified community engagement as part of their role or responsibility in the active group saw it as something they did alongside learning and teaching, research or both learning and teaching and research. Learning and teaching was the most identified focus for those in both groups with 27% citing it as a priority role in the active group and 21% in the non-active group. In both groups, a majority of those that answered (active 57%; non active 53%) saw their academic role as embracing more than one ‘mission’.
Even if most academics did not see community engagement as a key role or responsibility, awareness of practices was high. The survey indicated that most academics in both groups (85%) knew colleagues at their institutions who were active. Those that were active in community engagement were also significantly more likely to report being involved in a research network. A majority of those in the active group (64%) indicated membership of a network as opposed to a minority in the inactive group (42%). Perhaps unsurprisingly, as these were the two main networks used to promote the survey, membership of Meccsa and the AJE were the most cited research networks although respondents also reported membership of the International Association for Media and Communication Research (IAMCR) and the International Communication Association (ICA). The survey also sought to understand the professional journalistic background of the respondents. Both groups reported broadly similar identification as a currently practising or non-practising journalist (see table 21).
Table 21: Breakdown of academics as practising or non-practising journalists

Respondents were asked to identify which form of media (print, broadcast) they had worked in professionally and whether this was in a regional, national or international news setting. The media form was discounted in the analysis as it was not felt to be relevant or illuminating, however the second part of the question did provide insight into audiences and other potential community stakeholders that journalism academics had engaged with in their professional practice. The results suggested a wide range of professional experience across different geo-spatial contexts.

Figure 4: Context of academics’ journalistic career (%)

NB: figures do not add up to 100% as some academics reported working in multiple contexts.
Notably, the survey revealed a significant proportion of academics in both active (23%) and non-active (21%) groups reporting that they worked on small programmes with less than 30 undergraduate students across the programme. Similarly, 31% in the active group and 29% in the non-active group described having less than 20 students at each level across the programme. This raises some concerns over the future viability of some programmes as universities face a projected further squeeze on budgets and the potential for reduction in the number of programmes on offer through UCAS, academic job losses and a possible future impact on community engagement programmes.

5.1.2 Key concepts, values and priorities

The next section reports on the findings of three questions exploring some of the ideas, values and priorities which underpin journalism educators’ approach to the field. In the first question, a five-point Likert scale was used to ask respondents the degree to which they felt a range of concepts were important to them as journalism educators. The concepts were not defined. The terms were selected based on the literature review and formed some of the codes in the document analysis – such as social justice and employability (see appendix L for full code book). A mean percentage was calculated for those that either strongly agreed or agreed that the concepts were important to them. The use of the mean was appropriate here as the results were not heavily skewed and when the method was applied to both community engaged and non-community engaged groups it revealed a very high level of homogeneity in educators’ values. All concepts received majority support (see table 22).

These normative concepts were drawn from the domains of professional journalism, journalism education and community engagement. For example, traditional journalism professional ideologies were encapsulated in notions of accuracy, holding power to account and objectivity whilst those from the domain of journalism education in UKHEIs included employability, skill development and entrepreneurship (see figure 5). Other concepts were included to represent openness to more democratic and socially engaged pedagogical approaches (democracy, social justice). On reflection there is a degree of commonality between many of the concepts with the high probability of a pre-existing consensus amongst the sample group. All ideas were majority supported, most of them strongly amongst both groups suggesting considerable homogeneity in the outlook of the journalism educators that responded. Perhaps the most striking area of dissensus between the two groups was in the higher levels of support for concepts ostensibly from the domains of journalism education such as skill development, employability and creativity expressed by the non-active group. This was not balanced by significantly higher levels of support for community engaged concepts amongst the active group.
Figure 5: Key ideas from journalism, education and community engagement domains

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Professional journalism</th>
<th>Community engaged n=15</th>
<th>Non-community engaged n=28</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% of respondents who agreed/strongly agreed that concept was important to journalism education</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objectivity</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accuracy/truthfulness</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holding power to account</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Campaigning</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical skill development</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student employability</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social justice</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Democracy</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creativity</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entrepreneurship</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 22: Key concepts important to journalism educators
5.1.3 Societal issues

A second question sought to identify which areas of societal need journalism educators may be supportive of engaging with. Respondents were asked to use a slider to indicate the extent to which journalism undergraduate education might help address a range of issues with 0% signalling not at all and 100% suggesting substantial opportunity for bringing about change. Again, the issues were identified in the literature review although several were added based on policy goals developed by the British Academy in response to the Covid pandemic (British Academy, 2021). This was felt to provide a timely and topical range of options to gain insights into the views of journalism educators as society emerged from the pandemic. Again, no definition or further elaboration was given in relation to the issues.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Support</th>
<th>Community engaged n=15</th>
<th>Non-community engaged n=28</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean score ranked out of 100%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support news and media industries</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Racial justice</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sexual/gender inequalities</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Climate crisis</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improve the way we develop, share and generate knowledge to improve decision making and understanding.</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Create a more agile and responsive education or training system that meets the needs of society.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rebuild society economically and socially after Covid.</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imagine new forms of urban and rural communities that promote human flourishing.</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Build new governance structures based on participation, engagement and co-operation.</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Addressing economic inequality</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 23: Support for societal issues that may be addressed by journalism undergraduate education.*

Compared to the more specific ideas around what is important in journalism education, this range of issues commanded less support amongst both groups. Three of the ten action areas received a score of less than 50%, indicating relatively weak support, with only five issues receiving majority approval amongst the active group. Notably, both groups gave the highest level of backing to supporting news and media industries – ahead of tackling racial justice, sexual and gender inequalities or the climate crisis. There was weaker support for journalism education providing a means of
addressing economic inequality, particularly among the active group where it received just 30%. The non-active group was more positive about the potential for the field to engage with questions of knowledge and information sharing as a means for changing society, as well as contributing to socially useful change in the education and training systems. Journalism education’s role in transforming community or governance structures commanded relatively low levels of backing from both groups suggesting perhaps that academics felt more strongly aligned with established journalistic democratic discourses around the notion of public sphere and holding power to account.

5.14 Community engagement

Respondents were also asked to answer in relation to a series of questions directly related to community engagement using a Likert scale. Again, a mean percentage was calculated for those that either strongly agreed or agreed with the statements. A definition of community engagement was provided as "the process whereby universities engage with community stakeholders to undertake joint activities that can be mutually beneficial even if each side benefits in a different way" (Benneworth, 2018a, p.17). Further context was given with the following statement designed to address a concept of community engagement based more explicitly around principles of social justice. *Communities (here) can be defined as publics or groups external to your institution which typically do not engage with the university, may be socially weaker and/or socially excluded and may lack resources. It is not taken here to include collaboration with major/powerful industry/business partners who may benefit through conventional technology or knowledge transfer or other formal relationships such as accreditation.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Active group n=14</th>
<th>Non-active group n=24</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>% agreed/strongly agreed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CE is important to me as a journalism educator.</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CE is important to my institution.</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My institution provides me with the support necessary to carry out successful community engagement.</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My teaching practice involves community engagement.</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My research involves community engagement.</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My students engage with local communities as part of their journalism curriculum.</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Perhaps unsurprisingly all those in the active group either agreed or strongly agreed that community engagement was important to them as a journalism educator, although this statement also received a high level of approval from the non-active group. Both groups considered that community engagement was important to their institutions yet neither felt they were given sufficient support to carry out successful community engagement in their role. This was noticeably the case with the non-active group, only 21% of whom either agreed or strongly agreed with the statement that they had institutional support to carry out community engagement. The non-active group felt more positively that community engagement activities were available to students both as part of the curriculum and outside the curriculum than the active group. Whilst the active group expressed stronger agreement that their professional practices involved community engagement, this was more prominent in its integration into teaching practice compared to research.

5.1.5 Summary

This section presented findings from the online questionnaire survey based on a non-probability purposive sample of n=43 journalism educators generating a range of descriptive statistics. The sample was further divided into two subgroups based on the response to the question of whether respondents had taken part in a community engaged project/practice within the last five years. The two groups were labelled community engaged or active (n=15) and non-community engaged or inactive (n=28). This enabled the creation of two groups for comparison.

This section aligns primarily onto RQ1 which seeks to find ways in which journalism education at UKHEIs can be described as community engaged but also provides insight into SRQ1 and 2. It suggests insights into the demographic make-up of journalism educators as well as potential understanding of their values, motivations and conceptualisations of journalism education’s wider social purpose as well as their perceptions of the standing of community engagement practice in the academy. Several key features emerged. The sample identified was generally securely employed in senior roles (especially amongst the active group), predominantly male (54%) and white (85%). Whilst approximately representative in terms of gender/sex it was less ethnically diverse than the UK academic community in general. It was particularly noticeable that the active group comprised no respondents who identified as Black or Asian. Although it is impossible to draw statistical significance from this based on the methodology of the survey, this does suggest the opportunity for potential
discussion around obstacles or limitations faced by Black and Asian academics in this survey in conducting community engaged practice in UK HEIs.

Another significant finding was that community engagement was seen as something that academics did alongside their other responsibilities particularly learning and teaching and research as well as to a lesser extent, employability. A majority in both groups saw their academic role as embracing multiple ‘missions’ raising the prospect that academics are already working across different activity domains as part of their everyday responsibilities.

Most respondents (85%) reported knowing colleagues who were actively community engaged suggesting the existence of wider networks of academics working in this area and the potential for further community engagement collaboration both within and across the discipline. Whilst a minority in both groups saw themselves as practising journalists (40/43%) this still represents a significant proportion with contacts in industry and the journalism community. The professional backgrounds of the educators embraced different and often multiple contexts indicating wide-ranging experience in local, national and international settings. Similarly, there was further evidence of academic connectedness among the active group with 64% reporting membership of a research network.

The questionnaire also produced insights into the key concepts that journalism educators felt were important to them and suggested continuity rather than disconnection between the ideas that underpin professional journalism, journalism education and community engagement. Both groups demonstrated strong support for, and the similar ranking of, the relative importance of the key concepts offered, particularly those that encapsulate established journalism tropes around accuracy/truth telling and the democratic function of the media as articulated in the notion of holding power to account.

A key difference in the responses however, suggested that the non-active group attached greater importance to the requirements of student employability, skill development and creativity. These concepts are more readily associated with the established journalism education discourses which emerged in the document analysis and may imply reasons why some participants were not active in community engagement. Notably, both groups ranked entrepreneurship as the least important concept suggesting an ambivalent approach to the wider business community or consensus around the role of journalism knowledge in promoting economic activity. This contradictory attitude towards industry was further illuminated as both groups ranked support for news and media industries as the most likely issue that journalism education could help address - above racial justice and addressing sexual and gender inequalities.
Interestingly, the non-active group attached a notably high level of importance to community engagement to them as educators (79%) and reported higher levels of institutional backing for the concept than the active group (79% v 64%). Both sides however, reported low levels of institutional support to enable them to carry out successful community engagement suggesting they had experienced the existence of potential institutional barriers to further practice. The implications of these findings will be discussed in relation to the literature in chapter six.

5.2 Interview data

The second part of this chapter will present the findings from the semi-structured interviews. Eight interviews took place involving four male and four female academics. The interviewees have been fully anonymised in accordance with my ethical clearance (see section 3.2.8). Details such as the location of the institution or the types of community engaged projects undertaken have been removed to prevent accidental identification. Seven respondents were recruited directly via the questionnaire whilst one was recruited from my own academic network having previously completed a pilot questionnaire and consented to take part. All academics were employed by or associated with different English institutions. Interviews took place between July and October 2022.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Gender/sex</th>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>Institution type</th>
<th>Years in academy</th>
<th>Position</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AB</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>Post 92</td>
<td>10-19</td>
<td>Associate Professor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BC</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>Post 92</td>
<td>20+</td>
<td>Consultant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CD</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>Post 92</td>
<td>10-19</td>
<td>Senior Lecturer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DE</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Black</td>
<td>Post 92</td>
<td>10-19</td>
<td>Lecturer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EF</td>
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<td>White</td>
<td>Post 92</td>
<td>20+</td>
<td>Associate Professor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FG</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>Post 92</td>
<td>20+</td>
<td>Professor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GH</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>Post 92</td>
<td>1-9</td>
<td>Senior Lecturer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HI</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>Post 92</td>
<td>10-19</td>
<td>Lecturer</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 25: Breakdown of demographic characteristics of anonymised interviewees

The interviews were designed to generate data on the experiences of academics who considered themselves to be community engaged (see section 3.3.3 for full details of the interview research design and questions and 3.4.7 for full details on the sampling and questions). The responses were initially coded around the research questions. For this I developed a broader conception of the key terms in the original research questions enabling me to explore the issues with the interviewees and capture richer detail from the answers. These were:
To recap, the eight in-depth interviews were read, transcribed and then reread before being coded according to the themes above. These were then read and recoded again to create a range of sub themes which are developed below.

5.3 Promoting community engagement.

This section sought to discover what phenomena, activities or circumstances might promote, support or facilitate community engaged journalism education to take place aligning to SRQ1. The data was broken down into the following subthemes.

- Funding
- Institutional attitudes and systems
- Educator motivation, values and interests
- Contacts, networks and relationships

5.3.1 Funding

The previous chapter identified a range of different funding sources – internal and external - that had supported community engaged research in this field as identified through REF impact statements (see section 4.3.3). The interviews provided further detail and insights from the experience of the educators themselves. For example, one interviewee (HI) described how their community engaged project was enabled through the hiring of staff by the institution as well as through buy-out of teaching time and incorporation of projects into workload planning models resulting from the receipt of external funding awards. Another (AB) reported being able to provide academic and student expertise, university equipment and facilities to deliver a government funded community project (unspecified source) whilst a third (BC) received support from the Government’s Audio Content Fund as part of a local post-Covid recovery initiative (RW). A fourth interviewee (GH) was supported in the realisation of their project through a research network award (AJE) whilst a fifth was indirectly supported via a grant received by a local media organisation to promote voter engagement in metropolitan elections (CD). It was notable that apart from projects which were supported through traditional funding bodies, the amounts of money involved were low and this was often paid to the community partner rather than directly to the academic or their institution. Educators were prepared to use very small sums to develop/initiate projects, or even contribute themselves, such as GH, who
observed: ‘... it wasn’t a massive amount. It didn’t stretch to many students, which is fine, but it meant we could sort of prove the concept.’

5.3.2 Institutional attitudes and systems

Institutional attitudes and systems played a key role in promoting the community engaged projects discussed in the interviews. Some positive experiences were reported with high levels of support from HEIs described. One interviewee (EF), for example, reported the existence of a virtuous circle of support whereby having successfully bid for external funding they found themselves eligible for further institutional backing, both in terms of finance but also through support staff hours to develop an impact case study. ‘(Y)ou can get it into a space or onto a track ... where ... opportunities open up as a result, and I’ve had two of those, so that’s been good’ (EF). EF also noted that institutional support would ‘come with strings’ creating bureaucratic demands as well as expectations to publish or to demonstrate how projects met wider university strategies or external frameworks. However, in this case they were viewed as positively aligned with the project’s aims.

‘So, I, I feel I’ve been given huge support really for this and when you look at the strategy of the university and when you look at things like the UN Sustainable Development Goals, which of course all universities are looking at, marginalised voices, community engagement, building resilient societies - all of these things are really, really important (EF).’

Another interviewee described how their institution was willing to step in and support an independently initiated project once its viability and potential was identified. FG, who had not previously published in an academic context, received enthusiastic support from a senior colleague in another subject area after discussing their project informally. They were then able to get the backing of their manager to formalise funding for students to be paid for conducting content analysis and for a sabbatical to formalise the study. Meanwhile, CD described how a ‘strong ethos’ in support of community engagement was evident ‘from the top down’ at their institution.

