1976

A needs assessment of community newspaper personnel and a learning packet proposal in response

Dale Elwood Boyd
Iowa State University

INFORMATION TO USERS

This material was produced from a microfilm copy of the original document. While the most advanced technological means to photograph and reproduce this document have been used, the quality is heavily dependent upon the quality of the original submitted.

The following explanation of techniques is provided to help you understand markings or patterns which may appear on this reproduction.

1. The sign or "target" for pages apparently lacking from the document photographed is "Missing Page(s)". If it was possible to obtain the missing page(s) or section, they are spliced into the film along with adjacent pages. This may have necessitated cutting thru an image and duplicating adjacent pages to insure you complete continuity.

2. When an image on the film is obliterated with a large round black mark, it is an indication that the photographer suspected that the copy may have moved during exposure and thus cause a blurred image. You will find a good image of the page in the adjacent frame.

3. When a map, drawing or chart, etc., was part of the material being photographed the photographer followed a definite method in "sectioning" the material. It is customary to begin photoing at the upper left hand corner of a large sheet and to continue photoing from left to right in equal sections with a small overlap. If necessary, sectioning is continued again — beginning below the first row and continuing on until complete.

4. The majority of users indicate that the textual content is of greatest value, however, a somewhat higher quality reproduction could be made from "photographs" if essential to the understanding of the dissertation. Silver prints of "photographs" may be ordered at additional charge by writing the Order Department, giving the catalog number, title, author and specific pages you wish reproduced.

5. PLEASE NOTE: Some pages may have indistinct print. Filmed as received.

University Microfilms International
300 North Zeeb Road
Ann Arbor, Michigan 48106 USA
St. John's Road, Tyler's Green
High Wycombe, Bucks, England HP10 8HR

A needs assessment of community newspaper personnel and a learning packet propcsal in response

by

Dale Elwood Boyd

A Dissertation Submitted to the
Graduate Faculty in Partial Fulfillment of
The Requirements for the Degree of
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department: Professional Studies
Major: Education (Higher Education)

Approved:

Signature was redacted for privacy.

In Charge of Major Work

Signature was redacted for privacy.

For the Major Department

Signature was redacted for privacy.

For the Graduate College

Iowa State University
Ames, Iowa
1976

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

I. INTRODUCTION

For a variety of reasons, weekly and semi-weekly newspaper numbers have been on a general decline in the United States since they peaked at about 17,000 in 1915 (49, p. 37).

Shifting population patterns and changes in political philosophies have marked the beginning of the end for some. For others, consolidations and mergers were dictated by manpower shortages, technological improvements, or alteration in community needs.

Even since World War II, sometimes considered to be a technological benchmark, weekly and semi-weekly newspapers as well as daily newspapers have declined in numbers. In approximately 30 years (1946 - 1975), weekly and semi-weekly newspaper numbers dropped from 10,810 to 9,330, a decrease of 14 per cent. During that same period, daily newspaper numbers declined 10 per cent--from 2,020 to 1,819 (36, 38).

In the past five years, however, only minor changes have taken place. Daily numbers dropped only 19 to 1,819 while weekly and semi-weekly newspaper numbers actually showed a small increase, from 9,326 to 9,330 (36, 38). One might conclude from these figures that the attrition rate for weekly, semi-weekly and daily newspapers is beginning to stabilize

and may, indeed, have ceased altogether for the non-daily group.

Figure 1 indicates the changing number of weekly and semi-weekly newspapers in the United States for approximate 30-year periods. The number rose from 12,416 to 16,167 between 1888 and 1918, then declined to 10,810 in 1946 and to 9,326 in 1970. A slight increase to 9,330 took place by 1975 (34, 35, 36, 37, 38).

Figure 2 indicates the changing number of daily newspapers in the United States for approximate 30-year periods. The number rose from 1,515 to 2,465 between 1888 and 1918, then dropped to 2,020 in 1946 and to 1,838 in 1970. By 1975, the number had declined to 1,819 (34, 35, 36, 37, 38).

Insert Figures 1 and 2 about here

Belief that the attrition of community newspaper numbers has bottomed out and that the trend may be reversing prompted Jeffery Van in Publishers Auxiliary to suggest that weekly and semi-weekly newspapers in the nation are enjoying a resurgence (60, p. 1). He wrote that a part of the reason for this reversal and the mild upturn in numbers is that

community newspapers are in the inviting position of being able to take fullest advantage of technological breakthroughs in photo composition and in centralized offset printing. Larger newspapers, such as metropolitan dailies, find it more difficult to generate production efficiencies and operational economies by such methods.

Centralized printing, for example, is not feasible for groups of metropolitan dailies, though it may be a boon to a group of community newspapers. Centralized printing is a term accepted in the newspaper trade as meaning a central plant in which a number of newspapers are printed. Frequently the plant is jointly owned by those newspapers printed there. In other cases, one newspaper or corporation owns the central plant and sells its production services to the others. Because of their geographical separation, large circulations, and more frequent publications, larger daily newspapers obviously could not share such facilities.

One national survey (60, p. 1) indicates that about ninety per cent of the weekly newspapers and only about two-thirds of the dailies queried were being printed by the offset method. Those daily newspapers printed by the more advanced offset method were, for the most part, the smaller dailies--in the under 25,000 circulation class. Larger daily newspapers, some of which are able to take advantage of computer-assisted photo composition savings, find it

impractical to consider offset printing because of their long press runs.

In the past three decades of declining newspaper numbers, the downward trend has not been common to all areas of the country. As might be expected, population growth states generally have shown increases in newspaper numbers while in states where populations have stabilized or grown only moderately, newspaper numbers have declined. California weekly and semi-weekly newspapers, for example, increased in number from 561 to 735 between 1946 and 1975 while numbers of daily newspapers in the Golden State rose from 124 to 137. Florida weekly and semi-weekly newspaper numbers grew from 142 to 182 while dailies increased in number from 38 to 57.

On the other hand, in the moderate growth or population stable states newspaper numbers have dropped. Typical in this classification is Minnesota with a weekly and semi-weekly newspaper number decline from 431 to 383 and a daily newspaper number drop from 33 to 29 in the three-decade era. Also somewhat typical is Wisconsin which showed a weekly, semi-weekly decline from 317 to 287 and a daily decline from 44 to 36. Iowa during that same period had a weekly, semi-weekly number drop from 429 to 390 while the number of its daily newspapers declined from 43 to 41. Nebraska's weekly and semi-weekly numbers shifted from 285 to 213 while it also lost five daily newspapers in the period, from 24 to 19.

But population is not the only determining factor in the measurement of the decline or rise of newspaper numbers. Two states with population losses between the 1940 and 1970 U.S. Census reports showed essentially the same trends in newspaper numbers as did two states with sharply growing populations during the period.

Weekly and semi-weekly newspaper numbers in North Dakota declined from 118 to 90 while daily newspapers dropped from 12 to 11. In Arkansas, a second negative population growth state, weekly and semi-weekly newspapers declined between World War II and 1975 from 149 to 124 while daily numbers actually rose from 33 to 34.

New Jersey, which had about a 75 per cent population increase between 1940 and 1970, showed a weekly, semi-weekly newspaper number loss from 286 to 268, but gained one daily newspaper in the 1946-75 period, 32 from 31. Maryland had about a 115 per cent population increase but lost six weekly and semi-weekly newspapers, from 88 to 82, while gaining one daily newspaper in the three decades, from 12 to 13.

A study of newspaper starts and suspensions by Wallace Eberhard may provide a clue to the apparent enigma of declining newspaper numbers in one classification while newspaper numbers rise in another, both within the same geographical area. At least in the daily newspaper field, opportunities appear to be more lucrative in the small

circulation, small community category, in those communities under 25,000 (11, p. 117-120).

Eberhard suggests that while a few larger circulation newspapers have ceased publication in recent years, a number of publishers are enjoying success by starting up smaller circulation daily newspapers. Thus, the numbers of newspapers are remaining fairly constant while the average reader numbers, or circulations, are declining.

This position is further reinforced by information in a May, 1976, Wall Street Journal article which outlines the failure of newspaper sales since 1950 to keep pace with U.S. population growth. Weekday sales of all English-language daily newspapers totaled slightly over 60 million copies in 1975, down nearly four per cent from a peak of about 62.5 million copies in 1973 (27).

Determining factors for survival of newspapers, then, are not related to population alone. It's clear that newspaper numbers sometimes decline in population growth areas and sometimes rise in declining or stable population areas. Ability to adapt in an atmosphere of inexorable change would seem to be a more likely determinant of newspaper survival than would area population trends.

A newspaper in a community which has just lost its major source of employment, a factory which could not meet environmental protection standards, for example, faces a survival

threat. Or a publication with sloppy bookkeeping or unrealistic cost accounting methods may find its days numbered.

A less obvious, more subtle threat to survival faces all community newspapers. That is the competition for attention and time in today's relatively affluent society. Writers John Hulteng and Roy Paul Nelson point to the development of radio and television and to the pronouncements of "prophet Marshall McLuhan" who predicted "electronic tribalism" would celebrate the death of print media as confirmations of such a threat (22, p. 40).

In the case of the newspaper serving the community with its closed factory, one path to survival could be opened by interpretive reporting which provided extensive information on community problems and issues and offered alternative proposals for solution. That newspaper would explain fully to community readers the economic consequences of the factory closing, possible remedial actions, and the community resources available for carrying out such actions. Obviously, the publication with the careless or inept bookkeeping can improve its position with replacement or training of the present accountants. Community newspapers concerned with meeting the competition for reader time need to do a better job of what they're in an ideal position to do. The kind of depth reporting that only the print media can provide is increasingly needed and wanted by a substantial number of

news consumers as the day's events become more complex and difficult to understand, Hulteng and Nelson affirm (22, pp. 40-41). Too, the newspaper holds a compelling advantage because it becomes a permanent report that can be consulted at the convenience of the reader and referred to again later if necessary.

The needs of today's community newspapers, then, are identified in this study as those adaptive responses which can be made to the changes posing survival threats to the weekly and semi-weekly press. A need for interpretive reporting skill is evident in the case of the closed factory newspaper. A need for improved bookkeeping and accounting practices is evident in the case of the publication with sloppy bookkeeping. Needs for sharper writing skills and more attractive photography and layout among others must be met if community newspapers are to compete successfully for readers' time.

Since a heavy percentage of community newspapers are members of their state press associations, the managing directors and executive secretaries of such agencies ought to be in a position to specify what the most critical needs are. Their responsibilities bring them into regular contact with the association membership and in a favorable position to view actions for change and the resulting consequences. These observations over time provide press association

managers with the background for judging the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of various newspaper practices.

Coupled with individual experiences in their own states are the shared experiences most press association managers have with other association managers and executive secretaries. Most state press association managers belong to the national organization, Newspaper Association Managers, Inc. Through the exchange of state bulletins, convention programs, management ideas, and trade information, state association managers can often view a parochial problem from a broader, more national perspective.

On the premise that continuing education is the key to coping with change, many state press associations individually sponsor conferences, seminars, or short courses for newspaper personnel in their states. Such informal continuing education programs cover a number of topics ranging from newswriting to new technology, from advertising sales to newspaper layout and design. In many cases, journalism schools or departments of journalism in nearby universities cooperate with the associations in sponsoring such programs. In some, the journalism schools or departments initiate the workshops or seminars on their own. In many states, mechanical conferences and photography workshops are sponsored by equipment suppliers either with or without co-sponsorship of the press associations.

For example, the Kentucky Press Association sponsored two state conventions, two regional meetings, two circulation meetings, and ten district meetings in a one-year period. Topics varied according to the needs and wishes of attending newspaper personnel. The Illinois Press Association co-sponsored a newswriting seminar with the University of Illinois at Urbana. In Iowa, Iowa State University's Extension Service through the University's Department of Journalism and Mass Communication sponsors a series of regional seminars for the state's weekly and semi-weekly newspaper personnel each year.

In some cases, press associations join hands in sponsoring conferences and workshops. Louisiana and Mississippi press associations held a joint photography clinic, six state newspaper associations held an advertising workshop at LaCrosse, Wisconsin, and the Iowa, Minnesota, and Wisconsin associations joined in sponsoring a web offset seminar.

Workshops and seminars are popular with other newspaper groups. For example, the Inland Daily Press Association, Chicago, Ill., annually sponsors a three-day advertising workshop. The 1976 meeting attracted representatives from 37 newspapers. The American Press Institute, Reston, Va., now in its 31st year, held its first seminars for weekly newspaper executives in 1975-76 and planned two more in 1977.

Among others with equally successful annual seminar programs are the Southern Newspaper Publishers Association, Atlanta, Ga., and the Western Newspaper Foundation, Los Angeles, Calif. Their continuing education program topics have ranged from advertising and circulation to suburban newspapers, governmental affairs, and newspaper management.

But whatever the newspaper-related program or its sponsorship, press association managers, as a general rule, are directly or indirectly associated with newspaper seminars, short courses, or conferences held in their states.

Through contacts with these association managers, through an examination of recent seminar, workshop or short course topics, and through meetings with leading state publishers, a list of practical topics can be developed. These topics, in turn, are appropriate themes for programs to help newspaper personnel improve their skills and/or their products.

Such programs might take the form of a panel discussion, a film presentation, an illustrated lecture, a demonstration, printed worksheets, programmed instruction, or individualized learning packets. The topics themselves, once selected, can be presented to the press association managing directors and executive secretaries for their consideration as likely short course or workshop topics best meeting the needs of newspaper personnel in their states.

Additionally, such short course, workshop, or seminar topics can be divided into two categories: reader-oriented and newspaper-oriented. Although one might argue that any topic conceivably could benefit both the reader and the newspaper, some topics are more directly attuned to the benefit of the reader and others more directly to the benefit of the institution, or the newspaper.

This reader-newspaper dichotomy or bifurcation is similar to the idiographic-nomothetic division of educational administrators suggested by Knezevich (29, pp. 102-103). Idiographic administrators, Knezevich writes, are more concerned with the needs of the individual within an organization while a nomothetic administrator stresses the requirements of the institution over those of the individual.

Such topics as newswriting or photography, for example, would more immediately and directly help the reader with livelier, clearer, and more understandable news stories and pictures. On the other hand, such topics as bookkeeping and advertising sales would more immediately benefit the newspaper organization itself.

The characteristics of the states in which press association managers are located might affect their choices of topics which, in their opinion, would best suit the needs of newspaper personnel in their states. Could one assume that association managers from densely populated states perceive

the needs of newspaper personnel in their states to be different from those residing in more sparsely populated states? Would newspaper personnel needs in states with high agricultural incomes be perceived to be different from those in states with high manufacturing incomes?

If significant differences in perceived needs of newspaper personnel between states should surface, then what state characteristics or demographics contribute to those differences? If significant differences do not appear, then are the needs of newspaper personnel in an industrialized seaboard state essentially no different from those in an agricultural inland state? Whatever the case, the findings from such examination should be meaningful to persons or groups interested in developing programs to upgrade the craft or the product of community journalism.

In no other study, to the writer's knowledge, have such questions been raised. Thus, this study was launched to determine what state press association managers perceive to be the most appropriate continuing education topics for meeting needs of newspaper personnel in their states, those topics most likely to help community newspapers successfully face the inflexible forces of change.

Secondly, and of equal interest to the writer, was the study's concern for discovering differences, if any, in the

responses from press association managers representing states with differing demographic characteristics.

The questions which seemed to the investigator to present the most challenging search for answers were those which ultimately were adopted as hypotheses for the study:

1) Press association managers representing states with comparatively more weekly and semi-weekly newspapers per person will select more newspaper- than reader-oriented short course and seminar topics as those best meeting the needs of newspaper personnel in their states.

2) Press association managers representing states with comparatively more daily newspapers per person will select more newspaper- than reader-oriented short course and seminar topics as those best meeting the needs of newspaper personnel in their states.

3) Press association managers representing states with comparatively more concentrated populations will select more newspaper- than reader-oriented short course and seminar topics as those best meeting the needs of newspaper personnel in their states.

4) Press association managers representing states with comparatively more farms per person will select more reader- than newspaper-oriented short course and seminar topics as those best meeting the needs of newspaper personnel in their states.

5) Press association managers representing states with comparatively more weekly and semi-weekly newspapers in relation to daily newspapers will select more reader- than newspaper-oriented short course and seminar topics as those best meeting the needs of newspaper personnel in their states.

6) Press association managers representing states with comparatively larger agricultural incomes in relation to manufacturing incomes will select more reader- than newspaper-oriented short course and seminar topics as those best meeting the needs of newspaper personnel in their states.

Finally, a set of learning packets or sound-on-slide packages should be developed as devices for helping upgrade the skills of practicing community newspaper personnel or for introducing such skills to personnel new to the job or considering the field as a vocation. Topics for the packets would be selected from (a) the results of this study, whose basis is a questionnaire administered to press association managers to learn their perceptions of topical needs for newspaper personnel in their areas, and (b) from the writer's personal experiences as a community newspaper editor/publisher.

Such capsulized learning packets or mini-courses would serve as nuclei for workshops, seminars, or short courses held for community newspaper personnel. Likely sponsors of

such conventional programs are the press associations and universities which have departments or schools of journalism.

The packets, however, also would be used by individuals as self-contained instructional units. An individual publisher or group of publishers, for example, could arrange for in-plant audio-visual sessions on advertising sales, or publishers with new personnel involved in page paste-up would find it advantageous to arrange in-house showings on newspaper layout and design.

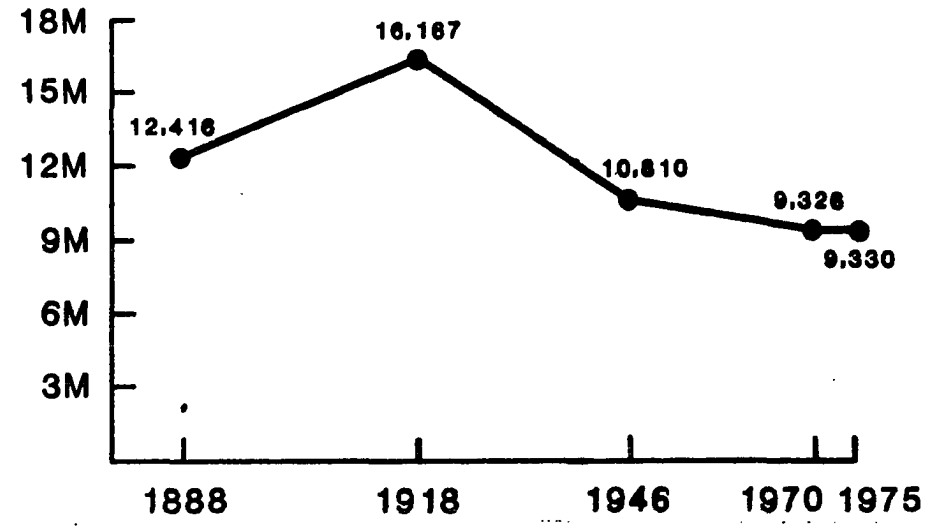

Figure 1. U.S. weekly and semi-weekly newspaper numbers at intervals from 1888 to 1975

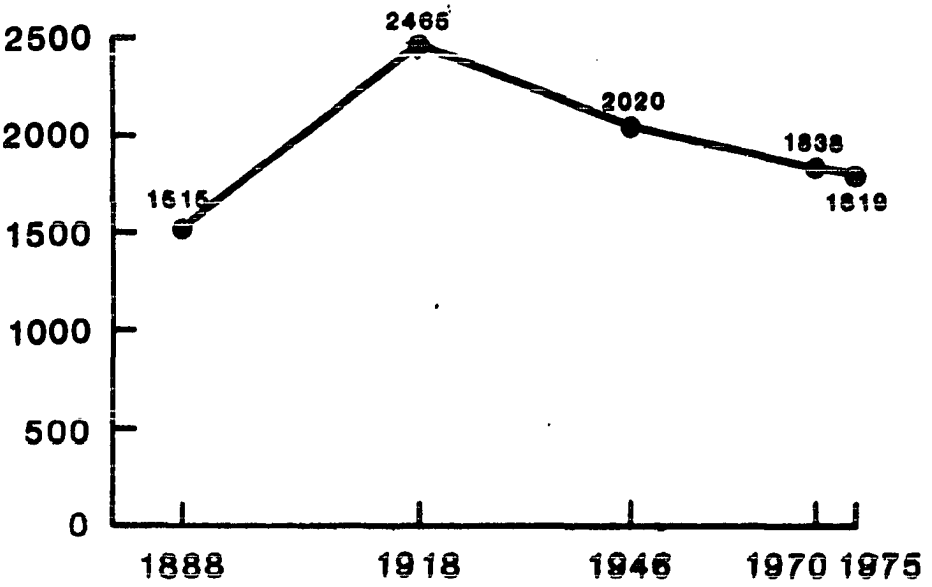

Figure 2. U.S. daily newspaper numbers at intervals from 1888 to 1975

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

By necessity, much of the literature reviewed dealt with a secondary purpose of the study--the development of the sound-on-slide learning packets or mini-courses for presentation to community newspaper personnel. Because of the uniqueness of the study, only research and publications tangentially related to the topic could provide worthwhile informational support.

Source of the demographic data used in development of the treatment groups or independent variables was Ayer, oldest and one of the most prestigious newspaper directories (38). Although some of Ayer's figures fail to mesh with those of other sources, they were used in the interest of consistency and with the belief that figures from other sources would indicate essentially the same trends and relationships if used to make equivalent comparisons. As an example of such discrepancy in data from other sources, the American Newspaper Publishers Association (ANPA) reports only 1,756 daily newspapers in 1975 (15) compared to the 1,819 reported by the Ayer's directory.

Development of the questionnaire objectives and the construction of the questionnaire itself were aided by references to the works of Borg and Gall (3) and of Stanley and Hopkins (51).

Statistical measurement guides were derived from Snedecor and Cochran (50). For the statistical analysis of the data, Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) (33) and Omnitab (6) were used.

But, while the bulk of the effort in the study went to drawing and administering the questionnaire, tabulating results and statistically analyzing and interpreting those results, most of the literature examined dealt with learning approaches, particularly as they related to the concept of unit packages, mini-courses, or packages dealing with learning at levels beyond formal educational planes.

Postlethwait (42) is considered by some to be the father of audio-tutorial approaches to independent study. He writes that such study is effective only to the extent that the learner does the learning himself. The student, or learner, should be as actively involved as possible in the learning activities. Read (43) reinforces the position of Postlethwait by suggesting that participation by the learner assists learning and that it is better for the instructor or instruction packet to <u>show</u> how to do things than to <u>tell</u> how to do them.

Such participatory learning experiences are sometimes referred to as experential learning. The noted psychologist and educator Carl R. Rogers (44) referred to such learning as that in which the element of meaning has been built into ex-

perience. He argued that this type of learning took place most effectively when the individual was placed in a position face-to-face with a problem personally meaningful to him or her and a situation in which he or she was individually involved enough to want to find a solution.

Others have also suggested that persons in real contact with problems which they deem to be personally relevant will want "to learn, to grow, to discover, to create, to become self-disciplined" (32). In addition to being experential, learning to be effective must also be "self-initiated," some educators suggest. Self-initiated learning is that in which the student or learner participates responsibly in the learning process. This type is the most lasting and pervasive (32, pp. 119-120).

Many studies on the effectiveness of career education, adult education, or continuing education programs have appeared in the literature. Although such programs often are developed with differing name tags--adult education, vocational education, or continuing education--they usually follow a general pattern of usage and purpose. Worthington (61) discusses the fundamental concept of career or vocational education.

He suggests that "all (such) educational experiences, curriculum, instruction and counseling should be geared to preparing each individual for a life of economic

independence, personal fulfillment and an appreciation for the dignity of work." His home-community based model was designed to enhance the employability and career options of out-of-school adults and was expandable to include job training through such traditional media as magazines and newspapers.

Worthington's model was much like the model of a mathematics television program for teachers studied by Ohliger (39). In Ohliger's study, it was found, as might be expected, the more programs a teacher viewed the better he or she scored in an evaluation test on mathematical concepts. But, if the teacher viewed the television program in a supervised discussion group, he or she made still a better score on the evaluation test, statistically significant at the .01 level.

A somewhat similar study was conducted in a six-state mountain region in the Western United States where a continuing education program was launched to keep physicians, nurses, medical technologists, medical records technicians, and dietitians abreast of new developments in medical science. Denne and others (9) studied the educational open-circuit television programs used in the mountain region and suggested that audio recordings and/or audio tape-slide programs could serve the same purpose at both a lower cost and a higher level of satisfaction for the participants.

"To do the same old thing in bigger and better ways does not, in and of itself, bring about any change in behavior," the authors of the study said.

Use of radio and television for continuing education programs was also examined by Everly (14) who found that per participant costs for radio programs were nearly double those of television. Both, however, were high--$13.15 for television and $25.86 for radio. He found the need for interaction among participants varied according to the individually identified goals of the participants. The more specific the goal and the more highly motivated the learner, he found, the less need for interaction with other learners.

A federal study of adult vocational education programs (53) suggested why adults enroll in continuing education courses. A study of adult students in Cleveland, Philadelphia, and San Francisco indicated that 60 per cent of those taking courses were employed. Thirty-five per cent were searching for jobs, 28 per cent were interested in upgrading their skills, 18 per cent were personally interested in the course in which they were enrolled, and the remainder of those enrolled were taking courses for other reasons.

The balance of interest is evident from a look at course enrollments by curricula in the three-city study. In Philadelphia, 15 persons were enrolled in photography, 13

persons were enrolled in offset camera studies, 166 in radio and television, 33 in linotype operation, and 24 in offset press operations. In San Francisco, six adults were enrolled in a graphics arts course, 105 in a composition-typewriting course, 77 in cffset press operation and production, 27 in camera preparation, and 11 in offset printing paste-up.

If we are to place any confidence in sociologists who indicate the average person of today will be retrained in three jobs during his lifetime or in other writers who decry the fragmented society of the United States because of its nomadic bent, then continuing education programs assume an ever important role. Packard (40) says that the nation's mobility is generated not only by job transfers and moves but by "a generalized yen to be on the move." Some of the movement from job to job and from place to place is in search of physical pleasure or self-improvement. But, some of it, he asserts, is also the result of "a quick inclination to escape frustration."

An Iowa study of newsroom competencies and staffing (46) indicates a need for training or retraining of personnel in daily newsrooms because of their high employee turnover rate. The authors found that 20 per cent of the newsroom personnel of Iowa's 40 daily newspapers had been on the staff less than one year and 50 per cent less than three years. Only three

of five staffers had previous newspaper experience before taking their jobs.

The study found that about two-thirds of Iowa daily newsroom employees had college degrees, but about one-third of those with degrees had majored in fields other than journalism.