‘I think the university, in its defence, is hugely interested in this. It’s called and branded as a community university, and at every point when I’ve tried to do things like this, I’ve been supported. You know that the use of the facilities, there’s been no attempt like at other universities where I’ve worked, to get them to pay for it. So, I, I can’t speak any more highly of my line managers and my bosses who see the benefit of this for us’

Another interviewee reported what might be seen as benign acquiescence towards the project discussed. When asked whether they had faced any negative institutional pressures, they replied:

‘I don’t tend to listen to that very much, but also, I keep my head down, I just, I just teach and ... it sort of gets recognised like this did because it was in the
(regional media), you know, they sort of let me get on with whatever I'm doing.’
(AB)

5.3.3 Motivation, values and interests

The individual journalism educator, their beliefs, interests and professional instincts played a central role in promoting community engaged practice. The ability to be agile and proactive was essential with descriptions of having ‘jumped at the opportunity’ (AB) or responding, ‘straight away’ (CD) to approaches from community partners. EF described how:

‘...working like a journalist you meet somebody. You think there’s a story there, or an idea that is appealing to you. And I think it is that thing about these things chiming with something that you sort of are interested in or believe in yourself and then developing your ideas and learning so much.’

This journalistic sense of mission was informed by both the individual educator’s background and their values. For example, FG described being motivated by ‘anger really’ when confronted with what they perceived to be gender inequality, whilst DE sought to continue to challenge media discourses that excluded disadvantaged communities.

‘Coming from a marginalised community, my thoughts when I started journalism, I refuse to be pro status quo. I refused officialdom. Because my journalism represented the taxpayer, the ordinary person in the street ... The voice(s) of the ordinary people were my motivation. (DE)

Others reported that they felt compelled to get involved with projects to help promote active student learning or to facilitate the development of portfolios of published work thus enhancing employability. AB said: ‘It was a way to do something real, like experiential learning for the students, but also so, you know, it gave them a product’ whilst CD saw it as a form of mutually beneficial ‘work experience’ whereby the community partner got ‘free pairs of hands’. GH reported: ‘It seems to me just inherent that we obviously should have students getting out into the world, seeing the world for what it is, experiencing it.’

Widening participation in education at primary and tertiary level was identified as a motivating factor by two of the interviewees (CD/FG). Furthermore, CD saw community engagement as a way of breaking down barriers between institutions and their community neighbours.

‘I do think that there’s a lot of animosity towards university education and I believe if we get out into the community, we can explain to people what we do and why we’re there and why it’s important... ’
5.3.4 Personal contacts and networks.

Another way that educators individually enabled community engagement practice was by using their own personal contacts, relationships and networks. Interviewees reported that they were able to draw on contact-making skills and methodologies developed during their journalistic careers including links with editors, writers, media entrepreneurs or other professionals. AB described having ‘called in networks that I had kind of established to help the students out with their programme’ – bringing in a nationally renowned writer, for example, to take part in a community focused newsday or disseminating the findings of their community-engaged research through a leading magazine (FB). Whilst some developed their ideas and projects through international networks (EF), others were able to readily draw on contacts closer to home including family members, churches, schools or local businesses which they knew as citizens, fellow community members or as former research partners. The proximity of local media companies was reported to both enable universities to be part of a wider ‘vocational community’ (FG) although proximity was also seen as highlighting the exclusion of some communities from mainstream media thus generating a driver to action (DE).

5.4 Inhibiting or restricting community engagement

This section will present further findings from the interview data in relation to SRQ 1 and the interviewees’ perceptions of what may inhibit or restrict community engaged practice. Three subthemes were constructed during the analysis of the data:

- Obstacles in the community
- Industry expectations
- Institutional bureaucracy and risk

5.4.1 Obstacles in the community

Obstacles within communities and their specific contexts were identified in the interviews. Engaging in activities in international post-conflict communities, for example, could be ‘dangerous’ and required experienced partners working on the ground to facilitate projects, build relationships and trust.

... it was quite dangerous to go in and out of there ... So, we have to, you have to, it’s about building those networks and making sure that you build relationships and it took a long time to build trust as well within the community.’ (EF)

Lack of access to technology, skills or economic assets were also reported as an obstacle.
‘And then if the people, if hungry people who are supposed to be producing the content of the television station (have) nothing to put on that table at the end of the day, they will lose interest. So, one stumbling block was poverty.’ (DE)

Skill gaps were felt to inhibit some community engaged practices. This could be on behalf of academics, community groups or students. For example, students required to engage with the professional journalism community faced what were considered unrealistic expectations – placing extra pressures on them and greater responsibility on the educator with the potential for causing professional embarrassment if things went wrong. GH reported:

‘We’re all now failed journalists aren’t we (in the eyes of professionals) because we’re now lecturers so very sensitive, personally, about not looking like a wally in front of an actual journalist ... You’ve gotta be the bridge. You gotta be the scaffolding. The bridge and the difference between where they are and where it needs to be. Because as a professional journalist you know where it needs to be and lots of the copy on that project is almost completely rewritten. You know what? What was sent to me was unpublishable. The work had been done it just it needed someone with a higher skill set to look at it. And so if I have not fulfilled that role, if someone had not fulfilled that, well, it’s not gonna be news desk at a busy city website because they’re just gonna look at it go, I don’t know, ‘what is this. I don’t get it’.

Students also needed to be equipped with the range of critical and soft skills to successfully complete community engagement projects. These were:

‘... (being) curious, questioning, not taking things at face value, for granted, not imposing an idea on things, but you know, listening, finding out. Quite difficult skills to teach, I think quite, you know, soft skills. Having the confidence to do that is quite difficult too (EF)

5.4.2 Industry expectations

Industry, which is also viewed as a community in this study, acted as an obstacle in a variety of ways. HI for example, reported that established media companies had objected to support provided by one university-backed research project to hyperlocal, or community-organised digital media describing how ‘the local newspaper takes umbrage at this and says, ‘oh, the internet is destroying print media. You’re taking away all our business and everything …’

The requirements to provide workplace ready graduates were also believed to mitigate against some community engaged media practices including from journalism academics who privileged their perceived roles as industry trainers. BC described:

‘And I have a bit of a push back against colleagues who are journalists and trained people for journalism because there’s a kind of level of engagement that they don’t want to make or it feels like they don’t want to make the move
towards, which I think is the most essential level, which is that public engagement level and media literacies, civic capability level so the work I do comes from community through community media.’

Industry expectations, sometimes reinforced by accreditation, were also seen to undermine drives to widen participation and improve diversity within media organisations especially those students or community groups from deprived or non-traditional backgrounds.

‘We’ve just been through … accreditation again, and I think there’s a lack of understanding in industry that you know it’s all very well to talk about diversity and inclusion, but it’s not like a Hollywood movie where you open the doors and say, ‘come in, come in’, and they’re all there ready. You know, these kids come from really, really difficult backgrounds, and they just don’t come with the tools to learn, let alone, they may well have the ability - in fact, many of them are very bright - but if you can’t sit still, you can’t read properly, you know that’s a hurdle that has to be overcome in its own.’ (CD)

5.4.3 Institutional bureaucracy and risk

The interviewees reported widespread frustration at institutional bureaucracy, lack of responsiveness and the inability to engage nimbly with external partner organisations. This was demonstrated by HI, who reported:

‘… all the partners and a lot of the people that we deal with are able to - and more quickly and fluidly and effectively and efficiently - do things like start a contract … bring in a consultant, pay somebody, move money around. They will. They do it. All do it better than our university does and than any university will do because universities are tied down by, you know, bureaucracy, the fact that nobody is, ever seems to be around during the summer to sign things off. (HI)

Sclerotic finance systems, for example, left the burden for administrating the funding of projects with academics or forced them to seek support elsewhere or even pay themselves. BC described waiting for up to four months to receive a purchase order number. AB reported being left to cope alone.

‘Well, uh. God, I can talk about expenses, but yeah, it’s very difficult at our institution to claim back any staff expenses. And there’s, you know, there’s no help in terms of like arranging stuff like that. It’s sort of, you know, that’s part of what the teacher’s role is? I guess it’s basically down to you as a teacher …’ (AB)

Structures such as timetables and quality assurance processes also inhibited the ability to include collaboration within the curriculum. Describing difficulties faced during one project, GH said:

‘Yeah, it’s not, it’s not embedded because there’s a long way to travel between these one-off projects and then writing them into course specs, because obviously and module specs as you know, down that path, madness leads, and that’s quite a complicated process. The relationship is embedded. The fact we can do these
Risk and its management at institutional level were also identified as an impediment to community engaged practice.

‘... they’ve created a culture of fear within the university so that people can’t take risks and can’t do anything. Everything has to be, go through, several layers of management committees. It takes six months just to get to book a room and it’s you, you know, you can’t work like this in the real world and community development doesn’t wait.’ (BC)

This was also evident, for example in terms of the university accepting its legal and ethical role and responsibilities as a publisher of community-generated or public-facing student journalism.

‘An institution has to accept the risk that it’s going to run a publication and universities are risk-averse places - risk averse massively, reputationally conscious institutions, and they’re on the other side of the line out there. (GH)

Issues around work loading were also identified. The breadth of responsibility that staff were required to accept was powerfully described by AB who detailed the additional level of emotional and professional commitment they needed to deliver a project. As well as initiating the engagement through a personal contact they were required to work extra unfunded hours to deliver it.

‘Yeah, I mean it was, it was much more hands on than it would have been if I just run a newsroom and just sent them out and kind of sat in, you know, the exec producer’s desk and said ‘yes, that’s a good programme’ and ‘no’ or ‘no it’s not’. So, it did, you know, involved me sort of setting things up beforehand, kind of trying to figure out what they wanted from it. And also trying to get as much from my students out of it as well. So, there was some negotiations and then afterwards there was like the press releases and things that I was involved with to try and publicise the event after the students had kind of finished with things.’

(AB)

DE also described this challenge:

‘... engaging with the community, it demands a lot of commitment. Yet the very teachers who are teaching journalism, they’ve got to focus on teaching at the same time, so dividing your time between community engagement and teaching to get the required impact may also prove to be a challenge.’

5.5 Affordances of community engagement

This section presents the findings of ways that community engaged practice was seen to have wider potential and scope for delivering benefits in the fields of journalism, education and society. This will be considered in relation to the following sub themes.
5.5.1 Societal need and the public sphere

A general sense of social purpose described by EF was that their engagement work stemmed from the 'desire to use media for good', 'reimagining the role of media in society' or even to help build 'a more peaceful future'. Working with young people or immigrant communities in English cities for whom English is an additional language also afforded opportunities to address perceived deficits in media literacies, news avoidance, misinformation or fake news. BC called this the 'democratisation of access to media' and reported conducting 'community reporter training'. This, it was argued, enabled communities with the help of universities to produce their own news and bypass traditional providers which currently left them underserved or social media which was felt to be unaccountable and unregulated. This, it was claimed, would have the potential to inform and drive action addressing other social issues.

‘... so, universities could commit themselves to training people at that grassroots level to be, you know that build that infrastructure, that ecosystem upwards ... if you think about climate crisis and sustainability and there’s loads of things where top-down instructions of social change are not going to work. Expert driven models of communication are not gonna work ...’ (BC)

Proximity to media organisations, whilst previously highlighted as promoting community engagement, could also exacerbate a sense of exclusion. Addressing this deficit therefore offered a potential affordance providing ‘platforms of expression to everybody without discrimination’.

‘(xxxx) is sort of a disadvantaged community but with a lot of talent and with a lot of history. But for some reason things that are happening in xxxx don’t appear on television yet the TV stations are in xxxx. It’s quite sad. And this community is about a mile away from xxxx, where BBC is, where ITV is.’ (DE)

EF described the possibility of using community engaged practices to enhance and restore the public sphere and improve journalistic practice.

‘So, I, I think we need to reimagine journalism practice. I think community engagement gives us an opportunity to do that. I would suggest that it’s actually with all the other things that we know are fractured if not broken around media ecologies at the moment, in terms of trust, the context of myths and disinformation, issues around credibility and engagement with media. I think you know if journalists can be seen to be functioning in a particular way, which is engaged, to use your terminology, within communities in such a way that they are listening and hearing as well, you know. And then taking that back into their storytelling. Then there’s an opportunity to make journalism more resilient and more central and more powerful.’
Importantly, many of the academics felt that journalism’s engagement with society and community was innate and embodied in the intrinsic journalistic mission. For example, HI wondered:

“What’s the distinction between journalism, engagement work and normal journalism, I suppose? And by that, I suppose what I’m saying is, and surely all - this is me being provocative - but surely all journalism has an interest in reaching an audience and engaging an audience and engaging community. So, what do you define as being different in what you’re thinking of as community engagement work?”

AB felt engagement was something which journalism educators did intuitively as part of their normal practice.

“But yeah, I think because our thing is to cover stories in the community, community journalists, or community projects kind of lend themselves to this particularly well. I think we’re doing it all the time, anyways, and this was just one example.”

5.5.2 Curriculum and student experience

Educators reported that community engaged practice could be integrated into the curriculum aligning with notions of professionalism and supporting accreditation requirements, work experience or work-based learning modules. Participation in community projects also provided scaffolding for student learning and the opportunity for educators to engage more deeply and authentically with students. For example, AB described:

“Well, first of all … in some ways it was very easy for them (the students) because it was all set up. It was, you know, the interviewees - they didn’t have to go and find them, which I think students find that the most difficult hurdle. And also, I was there with them during the filming, so it was like a hands-on learning. It wasn’t just like it usually is with the classroom thing where you say: ‘Go out, find a story and interview the person, and I’ll and I’ll see what it looks like when it comes back’. I was with them and I’d sort of, you know, tweak their shots while they were filming and I’d, you know, I’d be there walking around and I might suggest some questions that they had missed, things like that. So there was like ongoing teaching as it happened.’

This type of working had the added benefit of linking students to what were seen as more diverse audiences and news sources – creating a more representative learning experience, reducing reliance on more affluent communities adjacent to the university whilst facilitating the pursuit of off-campus stories. Community engagement could also help students settle and feel at home whilst linking them more practically to their host communities to create mutual benefits.

“… students come to a new town; they can be very disengaged from where they live. I don’t think it’s necessarily good for the communities that they move into
either. And there can be a lot of alienation and I think feeling part of a place and being part of somewhere that, you know, people who aren’t necessarily just other students. It’s really good for them and … I think that was my main driver, particularly when I started working in [city name].’ (CD)

Educators described how their teaching was informed by community engagement practices conducted as research which then enabled the creation of new modules that drew on the community engaged projects or allowed students to take part to earn credit. For example:

‘And now I’m in the seventh year of having integrated this into my journalism module at xxxx, with my final year students where they think about how they, as journalists, function, but also the stories of others and how they are telling those stories. So, they think about communities on an international level, a national level, a local level, an individual level, I guess the role of the individual within the community. (EF)

Community engaged projects created new networks for educators and students to work with and provided opportunities, skills and capabilities that equipped them for future employment. HI reported:

‘I think in terms of their skills development that would probably be attractive to a lot of newsrooms and, and I suppose part of that could be, you know, being able to commit to and relate to an audience on a peer level and demonstrate an understanding of what audiences want and how to research and understand what audiences want would be attractive.’

Educators felt that students enjoyed working in a community engaged context and this added to their experience of university life and desire to practise as a professional journalist. EF reported: ‘So I think the students, well, I know, I have evidence that the students absolutely love it and believe in it.’

Engagement could also enhance ‘performance’ and professionalism. For example, AB described students:

‘… trying to present themselves in the best possible way to this person that they didn’t know over, you know, a video-link their performance just raised like you can see them like straighten a bit when they were speaking and they were like using their best, you know, vocabulary.

This experiential element to their learning could also build student confidence and break down barriers with professionals.

‘… what was really nice about that project was some of the students got to go out with the real reporter, who wasn’t much older than them. And that was lovely because a couple of the really, really anxious ones who struggled terribly with confidence, came back and said they were no better than I am are they? Of
Students’ successful and authentic engagement in the community was also felt to be beneficial for their institution, enabling it sometimes to meet its civic commitments in a more meaningful way – countering notions of institutional ‘community washing’.