Can a case be made for developing learning packets consisting of filmstrips or slides as minicourses to upgrade the skills of newspaper personnel? Jamison, Suppes and Wells (23) surveyed the literature on the effectiveness of traditional instruction, instructional radio, instructional television, programmed instruction, and computer-oriented instruction. They found that students learn effectively from all media and that relatively few studies indicated any significant difference in one over another or of one variant of a medium over another. In support of filmstrips or slides as learning devices, one writer suggested, "And, best of all, our students can be helped to enjoy learning without suspecting how much they are learning" (8).

Where would professionals prefer to obtain continuing education materials? The Intermountain Regional Medical Program study (9) showed physicians preferred to receive their information first through journals and other publications and secondly, through postgraduate continuing education courses. Conventions were ranked third by the doctors, local hospital

programs fourth, audio digests fifth, and state and county medical society meetings sixth and seventh, respectively. Television programs were relegated to the last position by the physicians.

At least three Iowa State University studies found somewhat conflicting results from "packaged" learning experiences. Felton (16) found that cognitive learning from exposure to conventional instruction was significantly higher after a six months' period than from learning packages. His data also suggested that learning packages were less efficient than professor-oriented instruction, but were also less costly.

On the other hand, Tien (56) compared teletutorial instructional methods with conventional lecture methods and found no significant difference in terms of providing learning experiences. Likewise, there was no difference in student preference, her study indicated.

A study by Eide (12) concluded that there was no significant difference between audio-visual instructed student learning results and those from conventional instructional methods in engineering graphics. Students, however, appeared to prefer the more innovative method, Eide reported.

Audio-visual program instruction, however, does enjoy widespread acceptance on a number of campuses and in many subject areas in higher education. Heckinger (21) writes

that audio-visual programs are used in chemistry studies at Clemson and Auburn universities, in psychology at Cincinnati, in geology at Ohio State and Michigan universities, in geography at Wisconsin, in sociology at Columbia College, Missouri, and in western civilization at Southwestern Michigan. American Airlines also uses such programs for training its flight crews in Dallas, Texas, he said.

Some of the characteristics of such a learning system or program are outlined by Stuart and Rita Jchnson (24, p. 68). The program system can integrate several different forms of material, it is self-contained, it may be stored and used repeatedly, it is individualized in that a student may pick and choose or modify the sequence or content, and the information can be made meaningful to the student by associating the packet with his interests and needs and by interaction individually or in groups.

Talbert (55) emphasizes a basic concept which underlies the use of the learning packages with the admonition that students learn better if told what it is they are to be able to do as a result of the learning experience. He also suggests that they learn better experentially and retain what they learn if they are asked to demonstrate that they are able to perform a learned task.

A learning package is, thus, different from a set of programmed activities which may or may not require involve-

ment by the student or interaction with the instructor and/or his peers. Such interaction, Jones (25) suggests, permits the student to test notions, concepts, and attitudes which have been defined internally. He says each learning activity package should bring the student toward an understanding of a single concept when he has met a set of specific objectives.

Determining the objectives with respect to the needs of the learners to be involved is the first step in the process of developing a learning program, Hartley (20) writes. Other steps are preparing materials to help the learner to achieve the objectives; analysis of the subject matter, the task and the behaviors required; determination of strategies for presenting the material; and evaluation of the results. Mager, of course, considered by many to be the father of preparing instructional objectives, would not minimize the importance of the other steps in the process. But, he would assuredly reiterate the concern for making an instructional objective describe an intended outcome, rather than an emphasis on content of the learning material (30).

Unfortunately, Mager says, educational units are rarely prepared in response to these questions:

1. What is it that we must teach?
2. How will we know when we have taught it?

3. What materials and procedures will work best to teach what we wish to teach?

But they should be!

In a related vein, Markle's principles for linear programming suggest, first, that in order for learning to occur, the student must respond or do something active; and, secondly, if a student must respond to learn, then it may also be that the student will learn the response that he makes (31). Finally, Markle follows with a third principle of learning, which needs to be built into any successful learning packet, she says. She calls it "knowledge of results." Students, after responding, must be able to compare the answer given with the answer provided by the programmer. Without such knowledge of results, the student is kept from the "reward" of a correct response or the alteration in his or her thinking if the response is incorrect.

In summary, then, the literature appears to indicate the following points which most directly affect this study:

1) A need exists for continuing education programs.

2) Participants in such programs are motivated by a desire either to develop skills for a new vocation or to upgrade skills for present job improvement.

3) The model, format, or methological approach employed

in the learning situation does not significantly affect the results.

4) What is important is that learners must be actively involved in the learning task.

5) Such experential or participatory learning is even more effective when the task or situation is individually meaningful to the learner.

6) Interaction between the student and the instructor or between the learner and his peers enhances learning.

7) Specifying the intended outcome of the learning experience, preparing and analyzing the materials for learning, determining the presentation strategy, and evaluating the results are necessary steps in the development of packets or mini-courses for learning.

Because this study is based on the presumption that continuing education programs of one kind or another can help newspapers cope with or adapt to change, an examination of the newspaper profitability-performance question is in order. Does a profitable newspaper serve its community better? Is a newspaper which serves its community well a more profitable newspaper as the result of such service?

Much like the chicken and the egg question, the profitability-performance question has supporters in both camps. Kennedy writes the obvious in his book on community journalism that "no newspaper can continue to publish the

news, pictures and advertising of a small community unless that paper also shows a profit" (26, p. 194). The secret, he says, is to strike the difficult balance of making a business profitable and a newspaper excellent without having the two interfere with each other.

Theodore Peterson warns that "some publishers do show a deeper concern over what paper costs than what they print on it..." but that most publishers have a greater sense of public responsibility than most of their critics give them credit for having (41, p. 8). Ben Bagdikian points out that new technology has resulted in mechanical efficiencies and increased profits for many newspapers and that these are important factors, but not the only ones. "The real power in new technology," Bagdikian writes, "does not lie in particular gadgets, but in the conceptions men have of their uses. The quality of life must be a part of this conception" (2, p. 413).

Newspaper income, especially in the weekly field, is showing increases. According to Ted Serrill, executive vice-president of the National Newspaper Association, total weekly revenues increased four per cent in 1975 to $1.8 billion. In 1974, gross income of the weeklies had increased eight per cent over the previous year. The 1973 increase was 14 per cent (47, p. 1). Grotta suggests, however, that newspaper advertising and circulation income as a share of the total

national effort has shown a decline since 1950. "If the newspaper is to survive in the decades ahead," Grotta reports, "it must do so on the basis of offering the consumer a product which fulfills the needs of the consumer" (19, pp. 498-502).

Advertising, as a general rule, provides about two-thirds of the gross income for most newspapers and advertisers, obviously, do not buy space to support the publications. They buy space to do a selling job. That the media are kept alive or made more financially secure by such purchases is only incidental. But, it is logical to assume advertising that sells must be placed in newspapers which have consumer acceptance and such acceptance only comes to publications close to the needs and feelings of the communities they serve. Thus, it can be argued, profitability and performance are related.

On the other hand, Emery, Ault, and Agee would argue that a correlation between the two does not always exist. Newspapers do not necessarily increase in excellence as they grow or increase in profits. "Some of the finest, best edited and most influential papers in the country," they write, "have relatively small circulations" (13, pp. 161-162). Hulteng and Nelson (22, p. 162) would also argue that there is no relationship between profitability and performance. They cite the case of Life magazine, which like

Look and Saturday Evening Post, closed its doors in the past decade. Life writers had exposed the Mafia in a series of hard-hitting, well-researched articles, Hulteng and Nelson report. The magazine's staff had also uncovered the questionable association of a supreme court justice with a large foundation and brought to the public's attention the misuse of political contributions by an industrial state's governor. Despite these signal reportorial efforts, Life failed economically.

These naticnally circulated magazines were different from community newspapers in many respects. Yet there are significant common problems and concerns for survival from which to make comparisons.

Although there may be no clear or explicit resolution of the question of relationship between press performance and press profitability, it's safe to say that there can be no long-lasting performance without profitability. On that basis, it's likely to be safer to join the Bagdikian and Grotta camp which supports the thesis that newspaper personnel must show concern for the needs as well as the quality of life of their consumers, if their publications are to survive.

III. METHODOLOGY

Managers and executive secretaries of the majority of the nation's press associations provided a major part of the data used in this study. A questionnaire with a cover letter and a stamped, addressed return envelope was mailed to 48 press association managers and executive secretaries in September, 1974. (See Appendix.) The questionnaire sought information on any continuing education programs held for weekly and semi-weekly newspapers in their areas and, in their judgment, which program topics or subjects best met the needs of their state's newspaper personnel. Additional questions dealt with attendance at such programs and comments the association managers wished to make on bringing useful information and ideas to the nation's weekly and semi-weekly press. The mailing went to a list of members of Newspaper Association Managers, Inc., as of June 30 of that year.

Follow-up letters to 16 associations were mailed in October, 1974. A third letter was sent to five press associations in November, 1974. These letters were supplemented with telephone calls and by March, 1975, responses were recorded from all associations.

Data from only 40 of the original 48 press associations were used in the study. One press association was no longer active in the national organization. The secretary of anoth-

er returned the questionnaire with the comment, "I have read through your questionnaire and am sorry to report that 'stagnation' best describes the scene here in _____." Also missing from the original 48 mailings is an association whose manager said he had assumed his post too recently to be able to make meaningful judgments on the responses sought in the questionnaire.

Data from the New England press association were dropped from the study because the association has membership from six northeastern states, but does not represent all weekly and semi-weekly newspapers in the six. No method for extrapolating such data as population, area, number of farms, agricultural income, or manufacturing value-added income could be determined. Thus, the data from the New England association as well as that from associations representing states which had members in the New England association were not used.

For the purposes of the study, the 434 weekly and semi-weekly newspapers in those states are not significant numbers in relation to the nation's 9,330 total, nor to the 8,896 represented by the 40 associations ultimately represented in the study. Nearly 95 per cent of the nation's community newspapers are published in the areas represented by this study.

All but one of the 40 associations represented are geographically bounded by state lines. The one exception is the Maryland-Delaware-District of Columbia Press Association which was treated as a single "state" in compiling the demographic data used in drawing up the treatments or independent variables for the study.

These demographic data include population, area in square miles, number of weekly and semi-weekly newspapers, number of daily newspapers, number of farms, agricultural income, and manufacturing value-added income (38).

The six treatment groups were dichotomized on the basis of what appeared to the investigator to be the most logical lines of demarcation. For example, the treatment PPW (state population per weekly and semi-weekly newspaper) was broken after the 17th press association area, Oregon, which has 18,673 persons for each weekly and semi-weekly newspaper.

Insert Table 1 about here

Texas, the first press association area in Group II, has 20,320 persons for each weekly and semi-weekly newspaper. The difference between this association area and Oregon is, thus, about 1,640 persons. This compares with a difference

of 90 between the Oregon area and the No. 16 area, Utah, and a difference of 594 between the Texas area and the next larger area, Mississippi. Additionally, the 20,000 persons per newspaper figure appears to be a logical breaking point in the range of press association areas. The lowest number of persons per newspaper in Group I is South Dakota's 4,563. The highest in Group II is Maryland-Delaware-District of Columbia's 51,245.

Insert Table 2 about here

The treatment PPD (population per daily newspaper) was split, likewise, at a logical point--100,000 persons per newspaper. Group I, which includes 19 press associations, ranges from Wyoming's 36,935 persons per daily newspaper to Mississippi's 96,387. Group II, which consists of 21 press associations, ranges from Pennsylvania's 107,217 to Maryland-Delaware-District of Columbia's 290,390.

The difference in persons per daily newspaper between Mississippi and Pennsylvania is about 11,000. This gap between Group I and II compares to differences of about 500 between Mississippi and North Carolina, the No. 18 press

association area, and of about 2,600 between Pennsylvania and Ohio, the No. 22 press association area.

Insert Table 3 about here

Population density was a third treatment of the variables. Groups I and II in this treatment were divided between the twenty-second press association, Missouri, with a density of 67.57 persons per square mile, and the twenty-third, Georgia, with 77.95 persons per square mile. This gap of about 10 persons per square mile was large enough and close enough to the median to suggest a suitable break between the groups.

The break could have been made between Washington with 51.05 and Alabama with 67.43 persons per square mile. Such a split would have left even groups of 20 press associations areas each. It seemed more prudent, however, to keep Alabama and Mississippi allied to the less densely populated and more rurally-oriented regions.

Insert Table 4 about here

The treatment population or number of persons per farm was split into groups of 19 and 21 press association areas respectively. A logical division point seemed to be 50 persons per farm which left Indiana at 48.54 the last press association in Group I and Texas with 53.57 the first press association area in Group II.

The press association area with the fewest persons per farm is North Dakota, 14.71, indicating both a low population and a large number of farms. At the other end of the scale rests New Jersey, 884.97, indicating both a large population and a low number of farms.

Insert Table 5 about here

The treatment WSWD (number of weekly and semi-weekly newspapers per daily newspaper) examined the ratio between the two. The largest gap between press association areas for at least 10 areas on either side of the median is that between Mississippi's 4.60 and Kansas' 4.98. By splitting the groups at this point, 19 associations are in Group I and 21 in Group II.

The treatment range begins with New Mexico's 1.9 and ends with Minnesota's 13.21 weekly and semi-weekly newspapers

per daily. If one were to round off the ratios to the nearest .1, the split in the two groups would appear at five weekly and semi-weekly newspapers for each daily newspaper published in the press association areas.