“So yes, I think there’s massive value in this, especially as so many in the university have these sort of nonsense strategic objectives like civic engagement returning to the community and all that sort of stuff. So, I think emphatically journalism and community engaged journalism offers universities a chance to do all the things they say they really, really want to do but don’t…” (GH)

Community engagement thus was seen as enabling institutions to develop strengths applicable to their unique contexts.

“I think that’s a really strong rationale for a university like xxxx, (to do community engagement) which is unlikely to perform well in league tables, is unlikely to become a massive research university.” (CD)

5.6 Limitations to community engagement

This section will explore interviewees’ reflections on potential limitations and drawbacks for the field of journalism, society and education in relation to community engagement. Analysis of the interviews revealed the following two sub themes:

- Disparities in power
- Curriculum and discipline

5.6.1 Disparities in power

Educators identified a range of situations where educators were conscious of disparities in power relations between the institution, the academic and the engaged community which raised concerns of inauthentic or unwelcome outcomes. HI described this sense in relation to working in an international context with Global South partners.

“If I’m brutally honest, I mean, it’s probably partly me doing the academic thing of impostor syndrome as well. You know where and … being aware of you know the white privilege of being the academic who works on a project in countries I’m trying to help develop journalists who are facing all kinds of threats to life and reputation and internet shutdowns and all kinds of things. And you know, and not and feeling a bit weird about being, you know, the white knight saviour, who comes with the money to help.”

EF expressed a similar observation over the limitations of conceptualising communities as victims.
'I think as well, community engagement is about understanding that most communities and most people within them actually have more resilience than we may think they have. So, we're not seeing these people as necessarily fragile or victims. (EF)

This created a potential for conflict, according to FG.

'Well, the big danger is that people don't understand what you're about and they get upset and aggressive, and that can happen ... In that people don't want help. And they find help patronising and I'm a bit touchy about that myself. So, I do understand that. So, you've got to be very careful not to take a superior stance like we're journalists and we know more about your community than you know.'

DE identified the need to manage and align expectations and potential outcomes with those of the target community. Communication was also identified as a key issue in this.

'And then another challenge also is, you know, as academics, we think outside the box and we are so enthusiastic to get things done. But then if the project did not come from the community, you as an academic you are imposing to the community. The community cannot understand what they will benefit from that project. The enthusiasm will be really affected ... Then there is a challenge also (of) communication. When an academic speaks to a stakeholder or a member of the community or a beneficiary, the communication gap there, the understanding of terminologies and ideologies, the clash of ideologies could also be a handicap.'

These dangers could be exacerbated by distrust of journalism and journalists, particularly among disadvantaged or overlooked communities who may have experienced misreporting or unfair coverage in the past. This raised concerns over unethical journalistic methods – described by EF as potential ‘smash and grab raids’ on communities’ stories. BC reported working with communities who had become disaffected by their contacts with journalists and the media.

‘... because the negative experiences that they (the community) consistently had about people pre-deciding what the story is gonna be, probing and probing and probing somebody who’s quite vulnerable into giving them the answer that they wanted.’

A lack of diversity within the student body also presented the possibility of replicating racial or class discrimination in the industry.

GH described:

‘... an entrenched sort of privileged status element to the journalism industry that we half do that. And I think we also half just teach sort of white middle to middle to upper class kids how to get white upper to middle class jobs in these organisations that have always employed white, middle, middle-class people ... we're just recreating the same thing over and over again ....’
Professional journalistic modes of working that are embedded in journalism programmes may therefore limit the potential to diversify participation whilst educators face the possibility of traumatising or alienating students by asking them to engage in culturally insensitive practices demanded by industry.

CD recalled this situation occurring in their engaged teaching practice.

‘I mean, this is always a discussion in, in journalism education isn’t, you know, the tough old hacks are, but you, you all would have said if you can’t go out and speak to someone in the street, then you shouldn’t be a journalist. But the world’s not like that anymore, you know. And you can’t just, you know, just refuse, say … ‘this is not the job for you, goodbye’. So, I suppose there is a danger. I know that I have had some Muslim women students who’ve been very uncomfortable with going out and speaking to people, and I just didn’t see it. It was, I felt really bad about that and then they only put it in the student feedback at the end.’

5.6.2 Curriculum and graduate employability

The requirement or desire to promote employability therefore exposed another potential limitation to incorporating community engagement activities in the curriculum or promoting engagement as a graduate destination.

‘... when we talk to students and we inevitably, especially me, because it’s what my PhD was, and start talking about hyperlocal you can realise, especially if it’s in the third year, that you’re you’ve talked about other forms of journalism where there’s a career in it or there’s money in it or there’s an industry and then you do a week on hyperlocal and activism and you think, oh, it’s all very kind of lefty and exciting, talking about activism and doing, you know, community engaged and participatory journalism with people on things like Facebook pages and Facebook platforms and stuff like that but typically, there’s no money in there. So, where’s the career in it? So, you know how many students are going to come out of their degree and start up a Facebook page, a hyperlocal platform of some sort, and be able to make that part of their career?’ (HI)

Yet traditional journalism education was also clearly seen as an effective response to community issues such as the crisis in the public sphere, the threat of fake news, misinformation, news avoidance or disengagement. Therefore, key journalism skills were regarded by educators as central and required but which also needed to be sensitively balanced against their wider democratic potential.

‘... there are points aren’t there, within undergraduate programs where students can, I mean have to learn, they come in wanting to learn, you know, certain things and they have to learn certain things. And of course, if we’re accredited by the NCTJ, well, there are particular requirements, but I think as they go through,
they have three years there to sort of marinade in a lot of this stuff and decide. ‘(EF)

The question of disciplinarity also emerged further exposing the tension between the professional and vocational training element of journalism education and the critical media analysis tradition. This was highlighted by the two educators (BC, HI) who did not identify as current or former professional journalists. BC felt this context made it important to weaken the link between professional training and journalism education to develop students as either more critical practitioners within the field or as critical and engaged future citizens.

‘So, our job is not to produce people who go into the industry. But we produce people who can think about and critique and challenge and redefine that industry for the future based on what the social purposes need to be addressing inequality, addressing climate change, addressing artificial intelligence, all of those great disruption factors. If you’ve not got graduates who are coming out wanting to change the industry and to build their own industry, I don’t think universities are doing their job.’ (BC)

HI argued that the journalism curriculum was not currently addressing community engagement needs as effectively as related disciplines such as media studies or communications did.

‘I mean, it would be interesting to compare the media and comms curriculum versus the journalism curriculum and whether there’s a sense that one of them has more of a stress on community engagement and subcultures and participatory media than the other. Because my feeling is you might find that comes through more in media comms than journalism.’

FG, however, saw journalism as a perennial outsider within a quasi-medieval academy beset with rigid bureaucracies and traditions that limited the discipline’s potential to engage more widely.

‘And it’s really hard to break into these modern-day academic monasteries without, you know, going through all sorts of rituals and bows and stuff. And when you’re a practitioner in another community, which is much more fluid, relating to that is very hard.’ (FG)

5.7 Summary

This section built on the findings from the questionnaire survey. It enabled me to conduct semi-structured interviews with eight academics associated with or employed by different UK HEIs. The questions on the interview schedule were aligned broadly to SRQ1 and SRQ2 which seek to understand factors that inhibit or restrict community engagement, as well as those potential affordances and limitations for the field or society. All academics described themselves as having been community engaged in the last five years and were willing to discuss their experiences of specific projects conducted.
Promoters or enablers of community engagement identified included both institutional and personal factors. Funding again emerged as a prominent concern. Direct funding through research councils enabled ‘REFable’ community engaged research to take place through teaching buy out etc., whilst the small scale and ad hoc activities that appear to be characteristic of community engaged practice were much more dependent on the individual educators’ ability to harness small amounts of funding or to initiate projects proactively. Payments were often made to community groups or support was provided indirectly through the ‘free’ provision of university resources and staff time.

Respondents described how the attitude of the institution was seen as critical in their being able to deliver community engaged projects. Support was both formally or informally provided, whilst supportive colleagues, or line managers were also regarded as vital to success. Alignment to wider frameworks such as the UNSDG provided a further enabling factor alongside a supportive institutional ethos or mission. Educators brought their own sense of journalistic mission to their practice alongside established professional journalistic methodologies – notably in terms of contact making or storytelling - but also were able to explore their own values and desire to make a difference such as through projects aimed at widening or promoting university participation or enhancing student employability.

Obstacles to community engagement were identified within communities, industry and institutions. Issues around safety and trust building with partner communities emerged during the interviews whilst poverty and technological inequality were described as inhibiting the successful completion of some work. Educators agreed that community engagement demanded knowledge, openness and a highly varied skillset on behalf of academics, students and community partners. These included journalistic ‘hard’ skills and a range of ‘soft’ and critical skills on behalf of the student, whilst the educator also needed to be able to provide the ‘bridge’ between student and community partner – an often complex, time-consuming, and demanding process.

Industry partners could be supportive and enabling but unrealistic and even hostile in their reaction to and expectations of collaborative projects with universities. This was especially the case when it came to engaging with student partners from diverse backgrounds. There was also widespread frustration at sometimes sclerotic institutional processes, notably around funding, whilst the rigidity of timetables, quality processes and accreditation requirements was seen to act as a block, it was reported. Institutions were perceived as highly risk averse and sensitive to reputational damage mitigating against attempts to develop some public-facing projects or media.

Key affordances broke down into two sub themes. Firstly, those that addressed perceived societal needs such as repairing/enhancing the public sphere, engaging excluded communities, or
building new models of communication to address urgent social challenges. Many felt that community engagement was an inherent aspect of the wider journalistic mission and outcome of journalism education experiential learning practices. The second area of wider benefits was through the ability to enhance the curriculum and improve the student experience. The interviews exposed the tensions between ways that engagement with industry through professional education might be seen as an obstacle to widening engagement activities and a benefit in terms of skill development and employability. Students were largely believed to benefit and enjoy taking part in the projects which brought them into contact with diverse communities and non-campus stories. This was also described as bringing mutual benefits to partner communities and potentially enhancing the reputation of the institution amongst its neighbours.

Finally, factors were identified that created limitations in terms of community engagement in the field. Concerns were raised over potential disparities in power between wealthy institutions and academics and their less privileged community partners. Interviewees described potential pitfalls such as conceptualising partners as victims, engendering conflict or inflaming relationships with communities as a result of top-down approaches or even professional arrogance. Perceptions of unethical journalistic methodologies were also flagged as a potential limitation whilst professional educational demands were seen here to limit the scope for creating democratic change. Community engagement needed to be balanced alongside the professional skills sought by students whilst at the same time promoting criticality amongst both future journalism practitioners and citizens. These issues will be further discussed in the next chapter.
Chapter Six: Discussion

6.1 Introduction

This study arose out of a desire to explore the democratic possibilities of journalism education at UK HEIs and in the context of perceptions of crisis within the journalism industry and the longstanding tensions between journalism and the academy (Wahl-Jorgensen, 2016; Zelizer, 2017). It also sought to engage with the desire for universities to contribute towards solving societal challenges (McCowan, 2016; Hazelkorn, 2016). This concern was explored through the lens of community engagement which is understood here as a process whereby universities engage with community or external stakeholders to undertake joint activities that may be of mutual benefit – even if they are beneficial in different ways (Benneworth, 2018a p.28). Education was seen as an experiential human growth activity with a strong social and political dimension enabling public understanding, debate and deliberation in decision making (Pring, 2007). Theoretical concepts which underpin journalism studies and practice – notably that of the public sphere (Habermas, 2015) – reinforced this approach raising the possibility of consensus building in society whilst embedding the principle of learning at the centre of social action (Fleming, 2010). This has been viewed as a project central to both the journalistic mission and that of the university.

The study has been informed by critical realism (see chapter two). This position focuses on the desire to identify and describe the ‘intransitive’ underlying structures and mechanisms which create the empirical or ‘transitive’ dimensions of social reality. The role of conceptualisation has been central in building a descriptive model of these structures whilst acknowledging the difficulties of establishing strict causality in complex social systems. Critical realism as a meta-theoretical approach aligns with my own philosophical world view and my values embracing a realist ontology and interpretivist epistemology, as well as the possibility of emancipatory explanation (Sayer, 2000; Bhaskar, 1986).

In the previous two chapters the findings were presented based around the three methods developed in the research design. Chapter four comprised an analysis of a range of public facing documents and sought to build the first ‘map of the field’ of community engaged journalism at UK HEIs using an established multi-dimensional framework. Chapter five presented a range of descriptive statistics produced via an online questionnaire providing insights into demographic characteristics, values and shared concepts of journalism educators. The second half of the chapter comprised an analysis of eight semi-structured interviews with academics in the field which enabled me to complete deeper qualitative analysis of rich data.
These two chapters were complementary in that they enabled me to begin the process of mapping out the new sub-field of community engaged journalism education at UKHEIs by setting out a comprehensive data set. The methods and intended outcomes were aligned in both sections to answer the research questions and the findings were presented along those lines. However, when taken together, chapter five, which draws primarily on the reported lived experience of academics operating in the sector, enables a more critical approach to the topic under study. The testimony of the academics, whilst subjective and open to interpretation, exposes some of the broader tensions in UK universities which remain silent in the official documents forming the basis for of the previous chapter.

It is not intended at this stage that either chapter should be privileged above the other and in this chapter I will attempt to further explicate all findings in greater depth with reference to both the literature identified in chapter two as well as new literature which has informed my developing understanding during the study and viva.

This chapter will be divided into the following sections. The first will discuss the use of the framework to capture the characteristics of community engagement at UK HEIs in relation to research and academic activism. I will also consider ways in which these address societal needs as an affordance of community engaged practice across different geo-spatial levels. The second section will consider a range of university-level and individual factors and discuss how these may promote/inhibit community engagement. The final section will discuss affordances and limitations revealed in the study in relation to community engagement and journalism education. These will focus on questions affecting students and curricula and the implications these may have for the field’s engagement with industry, employability and professionalism.

It should be noted that the use of the adapted multi-dimensional framework to identify aspects of community engagement in relation to learning and teaching, research, knowledge transfer, student activities and institutional approaches was not without limitations. Despite being seen as expedient, efficient and a paradigmatically neutral technique, any framework method, particularly when it involves the adoption of pre-existing themes (such the TEFCE thematic approach used here) runs the risk of imposing a priori findings on the data and precluding the opportunity for rich or genuinely innovative findings. It may suggest an uncritical template for understanding the object of study and encourage the researcher to seek justification for pre-defined themes and concepts built into the research design even before data collection has begun. This may be particularly problematic when seeking to understand the social world in which meaning and meaning-making are subject to discursive representation of language and description and so require a more inductive approach to
reasoning. There is also the danger of developing an ‘unthinking’ or ‘mechanical’ approach to data analysis through strict adherence to the five stages described in section 3.5 and which may result in a superficial level of engagement (Parkinson S. et al 2016). Rather than presenting a ‘Hayes manual’ approach to exploring the qualitative aspects of this study, highly structured methods of data analysis if used unreflexively and without due consideration for transparency, may risk imposing a spurious positivism and overstated validity on findings (Kiernan and Hill, 2015). However, it was possible to mitigate this risk by rooting each stage of the inquiry in the research questions allowing the construction of new sub-themes within the dimensions of the framework.

6.2 Characteristics of community engagement: Dimensions of practice

The adapted framework for describing and capturing community engagement practices in UKHEIs extended across five dimensions: research; learning and teaching; knowledge exchange; student activities and university/institutional policies (Hart, Northmore and Gerhardt, 2009; Farnell, 2020). This enabled me to capture a wide-ranging and complex picture evidencing some of the scale and ambition of the practice taking place in response to RQ1. This was the first time this has been done in relation to journalism education.