Insert Table 6 about here

The widest discrepancy in terms of number of press associations in Groups I and II appears in the treatment FM (farm income per $1 of manufacturing value-added income). A logical division appeared to be at a point at which manufacturing value-added income doubled that of farm income. This left 25 press associations in Group I. The last of the state areas in that group is Texas with 36 cents farm income for each $1 of manufacturing value-added income. The first of the state areas in Group II is Arizona with 51.5 cents farm income for each $1 of manufacturing value-added income.

Analysis of press association areas on such a basis places New Jersey in what could be called the most industrialized position with less than two cents of farm income per $1 manufacturing value-added income. On the other hand, North Dakota ranks as the most agriculture-oriented

state in the treatment with $8.37 of farm income for each $1 of manufacturing value-added income.

Once the six treatments were ranked and dichotomized, F tests at the .05 level of significance were run on the variances to determine whether the pooled or the separate t-test should be used. Where the probability was .05 or greater, the pooled variance was used. Likewise, where it was less than .05, the separate variance estimate was used.

The t-tests determined significant differences, if any, between the mean responses of the two groups of state press association managers to the 16 seminar or short course topics used as dependent variables. Tested, of course, were the null hypotheses which said that there were no significant differences in the responses by the two groups.

Selection of the 16 seminar or short course topics for ranking by the press association managers was based on informal visits with weekly and semi-weekly newspaper publishers in Iowa, the researcher's personal experience in the community newspaper field, and a northwest Iowa community newspaper study he conducted in 1969-70 (4).

Selected as reader-oriented topics (those more directly and immediately affecting the reader or consumer of the product) were: newswriting, interpretive reporting, news photography, news interviewing, editorial writing, layout and design, headline writing, and copy editing.

Topics selected as newspaper or institution-oriented (those more directly and immediately affecting the newspaper or the producer of the product) were: circulation, press law, postal regulations, accounting and bookkeeping, display advertising, classified advertising, newspaper ethics, and new technology.

These topics constitute the dependent variables for the study.

Table 1. Population per weekly/semi-weekly newspaper

	States	Number
Group 1	South Dakota	4,563
	North Dakota	6,864
	Nebraska	6,966
	Iowa	7,244
	Kansas	8,855
	Montana	9,920
	Minnesota	9,935
	Wyoming	11,463
	Idaho	11,689
	Oklahoma	12,364
	Colorado	15,015
	Illinois	15,039
	Wisconsin	15,393
	Missouri	15,437
	Arkansas	15,510
	Utah	18,584
	Oregon	18,673
Group II	Texas	20,321
	Mississippi	20,914
	Washington	21,175
	Georgia	21,447
	Indiana	21,822
	Kentucky	22,995
	New York	23,748
	Michigan	25,142
	New Mexico	26,737
	New Jersey	26,747
	California	27,147
	Nevada	27,152
	Arizona	31,096
	Tennessee	31,144
	Alabama	33,117
	Louisiana	33,424
	South Carolina	34,540
	Ohio	34,811
	Virginia	36,035
	Pennsylvania	36,741
	Florida	37,305
	North Carolina	37,645
	M-D-DC[1]	51,245

[1]Maryland, Delaware, District of Columbia.

Table 2. Population per daily newspaper

	States	Number
Group I	Wyoming	36,935
	Kansas	44,099
	Oklahoma	48,288
	New Mexico	50,800
	Idaho	50,929
	South Dakota	51,251
	North Dakota	56,160
	Arkansas	56,568
	Montana	57,867
	Nevada	61,092
	Indiana	65,743
	Iowa	68,903
	Colorado	76,112
	Nebraska	78,094
	Missouri	83,525
	Texas	93,306
	Oregon	95,063
	North Carolina	95,888
	Mississippi	96,387
Group II	Pennsylvania	107,217
	Ohio	109,815
	Illinois	116,989
	Florida	119,113
	Kentucky	119,234
	Wisconsin	122,720
	Virginia	125,635
	Tennessee	126,586
	Georgia	127,488
	Minnesota	131,209
	South Carolina	136,343
	Arizona	136,345
	Alabama	143,507
	California	145,643
	Louisiana	145,727
	Washington	148,225
	Michigan	158,484
	New York	206,713
	Utah	211,855
	New Jersey	224,005
	M-D-DC[1]	290,390

[1]Maryland, Delaware, District of Columbia.

Table 3. Population density

	States	Persons per square mile
Group I	Wyoming	3.41
	Nevada	4.45
	Montana	4.76
	New Mexico	8.36
	Idaho	8.61
	South Dakota	8.65
	North Dakota	8.82
	Utah	12.86
	Arizona	15.61
	Nebraska	19.35
	Colorado	21.24
	Oregon	21.71
	Kansas	27.39
	Arkansas	36.51
	Oklahoma	37.41
	Texas	42.50
	Mississippi	46.92
	Minnesota	47.56
	Iowa	50.41
	Washington	51.05
	Alabama	67.43
	Missouri	67.57
Group II	Georgia	77.95
	Louisiana	80.67
	Kentucky	80.76
	Wisconsin	80.76
	South Carolina	83.42
	Tennessee	93.89
	North Carolina	103.57
	Virginia	116.52
	Florida	123.76
	California	127.44
	Indiana	143.11
	Michigan	155.64
	Illinois	197.06
	Ohio	259.72
	Pennsylvania	261.83
	New York	379.42
	M-D-DC[1]	438.73
	New Jersey	955.12

[1]Maryland, Delaware, District of Columbia.

Table 4. Population per farm

	States	Persons per farm
Group I	North Dakota	14.71
	South Dakota	15.14
	Iowa	20.32
	Nebraska	21.20
	Kentucky	25.55
	Idaho	25.83
	Mississippi	26.08
	Kansas	26.77
	Montana	27.67
	Arkansas	27.87
	Oklahoma	29.42
	Tennessee	31.39
	Minnesota	32.25
	Missouri	33.65
	North Carolina	37.10
	Wyoming	40.54
	Wisconsin	41.68
	Alabama	44.16
	Indiana	48.54
Group II	Texas	53.57
	South Carolina	53.97
	Georgia	61.19
	Virginia	62.82
	Oregon	63.38
	Colorado	74.82
	Louisiana	75.90
	Utah	84.07
	Washington	84.18
	New Mexico	86.10
	Illinois	87.51
	Ohio	91.04
	Michigan	110.94
	Pennsylvania	166.11
	Florida	193.98
	M-D-DC[1]	241.99
	Nevada	244.37
	Arizona	295.41
	California	316.72
	New York	324.83
	New Jersey	884.96

[1]Maryland, Delaware, District of Columbia.

Table 5. Number of weekly/semi-weekly newspapers per daily newspaper

	States	Number
Group I	New Mexico	1.90
	Nevada	2.25
	North Carolina	2.55
	Pennsylvania	2.92
	Indiana	3.01
	Ohio	3.15
	Florida	3.19
	Wyoming	3.22
	Virginia	3.49
	Arkansas	3.65
	Oklahoma	3.91
	South Carolina	3.95
	Tennessee	4.06
	Alabama	4.33
	Idaho	4.36
	Louisiana	4.36
	Arizona	4.38
	Texas	4.59
	Mississippi	4.60
Group II	Kansas	4.98
	Colorado	5.07
	Oregon	5.09
	Kentucky	5.19
	California	5.36
	Missouri	5.41
	M-D-DC[1]	5.67
	Montana	5.83
	Georgia	5.94
	Michigan	6.30
	Washington	7.00
	Illinois	7.78
	Wisconsin	7.97
	North Dakota	8.18
	New Jersey	8.38
	New York	8.70
	Iowa	9.51
	Nebraska	11.21
	South Dakota	11.23
	Utah	11.40
	Minnesota	13.21

[1]Maryland, Delaware, District of Columbia.

Table 6. Farm income per $1 manufacturing value-added income

	States	Value
Group I	New Jersey	.018
	New York	.043
	Pennsylvania	.057
	Michigan	.061
	Ohio	.082
	M-D-DC[1]	.127
	Tennessee	.143
	Virginia	.144
	South Carolina	.152
	Illinois	.197
	Indiana	.201
	North Carolina	.207
	California	.219
	Kentucky	.233
	Wisconsin	.243
	Alabama	.254
	Oregon	.255
	Georgia	.262
	Louisiana	.266
	Washington	.308
	Missouri	.320
	Utah	.327
	Florida	.341
	Arkansas	.356
	Texas	.360
Group II	Arizona	.515
	Mississippi	.551
	Nevada	.631
	Minnesota	.660
	Colorado	.895
	Oklahoma	.913
	Iowa	1.427
	Kansas	1.462
	Idaho	1.535
	Nebraska	2.147
	Montana	2.329
	Wyoming	2.802
	New Mexico	2.858
	South Dakota	7.467
	North Dakota	8.373

[1]Maryland, Delaware, District of Columbia.

IV. FINDINGS

The first tabulation of the results of the study shows the responses by the state press association managers to the question of seminar or short course topics which might best fit the needs of newspaper personnel in their areas. In Table 7 can be seen these ranked selections, their identifications as reader-oriented or newspaper-oriented and the percentages of the press association managers who selected them.

Insert Table 7 about here

The most frequently selected topic, for example, was display advertising, named by 33 of the 40 or 82.5 per cent of the managers. The topic interpretive reporting, on the other hand, ranked last and was selected by only six, or 15 per cent of the managers.

Tables 8 through 23 are examined in the order in which the topics appeared on the questionnaire, not in the order in which they were selected by the press association managers. The treatments appear in the left-hand column and are fully identified at the bottom of Table 8. The dichotomized groups

of press association managers appear in the second column as the number of cases. Next is the mean, that is, the number who selected the topic divided by the total number queried. Column four indicates the standard deviation of the group scores. The standard error in column five indicates the amount that the group mean might be expected to fluctuate if the study were repeated with other random samples. Appropriate F tests were made to determine whether separate or pooled t-tests should be applied. Column six shows the numerical outcome of these tests; column seven, the 2-tailed statistical probability. Alpha of .05 or less was considered statistically significant.

Insert Table 8 about here

There was no significant difference between the group means on any of the treatments for the variable newswriting. Twenty-nine of the 40 press association managers selected the topic as one likely to fit the needs of the weekly and semi-weekly newspaper personnel in their areas. The largest discrepancy in responses was apparent in the PPF treatment in which 82 per cent of the responses from Group I and 65 per cent of the responses from Group II associations selected the

variable. The narrowest mean difference was one per cent between Groups I and II in the FM treatment. The topic itself was the third most popular named by association directors and executive secretaries.

Insert Table 9 about here

Group means were highly significant in two treatments for the variable interpretive reporting. When rounded, significance was at the .01 level for the PPD and PPF treatments. In both treatments, 28 per cent of the Group II managers and executive secretaries selected the variable as one likely fitting the needs of newspaper personnel in their areas while none of the representatives of associations in Group I named the topic. The WSWD treatment had the narrowest gap between means of the two groups--11 per cent (rounded) for Group I and 19 per cent for Group II. Interpretive reporting, however, was the least popular of the suggested seminar topics. Only six of the 40 association representatives selected it.

Insert Table 10 about here

No significant difference in the means of treatments for the variable news photography was obtained from the analysis of the data. The variable, as a topic, was the fifth most popular of those named by association representatives. Twenty-four managers and executive secretaries selected news photography as a topic useful to newspaper personnel in their areas. In the FM treatment, 60 per cent of the representatives in both groups named the topic. The greatest difference in means came in the PPW treatment where 64 per cent in Group I and 57 per cent (rounded) in Group II selected news photography as a likely short course or seminar topic for newspapers of their areas.

Insert Table 11 about here

Group means for the variable news interviewing failed to show any significant difference in the six treatments. Three of the six--PPD, PPF, and WSWD--showed precisely the same percentages of selection by association managers and execu-

tive secretaries. Eleven per cent of those in Group I and 24 per cent of those in Group II selected news interviewing as a likely seminar or short course topic in the three treatments. Both groups were essentially the same--17.6 per cent in Group I and 17.4 per cent in Group II--for the PPW treatment analysis. As a whole, however, the variable attracted only limited interest. The topic was named by only seven of the 40 association representatives and ranked 15th in the list of 16.

Insert Table 12 about here

No significant difference in the means of treatments for the variable editorial writing was obtained from the analysis of the data. The variable, as a possible topic for short courses and seminars, was selected by 16 of the 40 respondents and ranked 10th as the most popular topic. Selections by the two groups in the FM treatment were equal. Forty per cent of the representatives of press associations in both groups named editorial writing as a topic likely to serve the needs of newspaper personnel in their respective areas. Largest mean difference in the two groups was registered by press association managers in the WSWD treat-

ment. There, 26 per cent of the Group I representatives and 52 per cent of the Group II representatives picked the topic.

Insert Table 13 about here

Group means for the variable layout and design failed to show any significant difference for the six treatments. The topic, however, was a popular one among respondents, 32 of whom named it as likely to be needed by newspaper personnel in their areas. It ranked second in popularity, behind only display advertising. In two of the six treatments--PPD and WSWD--the same number of association managers and executive secretaries in the treatment groups selected layout and design. Seventy-nine per cent of the Group I respondents and 81 per cent of the Group II respondents named the topic. The widest discrepancy in the group means took place in the PPF treatment where 68 per cent of the Group I respondents against 90 per cent of the Group II respondents picked layout and design as a likely seminar or short course topic.

Insert Table 14 about here

The variable headline writing attracted the most congruous selections of any in the study. Not only was there no significant difference in group means for any of the treatments, but the percentages of the respondent groups selecting the topic as suitable for their areas ranged only from 21 per cent for Group I in both the PPD and PPF treatments to 29 per cent for Group II in the two treatments.

Only 10 of the 40 press association managers and executive secretaries named headline writing as a likely topic for newspaper short courses and seminars. It was the 14th of 16 selections in terms of popularity.

Insert Table 15 about here

The only significant difference in group means for treatments of the copy editing variable was noted in the PPD treatment where the difference in means between Group I and Group II was significant at the .05 level. In the other five treatments, there was no significant difference in the group

means. The greatest discrepancy, of course, took place in the PPD treatment--only 11 per cent (rounded) of the Group I respondents selected the topic opposed to 43 per cent (rounded) of the Group II respondents. The PPW treatment showed the closest congruity. Twenty-nine per cent of Group I and 26 per cent of Group II respondents named copy editing as a likely topic for newspaper personnel in their areas. The topic, however, ranked only 13th in selection. Only 11 of the 40 respondents named it.

Insert Table 16 about here

No significant difference in the group means of treatments for the circulation variable was obtained from analysis of the data. Although the topic was reasonably popular among the respondents--one-half of the 40 executive managers and executive secretaries named circulation as a topic likely to serve the needs of newspaper personnel in their state areas--no significant difference was evident between selections of the two groups. The topic was the 8th most popular among the 16 suggested items used as variables in the study. The narrowest gap in mean differences was in the FM treatment where 52 per cent of the Group I respondents

against 47 per cent of the Group II respondents selected the topic. Widest mean differences were shared by the PPD and PPF treatments--42 per cent of the Group I and 57 per cent of the Group II managers and executive secretaries named circulation as a likely seminar or short course topic for newspaper personnel in their areas.

Insert Table 17 about here

Group means of treatments for the press law variable failed to show any significant difference in the analysis of the data. The topic was 7th most popular among the 40 respondents. Twenty-one of them named press law as a suitable seminar or short course topic. In two treatments--PPD and PPF--the means varied 20 per cent with 42 per cent of the Group I and 62 per cent of the Group II respondents selecting the topic. The means with the least difference were in the WSWD treatment where 58 per cent of Group I and 48 per cent of Group II managers and executive secretaries selected the topic as suitable for seminars and short courses in their areas.

Insert Table 18 about here

The postal regulations variable provided highly significant differences for two of the six treatments. Most striking difference was in the PD treatment where 64 per cent of the respondents in Group I and 17 per cent of those in Group II selected the topic. For this treatment, the difference in group means was significant at the .002 level. For the PPW treatment, means of the two groups differed from 65 per cent for Group I respondents to 26 per cent for the managers and executive secretaries of Group II areas. For this treatment, group means were significantly different at the .01 level, when rounded. Smallest difference in group means took place in the WSWD treatment where 47 per cent of the Group I respondents and 38 per cent of the Group II respondents selected postal regulations as a needed seminar or short course topic for newspaper personnel in their areas. The variable was the 9th most popular of the 16 topics and was named by 17 of the 40 association representatives.

Insert Table 19 about here

The analysis of treatments for the accounting, bookkeeping variable failed to yield any significant difference in group means in any of the six treatments. The largest difference in means was obtained in the PD treatment where 50 per cent of Group I and 22 per cent of Group II association representatives selected the topic. Smallest difference was in the PPD treatment where 42 per cent of Group I and 33 per cent of Group II respondents named the topic. Accounting and bookkeeping ranked 11th among the 16 suggested as likely topics for newspaper seminars and short courses. Fifteen of the 40 association directors and executive secretaries selected it.

Insert Table 20 about here

All but seven of the 40 association representatives named display advertising as a subject or topic best meeting the needs of newspaper personnel in their areas. It was the top choice of the group. The WSWD treatment was the only one

of the six in which group means were significantly different. In WSWD, 95 per cent of Group I and 71 per cent of Group II respondents selected display advertising. The smallest mean difference was obtained in an examination of the PPW treatment data. There the difference was less than .3 of one per cent between Grcup I and II respondents.

Insert Table 21 about here

Contrary to the display advertising variable in which one treatment yielded significant differences in group means, no treatment for the classified advertising variable yielded significant differences. Twenty-three of the 40 respondents to the questionnaire, however, selected the topic as a viable subject for newspaper seminars and short courses, the sixth largest number for any of the 16 topics. Widest range in group means appeared in the PPF and WSWD treatments where 63 per cent of Group I and 52 per cent of Group II respondents selected classified advertising as a subject best fitting the needs of newspaper personnel in their areas. Narrowest range in means was yielded in the PD treatment where 59 per cent of Group I and 56 per cent (rounded) of Group II respondents named the topic.

Insert Table 22 about here

No significant difference in group means was obtained in the six treatments for the newspaper ethics variable. The topic attracted selections from only 14 of the 40 respondents and ranked 12th most popular in the 16 questionnaire topics. Largest gap in group means was for the WSWD treatment where 47 per cent of Group I and 24 per cent (rounded) of Group II association managers and executive secretaries named newspaper ethics as a suitable topic for newspaper short courses and seminars in their areas. Smallest difference was for the PPW treatment with only .5 of one per cent separating the Group I and II selections.

Insert Table 23 about here

While new technology was the 4th most popular seminar or short course topic choice by the association managers and executive secretaries (26 of them selected this topic), there was still no significant difference in group means for the six treatments of the variable. Widest discrepancy in means

was obtained in an analysis of data for the PPF treatment where 42 per cent of Group I and 28 per cent (rounded) of Group II respondents selected new technology as a suitable topic for short courses or seminars to be held for newspaper personnel in their areas. Narrowest gap was produced in the PPW treatment where .5 of one per cent separated the means of the two groups.

By way of summation, significant differences in group means were shown in only six of the 96 cells of the data. These differences are illustrated for four of the 16 dependent variables--interpretive reporting, copy editing, postal regulations, and display advertising--in tables 9, 15, 18 and 20. For the other 12 dependent variables no significant difference in group means surfaced.

Other data gathered from questionnaire responses indicated that virtually all of the 40 press associations sponsored or co-sponsored some type of continuing education program for weekly and semi-weekly newspaper personnel in their states. Many association directors worked closely with universities and colleges in their areas but, in at least one state, the university was the sole sponsor of such programs. Representation at such programs, according to press association managers, ran from less than 10 per cent to between 50 and 75 per cent of the newspapers in their states. The modal response was 25 to 50 per cent.

Those press association managers who elected to list topical needs for newspaper personnel in their states in addition to those 16 included on the questionnaire mentioned freedom of information, newspaper management, spelling, public affairs, newsprint supply, bar association-press relations, local government reporting, women in journalism, sports reporting, medical news reporting, and gerontology. Only two of the topics--public affairs and newspaper management--were mentioned by more than one association manager.

Most popular topic at the various state programs now being sponsored was display advertising. Other workshop and seminar topics mentioned by the managers were classified advertising, newswriting, circulation, government affairs, management, OSHA (Occupational Safety and Health Agency) regulations, photography, editorial writing, new technology, press law, acccunting, layout and design, police news, public affairs, marketing, investigative reporting, local government, legislature coverage, women and newspapers, editorial page development, state news sources, newspaper accountability, typography, and copy editing.

Among the programs press association managers said they'd like to see implemented was one to establish a series of weekly day-long sessions to indoctrinate new personnel in the various skills of the craft. Another suggestion was that

states establish regional workshops which would require only minimum driving distances for participants.

Some of the most successful continuing education programs association managers had participated in were reported. One of these was a retail advertising seminar held in cooperation with the state's council of retail merchants. Another was a critique session for participant newspapers and "how and why" descriptions of the operations of prize winning newspapers. Role-playing was used in workshops for inexperienced reporters and advertising salesmen by one state association. Another sponsored a session in which each participant presented his or her best advertising idea of the year.

One state reported a survey of its editors and publishers on the association's most effective efforts that year. Ranked first was workshop sponsorship, second was publication of monthly bulletins for members, then scheduling of winter meetings, circulation of mimeographed reports of court decisions, and sponsorship of scholarships and contests, in that order. Five workshops, sponsored by one association, were rank-ordered by attendance. They were advertising, writing and editing, reporting, legal problems, and offset.

Table 7. Seminar or short course topic selection by press association managers

	Topic	Percentage
1.	Display advertising[2]	82.5%
2.	Layout and design[1]	80.0
3.	Newswriting[1]	72.5
4.	New technology[2]	65.0
5.	News photography[1]	60.0
6.	Classified advertising[2]	57.5
7.	Press law[2]	52.5
8.	Circulation[2]	50.0
9.	Postal regulations[2]	42.5
10.	Editorial writing[1]	40.0
11.	Accounting, bookkeeping[2]	37.5
12.	Newspaper ethics[2]	35.0
13.	Copy editing[1]	27.5
14.	Headline writing[1]	25.0
15.	News interviewing[1]	17.5
16.	Interpretive reporting[1]	15.0

[1]Reader-oriented topics
[2]Newspaper-oriented topics

Table 8. t-tests on newswriting variable

Treatment[1]	No. of Cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	t-Value	2-tail Probability
PPW	Group I 17	0.8235	0.393	0.095	1.19	0.241
	Group II 23	0.6522	0.487	0.102		
PPD	Group I 19	0.7368	0.452	0.104	0.16	0.877
	Group II 21	0.7143	0.463	0.101		
PD	Group I 22	0.6818	0.477	0.102	-0.66	0.511
	Group II 18	0.7778	0.428	0.101		
PPF	Group I 19	0.7368	0.452	0.104	0.16	0.877
	Group II 21	0.7143	0.463	0.101		
WSWD	Group I 19	0.6842	0.478	0.110	-0.54	0.594
	Group II 21	0.7619	0.436	0.095		
FM	Group I 25	0.7200	0.458	0.092	-0.09	0.929
	Group II 15	0.7333	0.458	0.118		

[1]Where PPW represents population per weekly, semi-weekly newspaper; PPD, population per daily newspaper; PD, population density or persons per square mile; PPF, population or number of persons per farm; WSWD, number of weekly semi-weekly newspapers per daily newspaper; FM, farm income per $1 manufacturing added-value income.

Table 9. t-tests on interpretive reporting variable

Treatment	No. of Cases		Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	t-Value	2-tail Probability
PPW	Group I	17	0.0588	0.243	0.059	-1.50	0.143
	Group II	23	0.2174	0.422	0.088		
PPD	Group I	19	0.0	0.0	0.0	-2.69	0.011**
	Group II	21	0.2857	0.463	0.101		
PD	Group I	22	0.0455	0.213	0.045	-1.97	0.061
	Group II	18	0.2778	0.461	0.109		
PPF	Group I	19	0.0	0.0	0.0	-2.69	0.011**
	Group II	21	0.2857	0.463	0.101		
WSWD	Group I	19	0.1053	0.315	0.072	-0.74	0.464
	Group II	21	0.1905	0.402	0.088		
FM	Group I	25	0.2000	0.408	0.082	1.13	0.264
	Group II	15	0.0667	0.258	0.067		

**Significant at the .01 level

Table 10. t-tests on news photography variable

Treatment	No. of Cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	t-Value	2-tail Probability
PPW	Group I 17	0.6471	0.493	0.119	0.51	0.612
	Group II 23	0.5652	0.507	0.106		
PPD	Group I 19	0.5789	0.507	0.116	-0.25	0.802
	Group II 21	0.6190	0.498	0.109		
PD	Group I 22	0.5909	0.503	0.107	-0.13	0.900
	Group II 18	0.6111	0.502	0.118		
PPF	Group I 19	0.5789	0.507	0.116	-0.25	0.802
	Group II 21	0.6190	0.498	0.109		
WSWD	Group I 19	0.5789	0.507	0.116	-0.25	0.802
	Group II 21	0.6190	0.498	0.109		
FM	Group I 25	0.6000	0.500	0.100	0.0	1.000
	Group II 15	0.6000	0.507	0.131		

Table 11. t-tests on news interviewing variable

Treatment	No. of Cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	t-Value	2-tail Probability
PPW	Group I 17	0.1765	0.393	0.095	0.02	0.984
	Group II 23	0.1739	0.388	0.081		
PPD	Group I 19	0.1053	0.315	0.072	-1.09	0.281
	Group II 21	0.2381	0.436	0.095		
PD	Group I 22	0.1364	0.351	0.075	-0.70	0.490
	Group II 18	0.2222	0.428	0.101		
PPF	Group I 19	0.1053	0.315	0.072	-1.09	0.281
	Group II 21	0.2381	0.436	0.095		
WSWD	Group I 19	0.1053	0.315	0.072	-1.09	0.281
	Group II 21	0.2381	0.436	0.095		
FM	Group I 25	0.2000	0.408	0.082	0.53	0.602
	Group II 15	0.1333	0.352	0.091		

Table 12. t-tests on editorial writing variable

Treatment	No. of Cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	t-Value	2-tail Probability
PPW	Group I 17	0.4706	0.514	0.125	0.77	0.446
	Group II 23	0.3478	0.487	0.102		
PPD	Group I 19	0.3158	0.478	0.110	-1.02	0.313
	Group II 21	0.4762	0.512	0.112		
PD	Group I 22	0.3636	0.492	0.105	-0.51	0.615
	Group II 18	0.4444	0.511	0.121		
PPF	Group I 19	0.3158	0.478	0.110	-1.02	0.313
	Group II 21	0.4762	0.512	0.112		
WSWD	Group I 19	0.2632	0.452	0.104	-1.70	0.098
	Group II 21	0.5238	0.512	0.112		
FM	Group I 25	0.4000	0.500	0.100	0.0	1.000
	Group II 15	0.4000	0.507	0.131		