A key benefit of the framework was that it provided a tested, inclusive and expansive approach to capturing community engagement. The so-called ‘definitional anarchy’ (Sandmann, 2008, p. 14) around this topic remains a limiting factor in the field. In the UK, academics are required to engage with the concepts of both impact and knowledge exchange which have established frameworks and funding routes. Similarly, with learning and teaching where many institutional systems for assessment/reflection exist as well as national metrics such as the National Student Survey (NSS) or the Teaching Excellence Framework (TEF). Community engagement is less clearly defined and easily conflated with public engagement which has an established advocate in the NCCPE with existing self-assessment systems such as Edge, the Engage Watermark as well as a public engagement ‘Manifesto’ and website. The incorporation of public and community engagement metrics and narrative (co-designed with the NCCPE) in the KEF makes the distinction even less clear. An initial review of the KEF indicates that the next iteration of the framework will include the opportunity for institutions to self-assess community and public engagement practices with the aim of moving towards ‘independent data driven metrics’ in this area (UKRI, 2022b). Whilst acknowledging that such an exercise might help raise the profile of community engagement, this approach has already been brought into question with doubts expressed over the feasibility and value of using quantitative data to assess community engagement due to the breadth and diversity of practice, activities and range of stakeholders involved (Benneworth 2018a).
This exercise was not intended to be a form of audit or benchmarking to assess practice in a publicly competitive way. Instead, it sought to align to principles privileging the authenticity of practice and the empowerment of individuals, community groups, students and educators. Where possible I have sought to understand the degree to which practices are participatory rather than imposed or driven top down and to identify the sharing of understanding with the aim of sustaining practice, improving policy or addressing societal requirements (Northmore and Hart, 2011). However, in terms of the dimension of research, which provided the most extensive data, it was evident more work needs to be done to fully capture the degree to which community engaged practices are authentically participatory in design, implementation or evaluation. Whilst there was some evidence of commitment to democratic collaboration with some partners, the privileging of a fully co-operative method of enquiry (Reason, 1999) appears to take on secondary importance to the imperative to demonstrate impact and secure funding.

The journalistic practices identified encompassed a very broad range of activities across different geo-spatial contexts and contained a strong societal element. These may be characterised as seeking to address challenges to the public sphere, enhance journalistic practice, create transformative educational experiences or tackle wider issues of social justice. It was important to remain open to the broad possibilities of what may constitute community engagement or communities and to extend the existing framework to make it appropriate to the field. My findings aligned with Hazelkorn’s (2016) model of community engagement which describes a continuum between the traditional ‘third mission’ focus in which institutions and governments seek to promote economic growth and development, alongside a ‘social justice’ model which emphasises activities that lead to community empowerment, challenge inequalities or create societal benefit. This approach was helpful, for example, in highlighting university contributions to both economic and cultural development - as articulated in the KEF narratives – and exposing the importance attached to notions of place and anchor institutions albeit within the context of a performative audit culture.

However, it is important to note that the quality and depth of data was mixed with the public documents, for example, relatively silent on some areas – notably student activities – whilst providing much richer detail on other dimensions such as research impact. Ahmed (2006, p.104), writing in the context of race, described such institutional documentation as ‘speech acts’ that make ‘claims about or on behalf of an institution’. These may be ‘non-performative’ in the sense that they legitimate their failure to bring about the claimed effects constructed within their discourse. However, in this study they have emerged as critical tools for ‘exposing gaps between words and deeds’ (ibid., p.125). It is necessary to be conscious of the potential that outwardly progressive language and discourse possesses for shallowness and superficiality (Garret, 2009) and to acknowledge that both the REF and
KEF have generated extensive criticism. Scholars have been hostile to what they see as instrumental exercises that usurp traditional academic freedoms, creating a heavily audited neo-liberal agenda that emphasises the centrality of human capital in the service of the global knowledge economy (Morrish, 2019). However, when understood in the broader sense of ‘engagement’, the expansive and accessible data produced by these mechanisms was able to offer insight and evidence of a genuine scope for ‘transformative impact’ (Johnson, 2022, p.18).

6.2.1 Societal need: Glonacal research and academic activism

As well as pressure to contribute towards national economic development, universities, by being ‘porous’ in terms of ideas and actors, are faced with the responsibility to contribute towards the critical challenges confronting humanity and social wellbeing (McCowan, 2015, p.293). This was evident through the research and academic activism revealed in the data. A distinctive feature from the study was how journalism education research, knowledge exchange, as well as learning and teaching practices, occurred across different geo-spatial scales in response to societal needs. Examples of such ‘engaged’ research sought to address challenges at international, national and local level. These included battling global viral misinformation flows (King’s College London, 2021); influencing national communications policy by advocating for media reform (Goldsmiths’ College, 2021) or promoting and sustain hyperlocal and community news organisations (Cardiff University, 2021b). Some embraced multiple levels of engagement such as Sheffield University’s (2021) project to enhance the journalistic editorial opportunities and better serve women audiences in the Sahel. Similarly, Bournemouth University’s (2021b) suicide reporting initiative through the provision of online resources was designed to improve ethical journalistic practices locally, nationally and internationally.

Interviews with educators revealed involvement with projects at different levels such as working with post-conflict communities in South America or in leading participatory journalism initiatives with legacy media companies in English cities. This was understandable in the context of the survey data which showed that many of the participants were experienced working across different geo-spatial scales in their professional lives. This suggests that a characteristic and affordance of community engaged practice in journalism education is that it should be regarded as ‘globally, nationally and locally implicated’ (Marginson and Rhoades, 2002, p.288) as well as being enabled by educators’ previous professional knowledge and biography. The concept of ‘Glonacal’, creates a framework for understanding such higher education activities across all three inter-related planes. The agency of the key actors - educators, students and community partners – is important here as Marginson (2022, p.167) explains that these types of activities are shaped both by global structures and hierarchies, national policy but also by the ‘vision, imaginings and discourses of agents’
including individuals, organisations and governments operating – sometimes simultaneously - at different spatial levels. Knowledge production and exchange were characterised as a ‘Mode 3’ multi-level model involving complex webs of exchange, networks, clusters and fragments with the potential to address societal issues and challenges through processes both of competition and co-operation (Carayannis, Campbell and Rehman, 2016). In the field of journalism education, it is possible for the university to act as a ‘zone of mediation’ enabling communicative encounters between both ‘expert’ and ‘lay’ groups in the pursuit of mutual benefits (Delanty, 2001, p.150).

If engagement and knowledge exchange can be thought of as a question of process, impact is better understood as being about outcomes that address societal needs (Farnell, 2020). Multiple critiques of the impact agenda have been developed notably that it threatens intrinsic ‘curiosity-driven enquiry’ or ‘frontier research’ which lies at the heart of the university principle (McCowan, 2018, p.293) However, participating journalism educators did not seek to retreat back into the ‘ivory tower’ of academia, though this propensity was clearly recognised - rather many expressed a strong determination to use their position to meet societal or challenges in the field head-on. The study supports the notion that impact provides a useful tool for illustrating how effective research practices and outputs in journalism education can affect society positively – whether that be locally, nationally or globally. And whilst not all impactful research can be described as engaged, and engagement does not presuppose the ability to create impact, the qualitative impact data helped describe and provided evidence of an emerging relationship between community engagement and research impact.

The revised REF framework for 2028 suggests a shift towards a broader definition of impact so that future submissions will include a ‘structured explanatory statement which sets out the wider contribution of research activities to society and the economy’ with potential to uplift the final impact score in the overall assessment (UKRI, 2023). Environment statements will be replaced by a section entitled ‘People, Culture and Environment’ and its value will be increased to 25% of the overall score. This is significant because the study found that environment statements could help spotlight lower level and emergent community engaged practice and research. This could illuminate less ‘REFable’ community engaged practices, such as the small academic-initiated participatory projects identified in this project, that are currently unrecognised in the REF model. However, this needs to be balanced against the tendency of REF to lead to further stratification of institutions within existing academic capitalism models (Papatsiba and Cohen, 2020). The competitive allocation of research money is pertinent for journalism-teaching universities which generally occupy the less prestigious clusters of institutions with much lower levels of research intensity and reduced access to research funding (Boliver, 2015).
Formal knowledge exchange activities identified in the study were viewed as a pathway to impact with academics able to engage in a wide variety of activism with different partners. Some of these were high profile with academics critically challenging competing interests and power groups whilst actively seeking to influence high level public communications policy. Many journalism educators whose work or thoughts were captured by this study sought to combine their roles as academics with a sense of activism and the desire to ‘make a difference’ in external communities (Blomley, 1994, p.383). This supports recent findings (Syson, 2020) of a residual academic commitment to academic activism within UK universities despite – or because of – concerns of growing marketisation and privatisation of the academy and wider society.

6.3 Enabling and inhibiting factors: Universities

Community engagement in universities, and thus journalism education, occurs within a contested and transforming context. In the UK this might be seen to be beset by a sense of ‘crisis’ brought on by tensions and debates over massification, globalisation, neoliberal management and a highly charged political environment. Here the societal value of institutions is primarily measured by their contribution to the disputed concept of a national knowledge economy or earnings-related individual social mobility (Scott, 2021). These tensions will continue to be played out against decreasing levels of public funding for universities – notably the relative decline in the value of student fees - and the development of economic priority areas which threaten the future of some programmes not seen to contribute to the economy or graduate employment (Universities UK, 2022). Any perceived lack or relevance of journalism education to these priorities remains a cause for future uncertainty.

Whilst funding is not evident from this study as the sine qua non of community engagement, it can be seen as a key enabling factor affording new creative opportunities (Northmore and Hart, 2011) and demonstrating institutional and governmental support for university activities. Funding therefore provides both legitimation and resources – both in terms of time and support – for academics who often drive community engagement projects outside their existing workload and through personal contacts. Squeezed national funding regimes, with short lead times and horizons, may limit the potential for community engagement particularly that which is organic with a less readily evident route to impact via the REF. Allocation for resources internally can also be an obstacle as engagement takes different forms across disciplines and may often ‘fly below the radar’ in institutional funding rounds (Martikke, Church and Hart, 2015). This study suggested that much of the institutional support for community engaged projects described here is provided ‘in kind’ by informally enabling access to university buildings, equipment or staff time.
Perhaps unsurprisingly considering the current context of higher education in the UK described above, respondents reported low levels of confidence in their institution to support them in their community engaged practice. Of particular concern was the lack of agility in university administration and finance systems in responding to requests for funding or other forms of support. It should be noted that universities operate in what has become known as the risk society (Beck, 1992; Hartmann, 2019) and are therefore entangled in the proliferation of complex and burgeoning risks that have emerged in modernity (Dondi and Moser, 2016). Interviewees negatively identified challenges in navigating the way that universities seek to mitigate these risks through various procedures such as risk assessment policies, quality processes and the appointment of professionals to police issues that may adversely impact the university reputationally or financially.

Institutions, meanwhile, were able to lay claim in the KEF narratives to an impressive array of policies and initiatives to reward community engaged practice within recruitment policies, workload plans and performance reviews – celebrating success with awards and prizes where appropriate. Of course, not all academics reported experiencing the same obstacles – with several describing high levels of institutional support for their engagement work. However, the perception remains that inauthentic or even a ‘non-performative’ approach to community engagement leaves institutions open to accusations of cynicism and the perception that university leaders may deploy evidence of it ‘for the benefit of public relations rather than as a meaningful opportunity to reinvigorate academic missions and connect with communities (Lee, 2020).

6.3.1 Academic roles

The educator was seen to play a critical role in driving community engagement which was often reliant on individual academic drive, passion and willingness to work overtime or unacknowledged. This resulted in challenges to the ongoing sustainability of partnerships and the proliferation of ad-hoc or one-off partnerships. Discipline communities have been found to bring their own knowledge and values to community engagement (Benneworth, 2018a p36). This study suggests that journalism educators took key roles in identifying possibilities for engagement. They often used personal contacts to develop collaborative partnerships and drew on high levels of individual skill and expertise – often both journalistic and pedagogic – demonstrating highly sophisticated understanding and sensitivity to initiate, maintain and promote their work. This concurs with the assertion of Martikke, Church and Hart (2015, p.26) that: ‘(P)ersonal leadership by individual academics and community partners in identifying opportunities and mutual benefits makes (community university partnership) working possible.’
The study found that most respondents were aware of colleagues and fellow academics who were already community engaged. This was evident across both active and non-active groups surveyed. The existence of supportive peers has been identified by Farnell (2020) as an additional ‘dimension’ of community engagement – alongside learning and teaching, research etc. Supportive peers may also be viewed as powerful enabling factors particularly when those colleagues are experienced academic staff members and/or strong advocates for community engagement. These relationships have the potential to reinforce faculty or institutional cultures which facilitate community engaged teaching and research and can capture and share this knowledge – perhaps through internal (and external) research and practice networks. Supportive administration and professional staff were similarly identified as instrumental in promoting this kind of productive ethos and culture.

Respondents revealed that community engagement was not seen as a core activity but a task they did alongside multiple other duties. These roles were described principally as learning and teaching but also in terms of research or promoting employability. One concern was that academic precarity would be an inhibiting factor in community engagement. Increased academic precarity is often viewed as an organisational phenomenon resulting from the growing influence of neo-liberal national policy agendas (Oliver and Morris, 2022). As Albayrak-Aydemir and Gleibs (2023) note those in precarious academic positions have reduced access to research funding, less support from colleagues and line managers and are less likely to have leadership or decision-making roles. This can affect career progression as well as reduce autonomy and well-being. More concerning is qualitative data based on a survey of 5,888 academics which revealed:

‘an acute situation of endemic bullying and harassment, chronic overwork, high levels of mental health problems, general health and wellbeing problems, and catastrophically high levels of demoralisation and dissatisfaction across the HE sector’ (Erickson, Hanna and Walker, 2021 p.2148).

Erickson, Hanna and Walker (2021) found evidence of a growing gulf in trust between academic staff and university leaders with extraordinary low levels of satisfaction reported at the performance of senior management at 78 UK universities. This extended to questions of governance, the imposition of excessive workload and change and the academic freedom to speak out against perceived mismanagement. The same authors (Hanna, Erickson and Walker, 2022) found this extended to a sense of ‘moral injury’ resulting from the experience of working through the Covid pandemic.

However, whilst participants in the survey described having relatively stable employment conditions and those who submitted for the REF were among the most senior academics, it remains possible that the experiences and perceptions of academics described above, the falling value of
budgets or the declining status of journalism education in the academy could have a negative impact on community engagement in the future.

Increasing ethnic diversity in student bodies at UK HEIs has raised questions over the representativeness of academics in certain subject areas (Arday, Branchu and Boliver, 2022). This had echoes in the study where it was observed that the actively community engaged group in the survey comprised no respondents who identified as Black or Asian. Whilst it is not possible to infer statistical significance from this evidence, it does raise two relevant questions for future consideration. The first relates to what Rana et al. (2022, p.2) describe as a heightened need for ‘culturally responsive educators (to) develop learning environments that value diversity and civic mindedness’ and the need to enhance cultural competence in university faculties. This deficit in the field may inhibit the range and scope of future community engagement and suggests the need for investigation into any potential obstacles facing Black or Asian academics involved in journalism education at UK HEIs. The second relates to ongoing concerns about the lack of diversity in terms of social class, ability and ethnicity in the recruitment of professional journalists or the media’s ability to serve minority or other marginalised audiences (Harker, 2012; Sutton Trust, 2019).

6.4 Affordances and limitations: Journalism education

The study suggested that journalism education at UKHEIs appears to largely correspond with Solkin’s (2022) hybrid model, whereby programmes acknowledge the changing technological and economic context of industrial journalism whilst retaining strong attachment to its traditional practices and ideological assumptions. This was highlighted by the analysis of the learning and teaching dimension at UKHEIs where notions of professionalism, skill acquisition and the privileging of industry links were still paramount in the public-facing quality assurance documents examined. Similarly, accreditation – either actual or in terms of shadowing its requirements - retained its kitemarking role amongst some programmes. Employability and the focus on the ‘real world’ nature of learning is routinely promised in programme documents with less emphasis on outcomes in which students are envisaged as critical or democratically engaged learner-practitioners. There appears some way to go – both in terms of the documentation and the views of the educators themselves – towards fully realising a more radical, de-professionalised vision of what journalism education could be.

Evidence of movement away from the universalist models of ‘public’ journalism and the embrace of new perspectives which encompass a wider plurality of social and cultural contexts within which journalists operate was evident in the literature review (see for example Mensing, 2010;
Romano, 2015). However, as Deuze (2019) points out, journalism remains a ‘set of values’ and an ‘occupational ideology’ - one that can and must exist outside the traditional setting of the news industry in light of a transformed industrial and employment context. Yet closer alignment with democratic or even emancipatory principles may help re-imagine journalism education in the academy whereby the journalist is part of the deliberative process and instrumental in the construction and restoration of the public sphere (Fleming, 2012). Habermas described journalists in this educative sense as actors that ‘understand themselves as the mandatary of an enlightened public whose willingness to learn and capacity for criticism they at once presuppose, demand, and reinforce’ (Habermas 1996, p.378).

The journalism educators that took part in the survey and interviews were predominantly traditional ‘hackademics’, many of whom had spent years if not decades in the academy and it remains unclear whether they represent broader opinion within the field. Here the consensus may continue to privilege traditional professional ideologies, new ways of imagining journalism or, as emerged in the interviews, a pragmatic combination of the two. There was evidence that individual educators may still struggle to identify and incorporate engagement into their academic repertoire. As the study found, many felt that journalism and journalism education were inherently community engaged. This engagement occurred through journalistic newsgathering practices, by holding power to account or truth-seeking or in the wider service of the public sphere as described above.

There was also evidence of tension between those from a critical communications and media studies background, and those from professional journalism contexts. The former expressed more willingness in the interviews to explore the potential for de-professionalising and challenging some journalistic orthodoxies. Researchers that had submitted REF impact statements were also more likely, in terms of job title, to be located in the field of media and communications rather than journalism. Yet the presence of a relatively large body of journalism-related research, much with practical editorial outputs and the production of impactful journalistic resources, does suggest continuing maturation of the field and the decline of a strictly practice-based discipline taught by former professionals (Sreedharen, 2015). This was further supported by evidence of significant connectedness amongst journalism educators in their membership of external and internal research networks.

6.4.1 Students

Interviewees in the study claimed students were felt to have benefited from and enjoyed taking part in community engaged projects. This was balanced against the need to explain the benefits of participation and to link practices explicitly to assessment, employability and core skill acquisition. This aligns with what Strier (2011) described as the perception and experience of students that have
engaged in community university partnerships in other disciplines. Stier’s (*ibid.*, p.88) found that students described ‘significant’ and ‘exciting’ learning experience when engaging with communities in structured partnerships which they saw as opening up ‘new possibilities’ in their education. However, there remains the danger – which also emerged in this study – that engagement may be perceived as imposed on students or simply be too demanding in terms of time and commitment. Previous case studies of journalism community engagement projects in the United States, New Zealand and Canada (Romano, 2015) suggested that students could develop skills that would equip them as future professionals. Respondents to this study highlighted the need identified by Romano (*ibid.*.) for the scaffolding of different knowledge and skills necessary to facilitate student learning in the community context. These included journalism specific skills but also those that enabled successful navigation of deliberative processes with communities from different cultural and socio-cultural backgrounds.

However, engagement with professional or industry communities with their competency, skills and reputational requirements – formalised in accreditation – does pose a potential obstacle in the authentic co-development of participatory curriculum bringing the more radical efforts of educators to transform the curriculum into tension with professional practice but also academic quality regimes.

Whilst my findings are largely muted on students’ own experience of community engagement, a longitudinal US study into civic journalism education (Lowry and Daniels, 2017) concluded that learners valued the democratic aims of community projects even though these did not always align with graduate employment pathways or address concerns over declining career prospects in journalism. Student journalists might therefore be encouraged to reflect more widely on the societal benefits and personal growth dimension of their experience of working with community partners, particularly the building of relationships, the negotiation of difference and the ethical process of participatory storytelling and newsgathering as part of their assessment (Ross, 2021). Therefore, by conceiving of journalism as educational – as ‘a process rather than a product’ - universities are well placed to support the transition to new forms of journalistic practice (Romano, 2015).

On balance, journalism students appear to continue to be inducted into a ‘new knowledge profession’ (Donsbach, 2014) where technological competences are paramount and less concern is placed on the journalist’s broader societal future role. Journalism education can therefore be regarded as still privileging what Biesta (2009 p 355-356) describes as the ‘qualification’ and ‘socialisation’ functions of education – equipping students with the values, dispositions and knowledge to do a particular job – rather than ‘subjectification’ which entails developing students’ independence from the existing industrial order. Room for manoeuvre is likely to be further limited in the short term as regulatory requirements set baselines for professional employment rates (OfS, 2021) or more hostile government discourses stress the desire to crackdown on ‘poor quality’ degrees which don’t afford
high-paying employment pathways (Adams and Crerar, 2023).

6.4.2 Industry and profession

The relationship with industry therefore continues to be privileged in UKHEIs. Moreover, educators felt that professional journalism and media organisations were attractive potential partners in terms of research, knowledge exchange as well as learning and teaching even if this was not necessarily conceived as being ‘community engaged’ in the wider socially just sense. Mutually beneficial relationships might encompass media industries as long-standing economic and cultural stakeholders in a particular place – notably as potential employers of journalism graduates. Collaboration identified in the study included the co-production of media content, sharing knowledge and resources, co-hosting events or sponsorship of student activities. Media organisations were active research partners with fruitful relationships evident between universities, major broadcasters and regulators. Knowledge exchange relationships exist with a range of media and advocacy groups with the aim of influencing debate and policy particularly around promoting the public sphere, developing editorial practice and responding to unethical journalistic conduct or tackling inequality. Industry may also be seen as a potential enabler of ‘Glonacal’ civil society and democracy projects.

However, the interviews also exposed some tensions between academic journalism, students and industry – notably in the perception of journalism academics as ‘failed journalists’ by their professional counterparts or concerns over media organisations’ reluctance to facilitate student diversity and difference in a professional setting. And whilst skill development was widely seen as a desirable outcome by respondents there is evidence in the literature to suggest that students become less inclined to adopt new ways of doing journalism – such as solutions, civic and participative reporting - once they have had exposure to a professional environment (Rauch, Trager and Kim, 2003).
Chapter Seven: Conclusion

7.1 Introduction

This final chapter will provide a summary of the key findings as they respond to the research questions. I will then describe the desired contribution I believe this study has made to knowledge and to identify potential limitations as well as future uses and implications for the project.

7.2 Summary of findings

RQ1: In what ways can undergraduate programmes in journalism education at UK HEIs be described as community engaged?

- The use of the adapted framework method was largely successful as a mechanism for mapping the field in relation to five dimensions of community engagement: research, learning and teaching, knowledge exchange, student activities and university policies. This was an effective technique which enabled me to characterise the field across a broad range of activities with societal impact supporting the notion that university community engagement in the field of journalism education should – as in other fields - be seen as a ‘wide umbrella concept’ (Strier, 2011) spanning many forms of practice and encompassing multiple forms of external and internal relationship.

- Not all engagement is community engagement. However, a holistic (Hazelkorn, 2016) approach to conceptualising community engagement, which contextualises activities based on the needs of the collaborative partner and the intended societal objective, is essential to understanding engagement in journalism education where it does take place. This is important considering the historic tensions between professional or industrial journalism and the academy. Successful engagement in journalism education can therefore be viewed as a continuum between economic and social justice needs. It may be geared towards supporting or promoting economic activities including employability, student learning or skill acquisition, innovation or improving editorial or other journalistic practices with media partners; or it may have a greater focus on promoting social justice such as addressing inequality through, for example, enhancing the vitality of the public sphere by empowering the voices of disadvantaged communities and promoting local democracy.

- The engaged journalism education practices identified in this study occurred across different geo-spatial planes in what may be described as a ‘Glocanal’ context (Marginson, 2022). However, whilst some of this practice was very high profile, captured and celebrated in the REF submissions and supported with substantial research grants, much of the work
was poorly or unfunded and flew ‘below the radar’ of formal frameworks designed to audit or assess it (Martikke, Church and Hart, 2015). The use of qualitative frameworks is essential to help capture and reward such low-level community engagement practice and paramount in promoting supportive environments whereby creative opportunities and understanding in the field may flourish. Revised frameworks such as the REF and KEF may offer further scope for genuine transformative impact in the field.

SRQ1: What promotes/inhibits CE from happening in this field?

- **Community engagement in the field of journalism education is promoted by the desire of institutions, individuals and community partners to work together for mutual benefit.** Educators had different experiences of conducting community engagement. However, the survey and interviews revealed that some participants felt they had low levels of support from institutions despite their public postures, such as those evidenced in KEF narratives or through mission statements, which assert community engagement as a strategic priority. This sense was compounded by the perception that university systems and institutional risk aversion created a lack of agility that made cultivating community engagement in the field challenging.

- **Community engagement is facilitated by the drive, passion, contacts and skills of individual journalism educators.** It is not seen as a core duty by journalism educators but rather an additional and sometimes unrecognised activity that occurs within busy workloads alongside primarily learning and teaching, but also research. Ongoing conflation and lack of precision in defining and capturing community engagement may provide obstacles to further practice.

- **Whilst not an issue in this sample, workplace precarity could undermine further efforts to extend engagement practices as budget pressures increase in the sector or cohort sizes decline.** This is likely to be compounded by demoralisation, dissatisfaction and ill-health amongst academics across the sector. **Lack of ethnic and other forms of diversity amongst journalism academics and industry could challenge efforts to extend engagement activities beyond traditional community partners and expand authentic dialogical relationships.**

- **Some tensions between critical media and professional journalism approaches within the field do exist.** However, educators on both sides appear committed to academic activism roles and to address societal problems. **The continued growth of journalism research suggests an on-going maturation of the academic field as does the existence of extensive academic networks both externally and internally.** The fact that most respondents reported
knowing colleagues who were community engaged suggests the potential for further collaboration and the enabling presence of supportive peers (Farnell, 2020).

SRQ2: What are the affordances/limitations for community engaged journalism educational practice in UK HEIs?

- There is a developing literature exploring radical new forms of journalism theory and practice in response to perceptions of crisis within the field brought on by technological, economic and even epistemological changes. Community engagement in journalism education affords a route to innovate and enhance the legitimacy of the field, enabling the exploration of new ways of imagining journalism *per se* as well as facilitating transformative learning.

- Existing concepts and practices within the academic and practical fields align with many core principles of community engagement and the educative mission of the university. These include journalism’s democratic role promoting the public sphere and encouraging critical, informed and rational debate (Habermas, 2015). Universities, meanwhile, face a continuing challenge to marshal political and public support in an increasingly polarised society and must respond by becoming more porous and effective sits of communicative action.

- Journalism programmes are largely focused on the professional context such as providing a ‘pipeline of talent’ for the industry. This professional relationship remains central to most undergraduate programmes and is likely to become more so as universities are required to demonstrate value for money by evidencing high rates of graduate employment. There is a danger that community engagement may become viewed as a distraction from this employability agenda.

7.3 Contribution

This project has sought to contribute to knowledge by undertaking the first mapping exercise of community engaged practice in the field of journalism undergraduate education at UK HEIs. This was achieved using an adapted framework based on those developed by Hart, Northmore and Gerhardt, (2009); Benneworth *et al.* (2018) and Farnell (2020), which were developed to assess institutional level activities, and instead focused on a single academic discipline. To the best of my knowledge this is also the first time that journalism-related research outputs in the form of REF impact or environment statements have been subject to systematic analysis, similarly undergraduate programme documents and KEF public and community engagement narratives. I was also able to undertake a survey of journalism educators to elicit a range of quantitative data that provided new
insight into the demographic make-up, ideas, values and attitudes of relevant academics in relation to community engagement practice. The semi-structured interviews also afforded a novel opportunity to gather the first qualitative data from educators who had worked on recent community engagement projects. As well as providing further rich detail and understanding of the different dimensions of community engagement in the field of journalism education at UK HEIs, these methods enabled me to apply a critical realist lens to describe factors which may promote or inhibit practice as well as identify the primary affordances and limitations of community engagement as a field of practice. It also required a new critical synthesis of the expansive literatures around journalism, community engagement and higher education in response to the sense of crisis that both journalism and the academy (Zelizer, 2015; Scott, 2022)

My aim has been to extend current thinking by facilitating a new network of educator-practitioners established during the study who may now be able to share and develop expertise and ideas about journalism education and community engagement. It is hoped that the work produced here may offer a roadmap for those journalism academics to use as they develop their own practices and understanding across the different dimensions discussed. Whilst not intended as a panacea for the challenges facing the academic or professional disciplines, it is hoped that this study may add to the case for journalism remaining a common fixture of UK universities in the near future as the sector continues to face financial pressures and cuts. This thesis therefore may also be relevant to academic leaders considering the future of courses at some, particularly ‘low-status’ institutions over the coming months by highlighting a case for journalism that embraces wider societal goals and the university mission to engage with diverse communities – particularly those closest to campus. The decline of the standard industry model of journalism delivery and the crisis of journalism per se may well result in the slow but inevitable disappearance of the ‘hackademic’ from UK lecture theatres. Community engagement may therefore offer an alternative direction for those whose industry skills and knowledge have become outdated and bolster the case that continued retrenchment should not undermine the rationale for journalism education itself. Meanwhile, the practices identified here may present opportunities for both new and legacy media companies seeking to develop techniques for engaging audiences with public interest journalism whilst community groups may also benefit from some of the kinds of collaborations identified in the previous chapters.

Much of the contribution of the study has already occurred in a practical sense as it has informed the development of my own practice as a journalism educator as well as a journalist. The EdD has been a successful form of ‘systematic self-critical inquiry’ (Stenhouse, 1981, p.103) that has already manifested itself in the development I have led of four new programmes at undergraduate and masters’ levels incorporating elements of the thinking contained in this thesis. It has also informed
new external partnerships I have built with schools, communities and local media. The study has influenced my contributions on university committees and shaped my comments as an external examiner. It also informs my continuing evolution as a journalist by suggesting new forms of practice, new topics and collaborations – opening doors to partnerships and influencing my appearances as a media commentator and my published work. Finally, I have sought to work towards social justice goals by identifying commonalities in the fields of journalism, the academy and marginalised communities/audiences in the development of a more participatory and democratic public sphere.

7.4 Limitations

Time and space have naturally limited the scope of this research project. The initial aims were intentionally broad and drew on diverse and expansive literatures. As a result, I have had to be selective in maintaining focus on the research questions and many rich and illuminating avenues of inquiry have been regretfully filed and noted for future study. Problems of definition have been prevalent throughout and my understanding of what might and might not constitute community engagement – or at least its potential - has changed to encompass wider forms of external engagement. Initial privileging of social justice aims, whilst well intentioned, has been tempered with a more pragmatic acceptance of a broad ‘public good’ model – best viewed as a continuum - which enthusiastically embraces economic aims especially those with a strong place-based or community dimension.

Methodological reservations around the use of public facing institutional documents have already been expressed and the availability of data – notably in terms of research through REF – have led to an overemphasis on this dimension of practice. The documents did not reveal any suggestions of the kind of sectoral wide demoralisation, over work or poor mental and physical health reported by academics described powerfully by Erickson et al. (2021) or acknowledge pressures caused by neo-liberal management policies likely to impact on community engagement practice.