Table 13. t-tests on layout and design variable

Treatment	No. of Cases		Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	t-Value	2-tail Probability
PPW	Group I	17	0.8824	0.332	0.081	1.11	0.275
	Group II	23	0.7391	0.449	0.094		
PPD	Group I	19	0.7895	0.419	0.096	-0.15	0.878
	Group II	21	0.8095	0.402	0.088		
PD	Group I	22	0.8636	0.351	0.075	1.10	0.278
	Group II	18	0.7222	0.461	0.109		
PPF	Group I	19	0.6842	0.478	0.110	-1.73	0.094
	Group II	21	0.9048	0.301	0.066		
WSHD	Group I	19	0.7895	0.419	0.096	-0.15	0.878
	Group II	21	0.8095	0.402	0.088		
FM	Group I	25	0.7200	0.458	0.092	-1.88	0.067
	Group II	15	0.9333	0.258	0.067		

Table 14. t-tests on headline writing variable

Treatment	No. of Cases		Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	t-Value	2-tail Probability
PPW	Group I	17	0.2941	0.470	0.114	0.54	0.591
	Group II	23	0.2174	0.422	0.088		
PPD	Group I	19	0.2105	0.419	0.096	-0.54	0.595
	Group II	21	0.2857	0.463	0.101		
PD	Group I	22	0.2273	0.429	0.091	-0.36	0.722
	Group II	18	0.2778	0.461	0.109		
PPF	Group I	19	0.2105	0.419	0.096	-0.54	0.595
	Group II	21	0.2857	0.463	0.101		
WSWD	Group I	19	0.2632	0.452	0.104	0.18	0.859
	Group II	21	0.2381	0.436	0.095		
FM	Group I	25	0.2400	0.436	0.087	-0.18	0.855
	Group II	15	0.2667	0.458	0.118		

Table 15. t-tests on copy editing variable

Treatment	No. of Cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	t-Value	2-tail Probability
PPW	Group I 17	0.2941	0.470	0.114	0.23	0.822
	Group II 23	0.2609	0.449	0.094		
PPD	Group I 19	0.1053	0.315	0.072	-2.45	0.020*
	Group II 21	0.4286	0.507	0.111		
PD	Group I 22	0.1818	0.395	0.084	-1.46	0.152
	Group II 18	0.3889	0.502	0.118		
PPF	Group I 19	0.1579	0.375	0.086	-1.59	0.121
	Group II 21	0.3810	0.498	0.109		
WSWD	Group I 19	0.2105	0.419	0.096	-0.85	0.398
	Group II 21	0.3333	0.483	0.105		
FM	Group I 25	0.3200	0.476	0.095	0.81	0.424
	Group II 15	0.2000	0.414	0.107		

*Significant at the .05 level

Table 16. t-tests on circulation variable

Treatment	No. of Cases		Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	t-Value	2-tail Probability
PPW	Group I	17	0.5294	0.514	0.125	0.31	0.757
	Group II	23	0.4783	0.511	0.106		
PPD	Group I	19	0.4211	0.507	0.116	-0.94	0.355
	Group II	21	0.5714	0.507	0.111		
PD	Group I	22	0.4545	0.510	0.109	-0.62	0.537
	Group II	18	0.5556	0.511	0.121		
PPF	Group I	19	0.4211	0.507	0.116	-0.94	0.355
	Group II	21	0.5714	0.507	0.111		
WSWD	Group I	19	0.5263	0.513	0.118	0.31	0.759
	Group II	21	0.4762	0.512	0.112		
FM	Group I	25	0.5200	0.510	0.102	0.32	0.752
	Group II	15	0.4667	0.516	0.133		

Table 17. t-tests on press law variable

Treatment	No. of Cases		Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	t-Value	2-tail Probability
PPW	Group I	17	0.4118	0.507	0.123	-1.23	0.228
	Group II	23	0.6087	0.499	0.104		
PPD	Group I	19	0.4211	0.507	0.116	-1.25	0.221
	Group II	21	0.6190	0.498	0.109		
PD	Group I	22	0.4545	0.510	0.109	-0.97	0.337
	Group II	18	0.6111	0.502	0.118		
PPF	Group I	19	0.4211	0.507	0.116	-1.25	0.221
	Group II	21	0.6190	0.498	0.109		
WSWD	Group I	19	0.5789	0.507	0.116	0.64	0.528
	Group II	21	0.4762	0.512	0.112		
FM	Group I	25	0.4800	0.510	0.102	-0.72	0.475
	Group II	15	0.6000	0.507	0.131		

Table 18. t-tests on postal regulations variable

Treatment	No. of Cases		Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	t-Value	2-tail Probability
PPW	Group I	17	0.6471	0.493	0.119	2.58	0.014**
	Group II	23	0.2609	0.449	0.094		
PPD	Group I	19	0.5263	0.513	0.118	1.23	0.228
	Group II	21	0.3333	0.483	0.105		
PD	Group I	22	0.6364	0.492	0.105	3.31	0.002**
	Group II	18	0.1667	0.383	0.090		
PPF	Group I	19	0.5263	0.513	0.118	1.23	0.228
	Group II	21	0.3333	0.483	0.105		
WSWD	Group I	19	0.4737	0.513	0.118	0.58	0.565
	Group II	21	0.3810	0.498	0.109		
FM	Group I	25	0.3200	0.476	0.095	-1.76	0.087
	Group II	15	0.6000	0.507	0.131		

**Significant at the .01 level

Table 19. t-tests on accounting, bookkeeping variable

Treatment	No. of Cases		Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	t-Value	2-tail Probability
PPW	Group I	17	0.5294	0.514	0.125	1.76	0.087
	Group II	23	0.2609	0.449	0.094		
PPD	Group I	19	0.4211	0.507	0.116	0.56	0.579
	Group II	21	0.3333	0.483	0.105		
PD	Group I	22	0.5000	0.512	0.109	1.84	0.074
	Group II	18	0.2222	0.428	0.101		
PPF	Group I	19	0.4737	0.513	0.118	1.22	0.231
	Group II	21	0.2857	0.463	0.101		
WSWD	Group I	19	0.2632	0.452	0.104	-1.39	0.173
	Group II	21	0.4762	0.512	0.112		
FM	Group I	25	0.3200	0.476	0.095	-0.91	0.366
	Group II	15	0.4667	0.516	0.133		

Table 20. t-tests on display advertising variable

Treatment	No. of Cases		Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	t-Value	2-tail Probability
PPW	Group I	17	0.8235	0.393	0.095	-0.02	0.984
	Group II	23	0.8261	0.388	0.081		
PPD	Group I	19	0.8421	0.375	0.086	0.26	0.793
	Group II	21	0.8095	0.402	0.088		
PD	Group I	22	0.8636	0.351	0.075	0.70	0.490
	Group II	18	0.7778	0.428	0.101		
PPF	Group I	19	0.8947	0.315	0.072	1.09	0.281
	Group II	21	0.7619	0.436	0.095		
WSWD	Group I	19	0.9474	0.229	0.053	2.05	0.050*
	Group II	21	0.7143	0.463	0.101		
FM	Group I	25	0.8400	0.374	0.075	0.31	0.755
	Group II	15	0.8000	0.414	0.107		

*Significant at the .05 level

Table 21. t-tests on classified advertising variable

Treatment	No. of Cases		Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	t-Value	2-tail Probability
PPW	Group I	17	0.5294	0.514	0.125	-0.49	0.627
	Group II	23	0.6087	0.499	0.104		
PPD	Group I	19	0.5263	0.513	0.118	-0.58	0.565
	Group II	21	0.6190	0.498	0.109		
PD	Group I	22	0.5909	0.503	0.107	0.22	0.827
	Group II	18	0.5556	0.511	0.121		
PPF	Group I	19	0.6316	0.496	0.114	0.68	0.504
	Group II	21	0.5238	0.512	0.112		
WSWD	Group I	19	0.6316	0.496	0.114	0.68	0.504
	Group II	21	0.5238	0.512	0.112		
FM	Group I	25	0.6000	0.500	0.100	0.40	0.689
	Group II	15	0.5333	0.516	0.133		

Table 22. t-tests on newspaper ethics variable

Treatment	No. of Cases		Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	t-Value	2-tail Probability
PPW	Group I	17	0.3529	0.493	0.119	0.03	0.974
	Group II	23	0.3478	0.487	0.102		
PPD	Group I	19	0.3158	0.478	0.110	-0.42	0.676
	Group II	21	0.3810	0.498	0.109		
PD	Group I	22	0.3182	0.477	0.102	-0.46	0.651
	Group II	18	0.3889	0.502	0.118		
PPF	Group I	19	0.4211	0.507	0.116	0.88	0.383
	Group II	21	0.2857	0.463	0.101		
WSWD	Group I	19	0.4737	0.513	0.118	1.57	0.125
	Group II	21	0.2381	0.436	0.095		
FH	Group I	25	0.2800	0.458	0.092	-1.19	0.242
	Group II	15	0.4667	0.516	0.133		

Table 23. t-tests on new technology variable

Treatment	No. of Cases		Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	t-Value	2-tail Probability
PPW	Group I	17	0.6471	0.493	0.119	-0.03	0.974
	Group II	23	0.6522	0.487	0.102		
PPD	Group I	19	0.5789	0.507	0.116	-0.88	0.383
	Group II	21	0.7143	0.463	0.101		
PD	Group I	22	0.6364	0.492	0.105	-0.19	0.846
	Group II	18	0.6667	0.485	0.114		
PPF	Group I	19	0.6842	0.478	0.110	0.42	0.676
	Group II	21	0.6190	0.498	0.109		
WSWD	Group I	19	0.6316	0.496	0.114	-0.23	0.822
	Group II	21	0.6667	0.483	0.105		
FM	Group I	25	0.6800	0.476	0.095	0.50	0.618
	Group II	15	0.6000	0.507	0.131		

V. AUDIO-VISUAL LEARNING PACKETS

Because so much of the corollary effort of this study was directed to the development of sound-on-slide learning packets, it seemed appropriate to the writer and to members of his committee to include a representation of them in the body of the manuscript, rather than as addenda to it.

The first of the five produced here is Display Advertising Sales, reflecting the display advertising topic selected by more press association managing directors and executive secretaries than any other as best meeting the needs of weekly and and semi-weekly newspaper personnel in their states.

A. Display Advertising Sales[1]

(Slide #1)

Before many weeks on the job, advertising sales representatives have heard all the likely objections to buying space in their newspapers. Fortunately, there aren't really any new objections. They're just variations of old ones, used again and again with only minor differences. But, objections or excuses for not advertising can be turned to the space salesperson's advantage.

(Slide #2)

Some sales representatives make the mistake of engaging in debate with customers or prospects. No one ever won an argument with a customer. He or she is still always right. The best policy, of course, is to avoid any serious confrontation and, by a few well-chosen words, turn the question or complaint to the advantage of your product--in this case, newspaper advertising.

---

[1]Excuses and responses in this article were adapted from "Warren McClure's 20/20 View for Overcoming Advertisers' Objections to Using Newspapers," a talk given at the Inland Daily Press Association Annual Meeting in Chicago, Illinois, October 16, 1973. (McClure was vice-president of marketing for the Gannett Newspapers).

(Slide #3)

Here are some of the common excuses for not advertising and the responses some of the most successful salespersons use in redirecting the prospect on a positive path.

(Slide #4)

Excuse: You have a monopoly. You're the only newspaper in town and I don't like that.

Response: Yes, we are the only newspaper adequately serving the territory, but that means you get saturation coverage with one medium. Were there more than one, the market would be split and it would be necessary for you to advertise in more than one at greater expense.

(Slide #5)

Excuse: You have so many ads in your paper now. I doubt if it pays off for all those guys.

Response: Business people in the community aren't advertising to subsidize the newspaper. They advertise because they've found it pays, just as it will pay for you, too.

(Slide #6)

Excuse: It costs too much to advertise in your newspaper. I can't afford it.

Response: If you can increase profits, costs really make no difference unless, of course, you don't desire the added business advertising can bring you. Considering the number of families reached by the newspaper, our rates are reasonable.

(Slide #7)

Excuse: No one would read the size ad I could afford to run. Those small ads get lost in your newspaper.

Response: We can test that pretty easily. Let's run a small ad offering a free lunch Saturday afternoon at your place of business and see how many takers there are.

(Slide #8)

Excuse: I've advertised in your newspaper before and I couldn't tell any difference.

Response: Let's take a good look at your advertising and let me tailor it to do the best possible job for you. Advertising can increase your business and we have the advertising that can do it.

(Slide #9)

Excuse: How do I know I can count on you for ideas and help when I should have them?

Response: I'm your advertising person. The more advertising helps you, the more it helps me. What's more, here are names of accounts who will verify my track record.

Slide #10)

Excuse: I'm too busy to worry about advertising or getting together ideas for ads. And no one else here can do it.

Response: That's what I'm here for. I can help you and our copy and layout service specializes in accounts such as yours. Let me show you a campaign plan.

(Slide #11)

Excuse: I have all the business I can handle now. I can't get enough good help for more. Why advertise?

Response: Why not try a help-wanted ad telling why this is a good place to work, or why not concentrate more on higher profit sales items with advertising?

(Slide #12)

Excuse: I don't need any more money. I have all I need and

plan to retire in a year or so. More business just means more taxes.

Response: Advertising will probably increase business and profits, true. But, why not reward your loyal workers or turn over increased profits to your favorite charities?