Similarly, the absent voices in the study are painfully loud – notably those of community partners and students. The views of educators and institutions have been privileged throughout and I am conscious that my positionality locates me squarely within a particular academic tribe – that of the ‘hackademic’. This no doubt increased my susceptibility to ideological agreement or acquiescence bias – particularly in the interviews. This reflexivity should be extended beyond my professional biography to include my gender and socio-economic status as well as my ethnographic positionality within a dominant and historically contingent worldview.
Future work in this area must capture student activities as well as the views of community members who engage in journalism-related projects including those in industry. Similarly, more work needs to be done to develop the methodology to capture the true participatory nature of the different dimensions of community practice which here plays a secondary role to the notion of impact or knowledge transfer.

7.5 Future actions

I hope this study will provide the springboard for further research and practice. It must be acknowledged that success for this type of work is contingent on the wider domestic political and international environments. Higher education is still in recovery from the upheavals of Brexit and Covid and unstable policy contexts, notably in the form of an upcoming general election in the UK, are likely to create continued challenges for institutions. The primacy accorded the economic function of the university remains likely to remain, whatever the result in 2024, whilst many institutions face deepening budget constraints, a failing funding formula, uncertain demand and heightened risk through exposure to global educational markets. Educators in all fields will need to reconcile the opportunities and threats posed by new technologies particularly artificial intelligence whilst discovering a way of countering rhetorical attacks on the university itself.

On an individual level, I intend to turn the material of this thesis into an article for a peer-reviewed journal and to develop a piece of community engaged participatory journalism practice in the form of a short documentary film which I will submit to appropriate festivals for public dissemination. It is hoped the film and the process of producing it will also form the basis for further published research that will begin to fill in the many gaps left by this study – notably around capturing the educative experiences of students and community groups. The process of presenting the work in progress, promoting the survey and conducting the interviews has dramatically expanded my range of academic contacts affording the opportunity to draw on a network of like-minded community-engaged educator-practitioners across the UK willing to develop further collaborative projects. Finally, it is hoped the thesis itself, available on the White Rose eTheses Online, will provide a useful resource and starting point – as others have for me - for those interested in developing their own work in this field or provide encouragement to other EdD students embarked on this long and rewarding journey.
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Appendix A: Ethics clearance letter

[The University of Sheffield emblem]

Downloaded: 25/07/2023
Approved: 25/03/2022

Jonathan Brown
Registration number: 190252958
School of Education
Programme: Doctor of Education

Dear Jonathan,

PROJECT TITLE: Community engagement and journalism education: an analysis of UK HEIs
APPLICATION: Reference Number 036951

On behalf of the University ethics reviewers who reviewed your project, I am pleased to inform you that on 25/03/2022 the above-named project was approved on ethics grounds, on the basis that you will adhere to the following documentation that you submitted for ethics review:

- University research ethics application form 036951 (form submission date: 14/03/2022), (expected project end date: 04/10/2023).
- Participant information sheet 1098679 version 3 (14/03/2022).
- Participant consent form 1098680 version 1 (25/10/2021).

If during the course of the project you need to deviate significantly from the above-approved documentation please inform me since written approval will be required.

Your responsibilities in delivering this research project are set out at the end of this letter.

Yours sincerely,

ED8ETH Edu
Ethics Administrator
School of Education

Please note the following responsibilities of the researcher in delivering the research project:

- The project must abide by the University’s Research Ethics Policy: [https://www.sheffield.ac.uk/research-services/ethics-integrity/policy](https://www.sheffield.ac.uk/research-services/ethics-integrity/policy)
- The project must abide by the University’s Good Research & Innovation Practices Policy: [https://www.sheffield.ac.uk/polopoly_fs/1.671066/files/GRIPPolicy.pdf](https://www.sheffield.ac.uk/polopoly_fs/1.671066/files/GRIPPolicy.pdf)
- The researcher must inform their supervisor (in the case of a student) or Ethics Administrator (in the case of a member of staff) of any significant changes to the project or the approved documentation.
- The researcher must comply with the requirements of the law and relevant guidelines relating to security and confidentiality of personal data.
- The researcher is responsible for effectively managing the data collected both during and after the end of the project in line with best practice, and any relevant legislative, regulatory or contractual requirements.
Appendix B: Project information sheet

COMMUNITY ENGAGEMENT IN JOURNALISM EDUCATION RESEARCH PROJECT

You are being invited to take part in a research project. Before you decide whether to participate, it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. Ask us if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. Take time to decide whether you wish to take part. Thank you for reading this.

What is the project’s purpose?
This research project forms part of my thesis for a Doctor of Education degree at the University of Sheffield.

I am seeking to understand ways in which journalism education at UK higher education institutions can be considered 'community engaged'.

Community engagement is defined here as a process whereby universities engage with community stakeholders to undertake joint activities that can be mutually beneficial even if each side benefits in a different way. The project seeks to evaluate what these benefits are, how they arise and to identify best practices in this field and how they may be shared.

Research Questions:

RQ1: In what ways and to what extent can undergraduate programmes in journalism education at UK HEIs be described as ‘community engaged’?

- SRQ1: What promotes/inhibits CE from happening in this field? (wicked problems)
- SRQ2: What are the affordances/constraints for community engaged journalism educational practice in UK HEIs?
- SRQ3: How can best practices be shared and encouraged?

Why have I been chosen?
You have been chosen to take part in this research because you are involved in the field of journalism education at a UK higher education institution.

Do I have to take part?
No. It is up to you to decide whether to take part. If you do decide to take part, you will be given this information sheet to keep and asked to sign a consent form.
You will be able to withdraw from taking part in the research without any negative consequences. You do not have to give a reason. If you wish to withdraw from the research, please contact Jonathan Brown on jacbrown1@sheffield.ac.uk.

However, whilst every effort will be made to do so, it will not always be possible to return your data should you withdraw after October 2022. This is because you will be anonymous in the data and your data may form part of a larger data set from which it is impossible to remove.

**What will happen to me if I take part? What do I have to do?**

Initially, you will be asked to complete a short questionnaire, which will take around 10-15 minutes to complete. Here you will be able to indicate whether you are willing to participate in a follow up interview to discuss a community university project you have been involved in in more depth. This will take place by video meeting platform at your convenience and will last between 30-60 minutes. You will be asked a series of questions about your role in the project, the nature of the project and asked to discuss any outcomes or outputs generated by the project. You may be asked to elaborate on your answers where appropriate. Please note this interview will be recorded and your answers used as part of the research data. You will also be asked at the interview whether you are willing to share any journalistic outputs to be analysed as part of the research.

**What are the possible disadvantages and risks of taking part?**

There should be no risks associated with taking part in the study. However, it will take up some of your time although it is intended that this will be kept a minimum.

**What are the possible benefits of taking part?**

Whilst there are no immediate benefits for those people participating in the project, it is hoped that this work will generate new understanding in the field of journalism education and to identify mutual benefits and best practices for stakeholders engaged in in community university partnerships.

**Will my taking part in this project be kept confidential?**

All the information that we collect about you during the research will be kept strictly confidential and will only be accessible to members of the research team. You will not be able to be identified in any reports or publications unless you have given your explicit consent for this. All data will be anonymised as soon as possible after collection.

If you agree to us sharing the information you provide with other researchers (e.g. by making it available in ORDA, the University of Sheffield’s data repository) then your personal details will not be included unless you explicitly request this. However, the researchers may be required to disclose information in the event of concerns over safeguarding, criminality or public safety emerging during the research.

**What is the legal basis for processing my personal data?**

According to data protection legislation, we are required to inform you that the legal basis we are applying to process your personal data is that ‘processing is necessary for the performance of a task carried out in the public interest’ (Article 6(1)(e)). Further information can be found in the University’s Privacy Notice [https://www.sheffield.ac.uk/govern/data-protection/privacy/general](https://www.sheffield.ac.uk/govern/data-protection/privacy/general).

**What will happen to the data collected, and the results of the research project?**
Data collection and storage will comply with all General Data Protection Regulations (GDPR) as well as the common law duty of confidentiality. All data will be anonymised at the first available opportunity and any identifiable information destroyed at the completion of the study. All data will be kept secure on an encrypted device before being transferred to the university supported server.

Due to the nature of this research, it is possible that other researchers may find the data collected useful in answering future research questions. Anonymised data from the questionnaire and interviews may be made available in ORDA, the University of Sheffield’s data repository. We will ask for your explicit consent for your data to be shared and stored in this way.

The anonymised data will be published in the form of a thesis where it will be made available through publicly accessible platforms. It is likely that the anonymised data may also be published in future journal articles or disseminated in conference papers and presentations. However, you will not be identifiable.

**Who is organising and funding the research?**

This research is being co-funded by the researcher and their employer (York St John University) as part of a Doctoral Thesis.

**Who is the Data Controller?**

The University of Sheffield will act as the Data Controller for this study. This means that the University is responsible for looking after your information and using it properly.

**Who has ethically reviewed the project?**

This project has been ethically approved via the University of Sheffield’s Ethics Review Procedure, as administered by the School of Education.

**What if something goes wrong and I wish to complain about the research or report a concern or incident?**

If you are dissatisfied with any aspect of the research and wish to make a complaint, please contact my supervisor Dr Vassiliki Papatsiba in the first instance. If you feel your complaint has not been handled in a satisfactory way you can contact the Head of the School of Education, Professor Rebecca Lawthom. If the complaint relates to how your personal data has been handled, you can find information about how to raise a complaint in the University’s Privacy Notice: https://www.sheffield.ac.uk/govern/data-protection/privacy/general.

If you wish to make a report of a concern or incident relating to potential exploitation, abuse or harm resulting from your involvement in this project, please contact the project’s Designated Safeguarding Contact Professor Rebecca Lawthom r.lawthom@sheffield.ac.uk. If the concern or incident relates to the Designated Safeguarding Contact, or if you feel a report you have made to this Contact has not been handled in a satisfactory way, please contact the University’s Research Ethics & Integrity Manager (Lindsay Unwin; l.v.unwin@sheffield.ac.uk).

**Contacts for further information**

Jonathan Brown

York St John University

Lord Mayor’s Walk
York
Jacbrown1@sheffield.ac.uk
07557780199

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Sheffield
v.papatsiba@sheffield.ac.uk
+44 114 222 8152

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University of Sheffield
Glossop Road
Sheffield
r.lawthom@sheffield.ac.uk
+44 114 222 8152
Appendix C: Community engagement questionnaire

Demographic questions

Q1

Community Engagement in Journalism Education in UK HEIs

Welcome to the research study. You are being asked to complete this questionnaire because you are involved in the field of journalism education at a UK higher education institution. It forms part of a research project for my thesis for a Doctorate in Education at the University of Sheffield.

My research seeks to understand ways in which journalism education at UK higher education institutions can be considered ‘community engaged’. Community engagement is defined here as a process whereby universities engage with community stakeholders to undertake joint activities that can be mutually beneficial even if each side benefits in a different way.

Communities can be defined as publics or groups external to the university which typically do not engage with the university, may be socially weaker and/or socially excluded and may lack resources. It is not taken here to include major/powerful industry/business partners who may benefit through conventional technology or knowledge transfer processes.

More information about the study is included in the Project Information Sheet which contains details on the use of data, ethical approval and who to contact in case of any concerns with the study.

The questionnaire should take you between 10-15 minutes to complete. If you are particularly interested in this topic you will also be invited to take part in a second stage of open questions which will take a further 10 minutes.

Your participation in this research is voluntary. All data will be anonymous and you will not be able to be identified in any reports or publications.

If you would like to contact the principal investigator in the study to discuss this research before completing the questionnaire, please e-mail Jonathan Brown on jacobrown@sheffield.ac.uk.

By clicking the consent button below you are agreeing to take part in the study and confirming the following:

I agree to complete the following questionnaire.
I have read and understood the project information sheet.
I have been given the opportunity to ask questions about the project.

I consent, begin the study
Q2
Display this question

How do you describe your gender?

- Male
- Female
- Other
- Prefer not to say

Q3

How would you define your ethnicity?

- White
- Mixed/multiple ethnic group
- Asian/Asian British
- Black/African/Caribbean/Black British
- Other ethnic group - please state
- Prefer not to say

Q4
Display this question

What is your current academic position?

- Teaching associate
- Lecturer
- Senior lecturer
- Reader/associate professor
- Professor
- Other - please state
- Click to write Choice 7
Q2

Display this question

How do you describe your gender?

- Male
- Female
- Other
- Prefer not to say

Q3

How would you define your ethnicity?

- White
- Mixed/multiple ethnic group
- Asian/Asian British
- Black/African/Caribbean/Black British
- Other ethnic group - please state
- Prefer not to say

Q4

Display this question

What is your current academic position?

- Teaching associate
- Lecturer
- Senior lecturer
- Reader/associate professor
- Professor
- Other - please state
- Click to write Choice 7
Q8
Display this question
If Community Engagement in Journalism Education in UK HEIs Welcome to the research study. You are... I consent, begin the study. is selected

Would you describe your professional journalistic career background as having been predominantly in one of the following fields? You may include more than one answer if appropriate.

- Regional/local newspaper, agency or online
- National newspaper, agency or online
- Regional/local radio
- National radio
- Regional/local TV
- National TV
- International media
- Other - please state
- Don't know

Q9
Display this question
If Community Engagement in Journalism Education in UK HEIs Welcome to the research study. You are... I consent, begin the study. is selected

In total how many years have you been employed (full or part time) at a university?

- 1-9 years
- 10-19 years
- More than 20 years

Q10
Display this question
If Community Engagement in Journalism Education in UK HEIs Welcome to the research study. You are... I consent, begin the study. is selected

Which of the following terms best describes your current institution?

- Oxbridge
- Russell Group
- Post-92 university (non Russell Group)
- Post-92 university
- Other - please state
- Don't know
Q11
In which of the following regions/nations is your institution based?
- London and South East
- South West
- Midlands
- East Anglia
- North West
- Yorkshire and Humber
- North East
- Scotland
- Wales
- Northern Ireland

Q12
Is your Journalism undergraduate programme professionally accredited?
- Yes - if so please state by which organisation
- No
- Don't know

Q13
Are you part of a research network in your field?
- Yes - if so state which one
- No
- Don't know
Q14
How important are the following ideas to you as a journalism educator?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Idea</th>
<th>Very Important</th>
<th>Quite Important</th>
<th>Neither Important nor Unimportant</th>
<th>Not Very Important</th>
<th>Not Important at all</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Objectivity</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accuracy/truthfulness</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Campaigning/activist journalism</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holding power to account</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical skill development</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student employability</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social justice</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Democracy</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creativity</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entrepreneurship</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Q15
Display this question
If Community Engagement in Journalism Education in UK HEIs Welcome to the research study. You are... I consent begin the study is selected

Please estimate how many students are currently enrolled on your journalism undergraduate programme/s.

○ Up to 30
○ 31-99
○ More than 60

Q16
Display this question
If Community Engagement in Journalism Education in UK HEIs Welcome to the research study. You are... I consent begin the study is selected

Please estimate how many full time/part time/casual staff deliver journalism teaching or research into journalism undergraduate programmes at your institution?

○ 1-9
○ 10-19
○ More than 20
Community engagement can be defined as “the process whereby universities engage with community stakeholders to undertake joint activities that can be mutually beneficial even if each side benefits in a different way” (Spennerworth et al, 2018).

Communities can be defined as publics or groups external to your institution which typically do not engage with the university, may be socially weaker and/or socially excluded and may lack resources. It is not taken here to include collaboration with major/powerful industry/business partners who may benefit through conventional technology or knowledge transfer or other formal relationships such as accreditation.

Please respond to the following statements in light of this information:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Undecided</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Community engagement is important to me as a journalism educator.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community engagement is important to my institution.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My institution provides me with the support necessary to carry out successful community engagement.</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My teaching practice involves community engagement.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My research involves community engagement.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>My students engage with local communities as part of their journalism curriculum.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My students have the opportunity to engage with communities outside the curriculum.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Q18
Do you know academic colleagues at your institution who are involved in community engaged practice?

- Yes
- No
- Don’t know
Q19
To what extent can journalism undergraduate education help address the following issues? 0% = not at all, 100% = provides substantial opportunity for change. Use slider to indicate the percentage.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issue</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>20</th>
<th>30</th>
<th>40</th>
<th>50</th>
<th>60</th>
<th>70</th>
<th>80</th>
<th>90</th>
<th>100</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Climate crisis</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Economic inequalities</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Racial justice</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Gender/sexual inequalities</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rebuild society economically and socially after Covid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Build new governance structures based on participation, engagement and co-operation</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Create a more agile and responsive education or training system that meets the needs of society</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improve the way we develop, share and generate knowledge to improve decision making and understanding</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support news and media industries</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imagine new forms of urban and rural communities that promote human flourishing</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Q20
Display this question
- Community engagement in journalism education in UK HEIs. Welcome to the research study. You are... I consent, begin the study. Is selected

Have you led or taken part in a journalism related community engaged project/activity in the past five years?
Please note if you respond positively to this question you will be asked to spend 5-10 minutes completing the next section. It may also be possible to identify you from some of your answers. However, all data will be fully anonymised during the analysis and all raw identifiable data deleted. You will not be identifiable at any further stage in the research project.
○ Yes
○ No - end survey

Q21
Display this question
- Have you led or taken part in a journalism related community engaged project/activity in the past... Is selected

Please briefly describe the most recent community engaged project/activity you have been involved in. Please add a link to the project/activity if possible.

Q22
Display this question
- Have you led or taken part in a journalism related community engaged project/activity in the past... Is selected

Please describe what practical/financial support you received to complete this activity/project? This may be from your institution or from an external source/funding body.

Q23
Display this question
- Have you led or taken part in a journalism related community engaged project/activity in the past... Is selected

What intended outcomes or impacts did this activity/project have?
Q24
Display this question

- Have you led or taken part in a journalism related community engaged project/activity in the past... Yes is selected

Please describe how you evaluated this project/activity and what conclusions you reached in terms of lessons learnt and any mutual benefits generated for the parties involved.

Q25
Skip to

- Please provide an email address below... If Yes is selected

- Skip to

End of survey if No is selected

Would be willing to take part in a 30–60-minute online interview to discuss your work around community engagement in further detail?

- Yes
- No

Q26
Skip destination

Go to skip origin

Please provide an email address below and I will contact you with further details of the study to help you decide whether you wish to take part.

Add Block

End of Survey

We thank you for your time spent taking this survey.

Your response has been recorded.
Appendix D: Data management plan

Community engagement and journalism education: an analysis of UK HEIs

Defining your data

- What digital data (and physical data if applicable) will you collect or create during the project?
- How will the data be collected or created, and over what time period?
- What formats will your digital data be in? (E.g., .doc, .txt, .jpeg)
- Approximately how much digital data (in GB, MB, etc) will be generated during the project?
- Are you using pre-existing datasets? Give details if possible, including conditions of use.

The primary research for my EdD project will take place in two phases.

**Phase one:** A 20 question online survey developed using Qualtrics will be circulated to c. 800 academics working in the field of Journalism education at UK HEIs. This will include open and multiple-choice responses in relation to individuals’ understanding of and activities in relation to community engaged practice in the field of Journalism. It will also include some basic demographic information such as gender, age and career profile.

This study will take place between April 2022 - September 2022. Between 100-200 responses are hoped for. The data be collected and stored on Qualtrics and then downloaded for analysis in the form of .csv files. Participant consent will cover all planned uses of the data, including long-term storage and sharing.

**Phase two:** Semi-structured interviews involving 3-5 participants lasting between 30-60 minutes will be recorded using Google Meet. These will be stored as .mp4 files. These data will include more in-depth responses to the survey questions gathered through semi-structured interviews. They will also include more detailed demographic information. Data will be transcribed and analysed using In Vivo software. It will be stored using .csv and Word documents.

Pre-existing publicly available data sets will also be used to supplement the findings. Conditions of use for the existing datasets will be observed.

The data sets that I intend to use are:

- REF impact statements: Available at [https://impact.ref.ac.uk/casestudies/](https://impact.ref.ac.uk/casestudies/) These can be downloaded and stored as HDML or PDFs.
- KEF public and community engagement narratives. Available at [https://kef.ac.uk/dashboard](https://kef.ac.uk/dashboard) These can be downloaded and stored as .csv or Word files.

The total data volume is not expected to exceed 10GB.

Looking after data during your research

Created using DMPonline. Last modified 11 March 2022
• Where will you store digital data during the project to ensure it is secure and backed up regularly? (E.g. University research data storage, or University Google drive)
• How will you name and organise your data files? (An example filename can help to illustrate this)
• If you collect or create physical data, where will you store these securely?
• How will you make data easier to understand and use? (E.g. Include file structure and methodology in a README file)
• Will you use extra security precautions for any of your digital or physical data? (E.g. for sensitive end/or personal data)

As the researcher, I will be responsible for the management of all data. All data will be stored and backed up on my TuoS Google Drive account. It will be accessed only through password protected devices which include up to date firewall and anti-virus software. The Sheffield VPN will be used when working off campus.

In order to make data easier to understand and use I will devise a consistent hierarchical folder structure and file naming convention from the start of the data gathering. A plain text file with the name README will be placed at the top of the file structure. It will include details of the file structure, methodology and any other information relevant to understanding the data.

File names will include:
  • Date (often at start in YYYYMMDD format)
  • Descriptive identifier (Interview, Questionnaire, Budget, etc)
  • Version number (e.g., v01)
  • Numerical signifier to indicate participant/interviewee
  • Name of last modifier

No physical data will be collected or produced. There is a minimal risk associated with the data although there will be some demographic data collected and all data will be anonymised as soon as possible after collection. Any changes to the data during collection/analysis will be logged.

Pseudonymised data and the key that links them will be kept separately and securely. The key will be kept on my personal U: drive. All personal details will be destroyed at the completion of the project. Interview recordings will be deleted following transcription.

Storing data after your research

• Which parts of your data will be stored on a long-term basis after the end of the project?
• Where will the data be stored after the project? (E.g. University of Sheffield repository ORDA, or a subject-specific repository)
• How long will the data be stored for? (E.g. standard TuoS retention period of 10 years after the project)
• Who will place the data in a repository or other long-term storage? (E.g. you, or your supervisor)
• If you plan to use long-term data storage other than a repository, who will be responsible for the data?

All primary personal data stored on Google Drive will be destroyed at the completion of the project. However, the final analysed dataset underpinning the research, which will include anonymised interview transcripts and the anonymised answers from the survey, will be deposited in ORDA in accordance with the University's best practice guidelines regarding data reuse and collaboration. The data will be placed on ORDA by me (Jonathan Brown). Participants will be advised of and be required to consent to the plans for long term storage and destruction of any data in the PIS.

Sharing data after your research

• How will you make data available outside of the research group after the project? (E.g. openly available through a repository, or on request through your department)
• Will you make all of your data available, or are there reasons you can’t do this? (E.g. personal data, commercial or legal restrictions, very large datasets)
• If there are reasons you can’t share all of your data, how might you make as much of it available as possible? (E.g. anonymisation, participant consent, sharing analysed data only)
• How will you make your data as widely accessible as possible? (E.g. include a data availability statement in publications, ensure published data has a DOI)
• What licence will you apply to your data to say how it can be reused and shared? (E.g. one of the Creative Commons licences)

Individual participants will have access to their own data on request up until October 2022 when it will become part of larger anonymised data sets. They will be informed of this in the PIS. After that only myself as researcher and my supervisor will have access to the data during the lifetime of the project.

The analysed and anonymised data, which will include anonymised interview transcripts and the anonymised answers from the survey, will be made available for other researchers through ORDA. An appropriate standard for describing the data widely used in the social science, such as DOI Codebook, will be used to ensure it is easily accessible/searchable. To further aid this process I will seek to explain the methods, aims and methodology of the research; describe the meanings of variables and codes used; describe any derivation, transformations, de-identification (pseudonymisation/anonymisation) or data cleaning carried out.

The data will be licensed under Creative Commons (CC-BY) and an availability statement will be published along with the thesis. It is anticipated that the final doctoral thesis and will be stored on the White Rose repository following completion.

Putting your plan into practice

Created using WINonline. Last modified 11 March 2022

3 of 4
• Who is responsible for making sure your data management plan is followed? (E.g. you with the support of your supervisor)
• How often will your data management plan be reviewed and updated? (E.g. yearly and if the project changes)
• Are there any actions you need to take in order to put your data management plan into practice? (E.g. requesting University research data storage)

I will be responsible for ensuring the data management plan is followed. The plan will be reviewed and updated annually or as necessary until the completion of the project (anticipated completion date October 2023). No immediate actions are required to put the plan into practice.
## Appendix E: Impact case study template

**Impact case study (REF3)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unit of Assessment:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title of case study:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period when the underpinning research was undertaken:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Details of staff conducting the underpinning research from the submitting unit:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name(s):</th>
<th>Role(s) (e.g. job title):</th>
<th>Period(s) employed by submitting HEI:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period when the claimed impact occurred:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Is this case study continued from a case study submitted in 2014? Y/N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

1. **Summary of the impact** (indicative maximum 100 words)

2. **Underpinning research** (indicative maximum 500 words)

3. **References to the research** (indicative maximum of six references)

4. **Details of the impact** (indicative maximum 750 words)

5. **Sources to corroborate the impact** (indicative maximum of 10 references)
Appendix F: Unit level environment template

Unit-level environment template (REF5b)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unit of Assessment:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Unit context and structure, research and impact strategy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. People</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Income, infrastructure and facilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Collaboration and contribution to the research base, economy and society</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix G: Public and community engagement narrative statement

Knowledge Exchange Framework
Public & Community Engagement
Narrative Template

For submission to KEF@re.ukri.org by Friday 16 October 2020*
Max words: 2,000 (plus 120 word lay summary).

*The original deadline of 29 May 2020 was extended in response to the Covid-19 pandemic. Submissions must use the KEF narrative templates, but either this template or the version with the old submission date will be accepted.
Please note a word limit of 2,000 words applies across the five ‘aspects’ of this statement. The summary of approach (below) has a separate word limit of 120 words. Diagrams and images may be included, providing they can be extracted for online display and the total statement (excluding cover page) does not exceed ten pages.

Summary of approach

Please provide a short (max 120 words) summary of your approach to community and public engagement. This should be in the style of a ‘lay summary’ and provide a succinct and accessible overview of your approach.

Word count:

Aspect 1: Strategy

Developing your strategy
Information on your existing strategy, planning process and allocation of resources, including how you identified relevant public and community groups and their needs, and facilitated their ability to engage with the institution, as a means to help understand intended achievements.

Refer to the supporting guidance document for examples of evidence you may wish to include to corroborate your self-assessment (page 15).

Word count:

Self-assessment score
Developing your strategy

Insert score between 1 – 5 here
Refer to guidance document for scoring criteria (page 12-14).

Aspect 2: Support

Practical support to deliver your strategy
Provide information about the practical support you have put in place to support your public and community engagement, and recognise the work appropriately.

Refer to the supporting guidance document for examples of evidence you may wish to include to corroborate your self-assessment (page 16).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word count:</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Self-assessment score</strong>&lt;br&gt;Support structures and recognition</td>
<td>0 ← Insert score between 1 – 5 here&lt;br&gt;Refer to guidance document for scoring criteria (page 12-14).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Aspect 3: Activity

### Delivering your strategy: activities

Provide information on the focus of your approach and describe examples of the activity delivered. How do you know activities have met the identified needs of public and community groups? Please focus on the last three years of activity.

Refer to the supporting guidance document for examples of evidence you may wish to include to corroborate your self-assessment (page 17).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word count:</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Self-assessment score</strong>&lt;br&gt;Delivering your strategy</td>
<td>0 ← Insert score between 1 – 5 here&lt;br&gt;Refer to guidance document for scoring criteria (page 12-14).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Aspect 4: Results and learning

### Evidencing success

Describe the outcomes and/or impacts of your activities. How have you evaluated these individual activities to ensure you understand whether they have addressed your strategic objectives – and intended achievements for public and community? To what extent have you learnt from your approach and applied this to future activity?

Refer to the supporting guidance document for examples of evidence you may wish to include to corroborate your self-assessment (page 18).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word count:</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
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<td>0 ← Insert score between 1 – 5 here&lt;br&gt;Refer to guidance document for scoring criteria (page 12-14).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Aspect 5: Acting on results

### Communicating and acting on the results

How has the institution acted on the outcomes of activities or programmes to ensure it is meeting the wider strategic aims; to inform the development of this strategic approach; and to continuously improve and improve outcomes and impacts for public and communities? To what extent have the results of the work been shared with the communities involved, internally in the institution, and externally?

*Refer to the supporting guidance document for examples of evidence you may wish to include to corroborate your self-assessment (page 19).*

### Word count:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Self-assessment score</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>Insert score between 1 – 5 here refer to guidance document for scoring criteria (page 12-14).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communicating and acting on the results</td>
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<td></td>
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Total word count across five aspects: (max 2,000 words across no more than ten A4 pages)
Appendix H: Example programme specification/course document

Programme Specification

KEY FACTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Programme name</th>
<th>BA Journalism</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Award</td>
<td>BA (Hons)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School</td>
<td>School of Communication &amp; Creativity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Department or equivalent</td>
<td>Journalism</td>
</tr>
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<td>UCAS Code</td>
<td>P500</td>
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<td>Programme code</td>
<td>USJOURN</td>
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<td>Total UK credits</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total ECTS</td>
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PROGRAMME SUMMARY

The BA Journalism programme combines professional practical teaching with rigorous academic provision in order to develop the skills required for a career in professional journalism. It aims to produce critical thinkers and reflective practitioners who are skilled in multimedia and digital production. The programme offers the chance to critically reflect from an analytical perspective upon the development of contemporary local, national and international print, broadcast and digital journalism and ethical concepts such as accountability and accuracy.

Aims

The programme aims to provide you with:

- Develop skills in digital journalism and associated practical skills and knowledge.
- Provide written and verbal communication skills which would enable graduates to work in the industry.
- Develop academic and professional research skills.
- Develop the ability to produce high quality journalism informed and improved by a knowledge of the history of journalism, and the government structures of Britain and Europe.
- Develop the ability to adapt to new technology and to seek and assimilate information from a range of sources. Encourage and develop the consideration of legal, ethical issues and copyright issues in relation to journalistic output and behaviour.
- Encourage and develop reflection and analysis of the role of journalism and the journalist in society.
- Develop the ability to produce extended pieces of journalism and also extended essays on related subjects.
- Develop the critical and language skills required to facilitate work in a national or international context.

Certificate/Programme Stage 1

Following successful completion of Programme Stage one or the Certificate in Journalism you will be able to discuss underlying concepts and principles associated with Journalism and interpret these within the context of your practice.

Diploma/Programme Stage 2

When you have successfully completed of Programme Stage two or the Diploma in Journalism you will have built on your previous knowledge and experience. You will
have developed skills of enquiry in your subject and different approaches to problem-solving, you will also be able to identify the limitations of your knowledge.

Degree/Programme Stage 3

Following successful completion of Programme Stage three or the degree you will have a coherent, systematic and detailed knowledge of your discipline. You will be able to develop techniques for practice drawing on research and scholarship demonstrating your role as a reflective practitioner.

WHAT WILL I BE EXPECTED TO ACHIEVE?

On successful completion of this programme, you will be expected to be able to:

Knowledge and understanding:
- Demonstrate understanding of the skills required to produce accurate and engaging news and features, suitable for a target publication or broadcast,
- Display understanding of how to edit to professional standards on multiple platforms and design for a variety of print, broadcast, online, multimedia and digital output.
- Show an awareness of the value of thorough and accurate research, and the importance of transferring findings accurately to your own work, and the importance of correct sourcing and referencing.
- Demonstrate understanding and be able to apply the laws and ethical issues relating to the media and understand the ethical issues relating to the media.