(Slide #13)

Excuse: I'm practically a one-person operation. Advertising is for the big operators, not me.

Response: Let me show you how advertising can help make your operation grow. Remember, even giants in business started small.

(Slide #14)

Excuse: I can't really compete with the big advertisers and their full-page ads. I can't afford that kind of money.

Response: We have lots of small-space advertisers who find it pays. Let me make a plan for you that will fit your budget, yet do the job for you.

(Slide #15)

Excuse: I don't know what I should spend in newspaper advertising, so I guess I'll wait.

Response: It's wise to be cautious, but you need to get started now increasing your business with advertising. Let me put together a plan for you based on the approximate business volume you want to show.

(Slide #16)

Excuse: I'll have to talk this over with my wife (my husband, my partner, my regional supervisor). Come back later and we'll see.

Response: May I meet with both of you, perhaps Tuesday afternoon about 1 o'clock or, how about Wednesday morning at 10:30?

(Slide #17)

Excuse: I don't have any ideas what to advertise. Let's forget about it this time.

Response: Here are some good ideas stores like yours are using in Metro City and here's what the Retailer's Handbook says should work for your business now. How about letting me work up an ad using some of these items?

(Slide #18)

Excuse: I'll begin advertising one of these first times. How about coming back this spring after tax-paying time?

Response: How about reaping the harvest of good advertisingright now? Let advertising increase your business now to help pay those taxes.

(Slide #19)

Excuse: The regional office makes all the decisions on advertising. I can't get funds for newspaper ads.

Response: I know you believe in good newspaper advertising. Why not help me arrange a meeting with your regional office to set up such a program for your store?

(Slide #20)

Excuse: I could probably get some co-op advertising, but it's too much of a hassle.

Response: Give me your co-op material and let me handle it for you. I'll be glad to set up a workable schedule for you and handle the bookwork.

(Slide #21)

Excuse: Your rates are higher than the shopper's. I can advertise there for less.

Response: Readers pay to receive advertising in their newspapers. They welcome them into their homes while some other types of advertising are objected to. What's more,

when you consider rates per reader, newspaper advertising is much cheaper.

(Slide #22)

Excuse: I'm on both a TV and radio advertising schedule now. How could I possibly afford newspaper advertising?

Response: Radic and TV advertising frequently can do a good job of supplementing newspaper advertising, but shouldn't replace it. The newspaper provides complete coverage. Through other media, often you're paying a whole-pie price for only a single slice coverage.

(Slide #23)

Excuse: I've been in business for a long time. Everybody knows me and my store. I don't need to advertise.

Response: Don't forget that you have to replace those customers who move each year. About one-fifth of them do and you need to let their replacements know about your goods and services.

(Slide #24)

Excuse: A small business like mine draws from only a small area. A lot of your circulation is wasted for me.

Response: Our newspaper covers the areas you're interested

in like nothing does. The rest is a bonus for you--a chance to attract new customers.

(Slide #25)

Excuse: I don't like your editorial policy or your publisher.

Response: I understand, but you're really not buying an editorial policy. You're interested in the kind of advertising that will reach more customers and bring you added business. This we can do.

(Slide #26)

Excuse: My daughter got picked up for speeding and you ran her name in the newspaper. Lots of customers called it to my attention.

Response: Most everyone's name appears in the newspaper sometime for something or other. But, you know that the newspaper is carefully read and that's why your advertising works in the newspaper.

(Slide #27)

These are among the most commonly heard excuses for not advertising. There are others, too. But, this has given you an idea how to handle them. A few simple rules: (1) Don't

argue. You can't win an argument with a customer. He or she is still always right.

(Slide #28)

(2) Be positive. You'll feel better about the sales contact and so will the prospect. A positive approach helps immediate sales, as well as future sales.

(Slide #29)

(3) Don't run down a competitor. Emphasize your own product's advantages. Few prospects have time or care to listen to what's wrong with other services. Spend their time telling them what's right with yours.

(Slide #30)

(4) Never antagonize a prospect. Usually you'll close the door for all time. It's better to lose the battle for a chance to win the war.

(Slide #31)

(5) Be friendly. Smile. Friendliness and enthusiasm are often contagious. Friendly prospects become happy customers.

B. Classified Advertising

Although classified advertising as a topical need to improve performance of weekly and semi-weekly newspaper personnel was ranked only sixth by press association managers, it relates so closely to the top ranking subject, display advertising, the author felt it should be included in the learning packets presented in this chapter.

While display advertising was selected by 33 of 40 managers as best meeting the needs of newspaper personnel in their states, 23 of them, 57.5 per cent, selected classified advertising as a need topic.

(Slide #1)
The classified advertising department of any successful newspaper demands attention and promotion. For, there is no such thing as a static market. Inattention to a market or to a department's performance can result in lost business. And, just as business begets business and growth, recession begets recession.

(Slide #2)
Publishers and advertising managers with healthy classified pages have long recognized that strong, imaginative and continuing programs keep the nickels and dimes growing into

dollars. They've awakened this sleeping financial giant and capitalized on its unique appeal to individuals and firms which normally do not buy display space. Many suggest that classified is the one revenue-producing area of a newspaper where growth is almost limitless (45, p. 235).

(Slide #3)

Classified ads are small, true! But they do add up. Consider that a $2 classified ad run each week amounts to more than $100 a year. Ten such ads come to $1,000 and 100 such ads, $10,000. And while classifieds produce direct revenue, they also build circulation for the newspaper. In dailies, three out of four readers read classifieds with some frequency. In weeklies, the ratio is even higher and no other page, including the front page, enjoys higher readership (45, p. 236).

(Slide #4)

Why do classifieds enjoy such success? It's really a matter of the buyer-seller relationship and who seeks out the other. In display advertising, the seller searches out the buyer and has to stop him quickly or not at all. In classified, the buyer is looking for the seller and will take time to read his ad. It follows, of course, that newspapers should

make it as easy as possible for the buyer to find the seller's ad.

(Slide #5)

An orderly arrangement of classified ads under suitable headings of the articles or services helps both the compositor or layout person and the reader. Each heading can be given a number in sequence indicating the order in which headings are to appear (45, p. 254). Too, such an arrangement permits the person placing the ad to indicate the classification in which his ad should appear.

(Slide #6)

Healthy classified advertising sections are invaluable assets for newspapers. They help sell the newspaper to readers and keep it sold (48, p. 74). A good annual performance yardstick is nine classified ads per family or household. If your town has 800 family units, for example, you should be running about 7,200 classifieds each year--or about 140 weekly. If your paper's performance is significantly below this figure, take a look at what may be wrong.

(Slide #7)

Even with no formal classified advertising department, volume can be built if the entire staff--salesmen, office personnel,

back shop, reporters, and stringers--think and sell classifieds (45 p. 242). For, each new ad builds reader interest, makes every other ad or news story in the paper more widely read. And, remember that growth begets growth, success breeds success.

(Slide #8)

Of the three basic types of classified ads--transients, contracts, and display classifieds--the transient group provides the best opportunity for increasing linage. Transient classifieds are those placed by persons, most of whom may never again use the classified columns. Some of them, however, develop into regular advertisers. Because transient advertising usually represents the greatest proportion of ads on the page, it also is the key to results.

(Slide #9)

Some newspapers make a practice of telephoning transient advertisers before their ads expire to check results and to solicit renewals. They keep a record of ads which get the best or unusual results and ask permission to show success stories in classified promotions. Card files are sometimes set up on transient advertisers for regular solicitation call-backs.

(Slide #10)

While publishing testimonials from satisfied customers is an excellent promotional activity, other promotions are also effective. Because readers are already sold on your product and are therefore the best prospects for receiving promotional messages about classified (48, p. 111), carrying a blank coupon to assist readers in writing ads and estimating costs is good practice.

(Slide #11)

Another good practice is the use of promotional enclosures with subscription renewal notices. Some newspapers send letters or cards periodically to business firms which should regularly use classified--used car dealers, realtors, machinery firms, seed stores, grain dealers, or livestock firms. And, classified ads themselves can be used effectively to promote classifieds.

(Slide #12)

The composing or layout room should have an assortment of house or filler ads on classified. These can include a rate box, showing the size and style of various ads commonly used and their prices or testimonials from successful advertisers. Several newspapers use seasonal promotional messages or testimonials for banners or streamers on classified pages.

These perform double service--calling attention to the page and promoting the use of classifieds.

(Slide #13)

Community newspapers promote classified pages in a number of different ways. Some dress up the page with a comic strip or a two-column box lauding the effectiveness of classified advertising or suggesting ways the newspaper's classified department may be of service to the reader (45, p. 248).

(Slide #14)

A successful classified promotional device is that used by the Minneapolis Star-Tribune which ran a page size sign with the words "garage sale" on it. The copy told readers how to run a successful garage sale by using the sign and, of course, newspaper want-ads (48, p. 117).

(Slide #15)

Among the practices some newspapers credit for increasing classified ad linage are clipping ads from the other area newspapers. Another is the practice of telephone solicitation of classified ads. Ads from area newspapers are clipped and pasted to a form letter or postcard showing the publication costs in the local paper, then mailed. Some newspapers use housewives to solicit classified ads by phone.

(Slide #16)

Many newspapers do not permit the use of logotypes in classified ad columns because they feel the classifications heads are subordinated by the logos. Slicks, mats, and illustrations tend to detract (45, p. 258) and may not be permitted. It's sometimes argued that borders on classified display ads tend to draw readership away from other ads. Some newspapers pyramid classified display ads and will not permit them under the appropriate classification headline.

(Slide #17)

But, it is most likely that a newspaper's classified section will be built to suit the characteristics of a particular market served by the newspaper, the established reading habits of the readers and advertisers, particular situations, or the relative position of the newspaper in its field (45, p. 246). Thus, not all classified pages or sections follow neat, conservative makeup patterns. Some display the wares of advertisers more flamboyantly than others.

(Slide #18)

Classified page format apparently makes little difference to either the reader or the advertiser. Some newspapers use six-column format for editorial copy and as much as ten-column format for classifieds. Others use the same format

for classified ads as for the balance of the newspaper. The important thing, however, is results--getting the buyer and the seller together for their mutual benefit.

(Slide #19)

For many newspapers, contracts for classifieds are good revenue producers. A lower rate is generally granted to the advertiser who guarantees to use a specified number of lines within a given time period or runs essentially the same copy issue after issue. Some businesses or organizations which feel they cannot afford display advertising become steady users of contract classifieds and, frequently, step up to display advertising. Incidentally, many contracts are now drawn with self-renewal clauses.

(Slide #20)

In addition to transient and contract classified, display classified is an important income producer. Premium rates are charged for display classified--about 25 to 50 per cent higher than regular display. Most newspapers permit display classified ads to be printed under the appropriate classification heading. Some confine display classified to single column, open-face headlines only, without borders.

(Slide #21)

The increase in leisure time available to most persons has brought an unprecedented rise in demand for such sports items as snowmobiles, skis, and boats (48, p. 10). Dealers in motor bikes, cars, farm machinery, and appliances also make good prospects for classified display. Some classified ad promoters make a practice of soliciting appliance dealers for trade-in merchandise to swell their classified linage.

(Slide #22)

Inflation and a normally fluctuating job market are other contributions to increased classified linage. Because the average family's material possessions are increasing, the disposal of items also increases and classifieds provide ways for turning unused items into cash. Likewise, employers convinced that "help wanted" advertisements will fill their needs use classified columns when times of increasing employment opportunities develop.

(Slide #23)

The tendency of most transient advertisers is to use as few words as possible in order to reduce the cost of the ad. Such a philosophy is only false economy, for the addition of only a few words to an ad often gives it the added information, attractiveness, or pulling power that is needed to get

results. Most buyers react more readily to specific information than they do to generalizations. "Less than an hour's wear," for example, says more than "like new."

(Slide #24)

Classified advertising should be concise, complete, and convincing and should be written so that it says a lot in a few choice, but simple words. A mail order advertisment headlined "How to repair cars" drew 20 per cent fewer responses than did the same ad headlined "How to fix cars" (5, p. 47). Simple language is not resented by the better educated reader and often is the only language that other readers will understand.

(Slide #25)

The acronym PAPA is used to describe successful advertising--be it classified or display (28, p. 340). The letters represent a promise of benefit, amplification of the promise, proof, and an urge to action. The promise of benefit is carried in the headline and the best headlines are those that appeal to a reader's self-interest or provide him with information that will appeal to him. If successful, they capture his attention and hold it.

(Slide #26)

The first role of the copy is to amplify or enlarge upon the promise of benefit. Some ccpywriters suggest that the copy should not merely tell the prospect of the benefits he'll get by buying the product or service, but also should tell him what he will lose if he doesn't buy (5, p. 48). Often a deadline or cut-off date is used to imply that the reader may miss out if he doesn't act quickly.

(Slide #27)

Copy must be believable if it is to be effective. While testimonials are both believable and prove the benefit the headline promises, they are often too wordy for classifieds. But, the advertiser who saves money on short copy that fails to produce sales is being "penny wise and pound foolish." He should be, and usually is more interested in replies than in costs, circulatien, readership studies, design, makeup, ad location, and terse copy.

(Slide #28)

Finally, the ad should urge the reader to act. This can be done subtly or overtly. Addition of a line such as "This offer closes on November 20" or "Save $1 each if you act by Saturday" tells the reader he should act on the advertising message. Closing the sale, as salespersons know, is perhaps

even more important than informing a client about a product or inciting his interest in it.