Skills:
- Research and assess facts, concepts, underlying values and theories from a wide variety of sources, and use this research to produce journalism and essays of varying length, and presentations, exercising professional judgement.
- Research, through all methods outlined above, and analyse sources available to journalists.
- Work constructively with other members of a team when producing joint projects for coursework and student publications and on work placements.
- Individually and in teams produce magazines, newspapers, websites and broadcast programmes of professional quality and to a deadline; produce responsible solutions to ethical problems which arise in the media.
- Take responsibility for work both individually and in teams.
- Write engaging, concise, well-constructed copy for different publications, both print and internet, and produce professional quality broadcast packages appropriate to a target audience.
- Edit journalistic material and design print and internet publications to a professional standard.
- Manage information and time constructively and solve problems effectively.
- Research topics relating to historical and ethical journalistic issues, analyse data, draw conclusions and present them in essays and orally.

Values and Attitudes:
- Show an awareness of the ethical and legal roles and responsibilities of a journalist in society; become aware of the importance of accuracy and fairness and the right to personal privacy; show respect for the views of others, both in the media and the outside world.
- Show consideration of the rules and regulations of the university.
HOW WILL I LEARN?

The practical journalism subjects will be taught in seminars, workshops, and one-to-one copy clinics. You will undertake individual research using electronic resources and libraries and through contacting and interviewing newsworthy people. Full use will be made of the radio and TV studios and the online and print newsrooms. The emphasis will be on replicating the professional world, and you will produce newspapers, magazines and radio programmes about live issues regularly. These exercises develop group working and time management skills. Work attachments and other journalism are assessed in the third year through the production of portfolios. As you progress through the course, gradually more of the work is based on your own ideas and initiative, and on live reporting assignments. You will also, through presentations and seminars, reflect critically on the values and routines underpinning journalistic practice.

Politics and Current Affairs, History of Journalism, International News and Media Law and Ethics and other academic modules will be taught through lectures, seminars, essay writing, library research, presentations and extended project work. These courses will enable you to extend your in-depth research analytical skills through extended essay writing. Assessment will be by essay writing and examinations.

All the values & attitudes will be taught through the models of good professional practice provided through the work of lecturers and guest speakers, and through reflection on issues in the media now and in the past. Ethical issues are addressed during practical journalism sessions throughout the course, and media law is studied in year 1 and in more depth in year 3.

WHAT TYPES OF ASSESSMENT AND FEEDBACK CAN I EXPECT?

Assessment and Assessment Criteria

Coursework, essay writing and examinations.

Assessment Criteria are descriptions, based on the intended learning outcomes, of the skills, knowledge or attitudes that you need to demonstrate in order to complete an assessment successfully, providing a mechanism by which the quality of an assessment can be measured. Grade-Related Criteria are descriptions of the level of skills, knowledge or attributes that you need to demonstrate in order to achieve a certain grade or mark in an assessment, providing a mechanism by which the quality of an assessment can be measured and placed within the overall set of marks. Assessment Criteria and Grade-Related Criteria will be made available to you to support you in completing assessments. Theses may be provided in programme handbooks, module specifications, on the virtual learning environment or attached to a specific assessment task.

Feedback on Assessment

Feedback will be provided in line with our Assessment and Feedback Policy. In particular, you will normally be provided with feedback within three weeks of the submission deadline or assessment date. This would normally include a provisional grade or mark. For end of module examinations or an equivalent significant task (e.g. an end of module project), feedback will normally be provided within four weeks. The timescale for feedback on final year projects or dissertations may be longer.

City's full policy on feedback can be found at: https://www.city.ac.uk/.../Assessment-and-Feedback-
Assessment Regulations

In order to pass your Programme, you should complete successfully or be exempted from the relevant modules and assessments and will therefore acquire the required number of credits. You also need to pass each Programme Stage of your Programme in order to progress to the following Programme Stage.

The pass mark for each module is 40%.

If you fail an assessment component or a module, the following will apply:

1. Compensation: where you fail up to 30 credits or one sixth of the total credits within a Programme Stage, whichever is greater, you may be allowed compensation if:
   • Compensation is permitted for the module involved (see the What will I Study section of the programme specification), and
   • It can be demonstrated that you have satisfied all the Learning Outcomes of the modules in the Programme Stage, and
   • A minimum overall mark of no more than 10% below the module pass mark has been achieved in the module to be compensated, and
   • An aggregate mark of 40% has been achieved for the Programme Stage, and
   • The total volume of credits compensated over the entire degree does not exceed 45 credits.

Where you are eligible for compensation at the first attempt, this will be applied in the first instance rather than offering a resit opportunity.

If you receive a compensated pass in a module you will be awarded the credit for that module. The original component marks will be retained in the record of marks and your original module mark will be used for the purpose of your Award calculation.

2. Resit: where you are not eligible for compensation at the first attempt, you will be offered one resit attempt.

If you are successful in the resit, you will be awarded the credit for that module. The mark for each assessment component that is subject to a resit will be capped at the pass mark for the module. This capped mark will be used in the calculation of the final module mark together with the original marks for the components that you passed at first attempt.

If you do not meet the pass requirements for a module and do not complete your resit by the date specified you will not progress to the next Programme Stage and the Assessment Board will require you to be withdrawn from the Programme.

If you fail to meet the requirements for a particular Programme Stage or the Programme, the Assessment Board will consider whether you are eligible for an Exit Award as per the table below.

If you would like to know more about the way in which assessment works at City, please see the full version of the Assessment Regulations at: [http://www.city.ac.uk/data/assets/word_doc/0003/69249/s19.doc](http://www.city.ac.uk/data/assets/word_doc/0003/69249/s19.doc)
WHAT AWARD CAN I GET?

Bachelor’s Degree with Honours:

<table>
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<th>HE Level</th>
<th>Credits</th>
<th>Weighting (%)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>2</td>
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<td>3</td>
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Ordinary Degree:

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<th>Weighting (%)</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>67</td>
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</table>

Diploma of Higher Education:

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<th>HE Level</th>
<th>Credits</th>
<th>Weighting (%)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>33</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>67</td>
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</table>

Certificate of Higher Education:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Programme Stage</th>
<th>HE Level</th>
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<th>Weighting (%)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
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WHAT WILL I STUDY?

Programme Stage 1: 120 credits

You begin by concentrating on basic journalism skills (news reporting, feature writing, production/subbing and the using the internet as a source and making web pages) and learning about the historic context of contemporary practice (105 credits).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Module Title</th>
<th>SITS Code</th>
<th>Module Credits</th>
<th>Core/ Elective</th>
<th>Compensation Yes/No</th>
<th>Level</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>History of Journalism</td>
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<td>JO1202</td>
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<tr>
<td>Introduction to digital Journalism</td>
<td>JO1203</td>
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<tr>
<td>Introduction to audio and video journalism</td>
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<th>Language modules</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Any Language breadth module at level 1 (beginner level)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Any Language for specific purposes module at level 1 (beginner level)</td>
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<td>Any Language for specific purposes module at Level 2 (intermediate level)</td>
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<td>Any Language breadth module at Level 3 (upper intermediate level or higher)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Any Language for specific purposes module at Level 3 (upper intermediate level or higher)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Any Language for specific purposes module at Level 4 (advanced)</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Language for Specific Purposes: The language is taught in the context of your main subject in Media/Journalism/Social Sciences. French, German, Spanish, Russian are studied in this format. Arabic and Mandarin are studied in this format.

Programme Stage 2

In Programme Stage 2 you will take five core modules which together make up 90 credits and two 15 credit modules from a choice of electives.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Module Title</th>
<th>SITS Code</th>
<th>Module Credits</th>
<th>Core/ Elective</th>
<th>Compensation Yes/No</th>
<th>Level</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Broadcast News Live</td>
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<td>Feature Writing</td>
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<tr>
<td>Online and Social Media Journalism</td>
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<td>Media, Theory and Society</td>
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<th>Language modules</th>
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<tr>
<td>Any Language breadth module at level 1 (beginner level)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any Language for specific purposes module at Level 4 (advanced)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Language for Specific Purposes:** The language is taught in the context of your main subject in Media/Journalism/Social Sciences.

French, German, Spanish, Russian are studied in this format.

**Language Breadth Modules:** The language is taught for general purposes.

Arabic and Mandarin are studied in this format.

**Programme Stage 3**

To pass Programme Stage 3, you must have:
- acquired 120 credits at HE Level 6, OR
- acquired 105 credits at HE Level 6 and 15 credits at HE Level 5 from the modules listed above in this Programme Stage.

- You will take two core modules (Media Law and Journalism Ethics).
- You must take at least one core elective (or both) from, Advanced Practical Journalism (Broadcast) and/or Magazine Branding Content and Design.
- You must take EITHER Journalism Project (15 credits) or Dissertation (30 credits)
If you take both core electives (JO3109 and JO3114) and dissertation you will not take any further electives.
If you take both core electives (JO3109 and JO3114) and project, you can take one further elective.
If you take one core elective out of JO3109 and JO3114 and dissertation you can take two further electives.
If you take one core elective out of JO3109 and JO3114 and project you can take three further electives.

Where modules appear at both Programme Stages 2 and 3, you may opt to take the module only once.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Module Title</th>
<th>SITS Code</th>
<th>Module Credits</th>
<th>Core/Elective</th>
<th>Compensation</th>
<th>Level</th>
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<tr>
<td>Journalism Ethics</td>
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<td>N</td>
<td>6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Magazine Branding, Content and Design</td>
<td>JO3109</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>CE</td>
<td>N</td>
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</tr>
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purposes module at Level 4 (advanced)

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Language for Specific Purposes: The language is taught in the context of your main subject in Media/Journalism/Social Sciences. French, German, Spanish, Russian are studied in this format.

Language Breadth Modules: The language is taught for general purposes. Arabic and Mandarin are studied in this format.

*Please note that this is an indicative list. These modules are subject to change depending on staff availability, student demand and some are offered on a biennial basis. There is no guarantee that every elective module listed above will run.

TO WHAT KIND OF CAREER MIGHT I GO ON?

If you would like more information on the Careers support available at City, please go to: http://www.city.ac.uk/careers/for-students-and-recent-graduates.

WHAT STUDY ABROAD OPTIONS ARE AVAILABLE?

As an Undergraduate student you can undertake a period of study abroad whilst completing the programme. This is possible through the SASS Exchange Programme, a year of study at one of our European and/or international partner universities via a sandwich year, which is undertaken between completing Programme Stage 2 and entering Programme Stage 3, extending the degree to four years.

The resulting degree title awarded would be: BA Journalism with Study Abroad.

Participation in the SASS Exchange Programme is through an application process. You are encouraged to investigate the opportunities available to you within your Department in your first year at City.

Information and support for this programme is provided by the SASS Exchanges Team (SASS_Exchanges@city.ac.uk).

WHAT PLACEMENT OPPORTUNITIES ARE AVAILABLE?

As an Undergraduate student you can undertake a one year work placement whilst completing the programme. This is possible through joining the Integrated Professional Training Programme, which is a sandwich year that is taken between completing Programme Stage 2 and entering Programme Stage 3, extending the degree to four years.

The resulting degree title awarded would be: BA Journalism with Integrated Professional Training.

In identifying relevant placement opportunities you should consider your long-term plans.
for employment; whether the work placement proposed is relevant to final year modules; whether it might provide experience on which a project could be based.

Information and support for this programme is provided by the SASS Placements Team (SASS.Placements@city.ac.uk).

1) You should discuss your plans with the relevant Department Placement Officer at the earliest opportunity, preferably during the autumn term of their second year.

2) The work placement must extend over a minimum of 9 months and a maximum of 12 months (including holidays allowed by the employing body). The Placement should normally run between the 1st September and the 31st August in the following year.

3) The placement must be approved by City as providing suitable supervision and training.

4) Participant students are required to pay an administrative charge to cover the School's costs associated with the work placement. This will be in the form of a reduced tuition fee for the placement year, which will cover continued enrolment with City and access to all of its facilities.

HOW DO I ENTER THE PROGRAMME?

A level: 128 UCAS tariff points (typically ABB at A-Level) excluding key skills and general studies. International Baccalaureate: 33 pts.

In addition GCSE grade C or equivalent in English language and mathematics or statistics. An IELTS score of at least 7 is mandatory for all students for whom English is not their first language. Full details of acceptable English language qualifications are given in the Undergraduate Prospectus.

Students are selected on the basis of academic performance, writing ability as well as their commitment to journalism.

Students may be invited for interviews and/or be asked to send in some journalism work. Applications are welcomed from mature students who have attended Access courses.

RPL/RPEL Requirements

*Direct entry onto Programme Stage 2*

It may be possible, if suitable candidates apply, to offer a place to students who have successfully completed the first year of a single or joint honours journalism degree at another institution, using the RPL/RPEL procedure. In this case a reference from the tutor at the original university, confirmation that the student has obtained 120 credits, (making one third of the total of 360 for the degree) and an interview may take place. The maximum RPL/RPEL available shall be 120 credits at HE Level 1. Students whose mother tongue is not English will be required to hold an IELTS pass of 7 or higher, unless they have proof of several years of study in an English environment.
### Appendix I: Population spreadsheet

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*For Institutions marked with a yellow background, the respective spreadsheet is available from the relevant university. Frontline Teaching Centre details are also included.*
Appendix J: Survey email and reminder

Community engaged journalism education survey - invitation to participate (remi...  

Dear colleagues and friends,

I am conducting a survey of journalism educators working in UK higher education institutions as part of a research project for my EdD. I am trying to understand ways in which journalism undergraduate programmes can be described as community engaged and the potential and obstacles to developing practice in this field.

The survey is currently live and will take between 10-20 minutes to complete.

Your anonymity is guaranteed and all identifying information associated with you will be removed. Further details can be found in the participant information sheet available via the survey welcome page.

Click here to start the survey

If you have any further questions, suggestions or comment please email me at j.brown3@yorksj.ac.uk

Jonathan Brown
Senior Lecturer Media Production: Journalism
York St John University
Community Engagement and Journalism Education: new collaborations that might (just) help change the world.

Jonathan Brown: j.brown3@yorksj.ac.uk
07557 780199

Abstract

The idea of a “third mission” for universities has been climbing the global higher education agenda for nearly 30 years and yet community engagement remains the poor relation of research and teaching in most UK institutions. However, in the post-Covid world and faced with a generation of students with radically different perspectives and priorities the need to build new relationships and collaborations with previously marginalised groups beyond the academy walls is more compelling than ever (Farnell, 2021). Defined as "the process whereby universities engage with community stakeholders to undertake joint activities that can be mutually beneficial even if each side benefits in a different way" (Benneworth et al., 2018) community engagement is a complex and context dependent activity.

The purpose of this paper therefore is to explore ways in which undergraduate journalism programmes at UK higher education institutions can be characterised as community engaged and argues that as educators in this field we are uniquely placed to embrace the opportunities the “community turn” affords both for our students and society. Drawing on Dewey’s notion of democratic education and established work on public, civic, community, alternative and participatory journalism practices (Harcup, 2013; Romano, 2010; Rosen,
1990 etc.), this paper will critically analyse examples of successful projects from around the world, whilst offering journalism educators the opportunity to contribute to the first mapping exercise of community engaged practice embedded within journalism programmes in the UK. Using an innovative multi-point framework devised by scholars on behalf of the European Commission and Erasmus+ this research enables journalism educators for the first time to capture and demonstrate the work being done - as well as its challenges - and to start to build networks of like-minded academics willing to share their experience of community engaged practice which confronts the challenges of today.

Biographical note.

Jonathan Brown is a senior lecturer and programme leader in Journalism and Media Production at York St John University. Before joining the academy, Jonathan spent 20 years as a reporter and news editor at The Independent and the Press Association. He is currently researching for a Doctorate in Education at the University of Sheffield.
## Appendix L: Codebook screenshots

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