(Slide #29)

Other specialists advocate similar approaches to writing effective classifieds. They suggest that an ad must capture the reader's attention and hold it, it must appeal to his emotions, it must be believable, it must state a price, and it must create desire. This suggests another advertising acronym, AIDA, representing attention, interest, desire, and action.

(Slide #30)

Studies indicate that the optimum running time for a want ad in daily newspapers is seven days, if it is to get results (48, p. 75). Most effective schedule for classified advertising in weeklies is three publications and for semi-weeklies, four. Thus, when low-cost promotional rates are developed, promoters must assure that the ad will be exposed in enough issues to be able to produce the results expected or promised.

(Slide #31)

Rates charged by newspapers and the methods of charging vary greatly. Circulation differences, operation costs, desired

profit margins, and competition often dictate the rate or account for the variations. One unusual system was practiced by an Illinois weekly which ran the want ad without charge if the item was not sold and collected 10 per cent of the selling price for running the ad if it was.

(Slide #32)

Because classified ads play such an important part in establishing a newspaper's prestige in the community or acceptance by readers and by users of display advertising, many publishers tend to charge only the minimum amounts for them. But, it is well to remember that a merchant may balk at an increase in display rates while a transient advertiser is likely to be less concerned with price and accepts increases without question.

(Slide #33)

Most newspapers permit blind ads in which a box number is used, rather than a name. Answers are mailed to the advertiser for an additional bookkeeping and mailing charge. Publishers are advised to be cautious in accepting ads which could be used to take unfair advantage of or to defraud readers. Once an innocent reader is led into an undesirable contract as a result of a blind ad, the newspaper rather than

the advertiser is blamed. Somehow, running an advertisement implies tacit consent or approval by the medium.

(Slide #34)

Many newspapers try to operate as close to a cash basis for classified advertising as possible. Payment with the advertising order usually commands a rate lower than that charged if billing is involved. Some newspapers send statements on the day the ad appears, showing a cash price to be paid within seven days and explaining if it is not paid within that time, the item goes to a higher price.

(Slide #35)

Although per word prices are easiest for the advertiser to figure and may be helpful in stimulating placement of classified advertising by mail, some newspapers adopt charges that match dollars with words. Others have special rates for the first ten words, considered to be the minimum for a classified ad message, plus fixed charges per word above that number.

(Slide #36)

Copy for either classified ads or classified promotional ads sometimes is "cute" and still does the job effectively. On the other hand, several studies show straightforward ads

outpull cute ads (5, p. 48). But, cute or straightforward, classified ads are an important revenue-producing area for any successful newspaper, an area that can be developed and cultivated for higher yields.

C. Layout and Design

The topic of newspaper layout and design was the second most popular among press association managers. Thirty-two of the association managers, 80 per cent of them, selected the topic as one best meeting the needs of weekly and semi-weekly newspaper personnel in their areas. It ranked second (by only 2.5 percentage points) to display advertising as the most urgent need.

(Slide #1)

Today's better newspapers reflect strong overtones of magazine layout. They make good use of white space, appropriate art, and horizontal makeup (17, p. 87). The various blocks of type are arranged in pleasing ways to generate optimum appeal to the reader. Headline types are selected because they are easier to read, but not so loud that they shout at the reader. Body type is readable and page design pleases the eye (17, p. 107).

(Slide #2)

But, while horizontal makeup is a style adopted by many newspapers, more traditional formats are also employed. A more traditional front page is the focus and brace format with copy attention focused on the corners. Other makeup

styles are vertical, formal and informal balance, total design, and circus style practiced by some sensational tabloids. Modular makeup, a combination of horizontal and vertical, is another style employing the building block or rectangular concept.

(Slide #3)

On the plus side of horizontal makeup is its flexibility and the attraction it has for readers. A story of three four and one-half inch cclumns, for example, looks more inviting than a 13 1/2-inch single column story (1, p. 178). Likewise, multi-column headlines are much easier to write than are one-column heads. Horizontal makeup minimizes jumps or continuations of stories. Research indicates that from 60 to 90 per cent of readers are lost on jumps (1, p. 194).

(Slide #4)

But, while many newspapers are abandoning traditional formats for the modern design, many cthers are adopting what typographer Edmund C. Arnold calls "functional" design. Such a design better fits the news developments of the day and, as Arnold suggests, "If news is important enough to print, it deserves to be displayed in a manner that entices the reader's eye" (1, p. 541).

(Slide #5)

Like horizontal makeup, functional makeup provides strong bottom-half or below-the-fold display on front pages and inside pages free from advertising. Newspapers tossed on a chair or table and thus displayed as an invitation to be picked up and read will have their bottom halves face up as often as their upper halves. One method of strengthening below-the-fold makeup is to anchor the lower corners with photos or multi-column stories.

(Slide #6)

But, while many newspapers have top-heavy front pages, they often have weak headline display on inside pages. More attention can be given to the use of pictures and two and three-column headlines on inside pages to give better balance to the total newspaper. First, each page should be considered as a unit of design. And, second, the total newspaper should be considered as a unit to avoid the same pattern for pages throughout the newspaper (5, p. 541).

(Slide #7)

Some editors place a lot of emphasis upon front page makeup, then throw together inside pages (9, p. 101). The same kind of logic is practiced by the homeowner who gives a fresh coat of paint only to the front of his house. Where inside pages

are given only cursory treatment, readers may get the impression that the stories which appear there are not worth reading.

(Slide #8)

Most smartly styled newspapers now have rejected column rules which, they say, give a crowded look to a page (17, p. 86). They also avoid such devices as stars, dashes, asterisks, and cutoff rules in favor of ribbons or blocks of white space to separate stories from one another (17, p. 73). Most multi-decked headlines have also been eliminated as a result of this trend toward clean layout.

(Slide #9)

Short and floating nameplates are favored over flags which stretch the full width of the page (1, p. 184). A popular nameplate width is two columns less than the columns of the page. Many newspapers now have flags of varying widths. They add versatility and permit an editor to select the one which best suits the pattern of the news in a particular issue.

(Slide #10)

Accompanying the trend toward horizontal and functional page makeup is the move toward wider news columns; thus, fewer

columns per page. Research has indicated that body type set somewhere between 14 and 18 picas wide, provided it is 8, 9, or 10-point type, is the most readable (57, p. 74). Most people can read more words at one time than there are in an 11 or 12-pica line.

(Slide #11)

As a result, the six column format has become increasingly popular. Not only does increased readership result, but side benefits, including cost savings, accrue. For, it is simpler to set type in wider measure and six columns, obviously, can be pasted up faster than seven or eight. Wider columns facilitate easier copy fitting and permit better head counts, resulting in more accurate headlines (17, p. 75).

(Slide #12)

Many of the illustrations in this presentation come from the Times-Plain Dealer of Cresco, long one of Iowa's leading community newspapers. Publisher Bruce Turvold says he has few hard, fast rules for layout and much of what his staff does in his words is "what the eye tells us we like and what to do." Do what looks right and if one has the eye for it, it works. Obviously, such a philosophy will not work for someone who has no eye for taste (58).

(Slide #13)

White space in headlines can be determined both by formula and by what looks good. Generally, layout experts suggest that six to 12 points of white space are required to separate a headline from body copy. In cases of multi-line heads, space between the lines is determined on the basis of six points, plus two points for each type size above 24 points. A two-line 48-point headline thus would have 14 points between the lines (59, p. 77).

(Slide #14)

Some researchers have found that the eye tends to scan a page in a line that resembles a reversed number six (17, p. 74). On the page illustrated by this slide, the eye tends to focus on the upper left-hand photo of the rock group, then moves right and down to the construction photo, down through the advertisements, then up the left side, and around again to the construction photo.

(Slide #15)

Other researchers discount the reverse six theory. But, they agree that the optical center of a page is the upper left portion, such as the Archie Griffin story illustrated here (59, p. 88). They contend that a reader starts reading a newspaper page as he or she starts a book page, at the upper

left. The eyes then move diagonally across and down the page and see all parts of the page, left to right and up to down, rather than moving in a straight line.

(Slide #16)

On some small newspapers, pages are made up without the benefit of a dummy, no pun intended. But, dummies are fast becoming standard tools and if newspapers are to compete effectively for their readers' time, they must be attractively presented. Dummies make such presentations more likely. Even the smallest paper can afford to print its own layout blanks and a practical size is 8 1/2" x 11" with an inch on the dummy representing two inches on the printed page (1, p. 160).

(Slide #17)

Another useful tool in balancing and coordinating the news hole with advertising linage is the copy log. This is a record of all copy that has gone to the composing room (1, p. 160). Many newspapers make use of ad logs, but overlook the copy log which can be a means of providing a constant count of available news hole and decreasing chances for mislaid or lost copy.

(Slide #18)

The principal function of makeup, of course, is to give the reader an attractive newspaper (17, p. 92). There are other functions, one of which is to reflect the newspaper's personality. A bright, clean, open, and uncluttered newspaper projects a favorable and positive image of the newspaper and its staff to its readers. Both news sources and advertisers feel more comfortable dealing with representatives of such newspapers.

(Slide #19)

Makeup also functions as a means of telling the readers what are considered to be the most significant stories of the day. The location and length of the story and the size and style of the headline are identifiable cues for the reader. A 20-inch bannered or skylined story on page one tells the reader that the editors think its content is more important than the information gained by reading a three-incher with a single-column head on page five.

(Slide #20)

Various sections of the newspaper should be in about the same place each issue so that the reader becomes accustomed to them (17, p. 93). A sports enthusiast gets irritated if the regular sports fare is not dished up in approximately the

same style and spot issue after issue. Family pages and editorial pages receive enhanced readership too, when their location is pretty much standardized.

(Slide #21)

But, a newspaper cannot become so standardized that it lacks variety. One of the goals of makeup is to help provide such variety. There are a number of ways to do this: one-up (five columns of type in a six-column space), wider measure, boxes, borders, centered headlines, or headlines with kickers (17, p. 96). But, adding variety only for the sake of variety is not always wise. Mixing too many forms and styles results in a layout which could be disconcerting to the reader (59, p. 71).

(Slide #22)

Among the four elements of layout and design--headlines, body type, art work, and white space (59, p. 57)--none probably deserves more consideration than any other. Good headlines alone cannot carry a newspaper otherwise weak in the other three elements. Neither can good art, readable body type, or diligent use of white space offset poorly designed and written headlines.

(Slide #23)

Good art for most newspapers means good photography. Good photography means pictures that are well cropped and include a lot of detail to tell a story quickly and, often, dramatically. Increasingly, editors are willing to print a few pictures that have no direct bearing on the news--pictures published solely for their beauty, not their news content (17, p. 105). Many editors keep a file of photos, like time copy, to call upon when the news hole is too large for the normal run of copy.

(Slide #24)

Most pleasing to the reader's eye are rectangular or unusual shaped pictures--as opposed to photographs cropped squarely. And, for what some graphics experts call infinite impact, so great that impact on the reader is impossible to measure, photos can be larger than half the width or half the depth of the page (59, p. 45). Normally, however, photos should be placed on the page in such a fashion that they are not cut by a quadrant fold.

(Slide #25)

Horizontal lines and, thus, a horizontally cropped photo tend to give an impression of serenity and peace. Landscapes, for example, are normally pictured horizontally. Horizontal

photos, those which depict tranquil scenes, usually create a mood of rest, a sense of inactivity (59, p. 47). Diagonal lines or the arrangement of objects diagonally add action or the feeling of movement to a horizontal picture.

(Slide #26)

Of course, to enhance the feeling of motion or activity, most editors crop photos vertically. Photos which are deeper than they are wide normally suggest motion, but also create a mood of dignity, respect, force, or power. A vertical photo of a tree, a flag, or a building creates an impression far different from a horizontal picture of a meadow or a lazy brook.

(Slide #27)

Imaginative cropping and camera angles that are higher or lower than normal can add to a photograph's effectiveness. A photo scaling or cropping formula is useful in determining what size the enlargement or reduction is going to be. Simply take the cropped width over the cropped depth. This number or fraction equals the reproduced depth. A picture eight inches wide and ten inches deep reduced to a six-inch width would thus be seven and one-half inches deep.

(Slide #28)

Most experts agree that habit and tradition are the two greatest enemies of modern newspaper makeup (45, p. 549). The use of rounded corners on boxes, and even on photos, is recommended as a favorable break with tradition by many graphics designers. Occasional subheads in body type to avoid the gray tones of large masses of reading matter is another suggestion. Subheads, by the way, should be about the same size as body type, in boldface or in a face that represents a change of pace.

(Slide #29)

The use of standing heads can become too widespread for good layout and design. They sometimes lead to static, unchanging pages and often can kill off otherwise interesting stories. Area correspondents' copy is freguently handled in this fashion. Many times, however, the news from Junction Flats includes items of such general interest a standing head does it an injustice.

(Slide #30)

One of the most disconcerting makeup practices is to tombstone headlines of similar typeface and size, side-by-side in adjoining columns. They resemble grave markers in old cemeteries, thus the moniker, tombstones. Most of the

time, tombstoning can be avoided by reshuffling a couple of stories or changing a headline.

(Slide #31)

And, even headlines with contrasting typefaces side-by-side tend to deaden a page (17, p. 99). Ideally, headlines should be separated vertically by body type so that each one stands clearly by itself. Bumping them is a poor practice. Sometimes editors place a standard-size head alongside a squint-size head to minimize the problem. This doesn't work either. An extremely small head is not much better than no head at all.

(Slide #32)

It isn't necessary to restrict the type beneath a multi-column headline to neat squares or rectangles. Columns of body type can vary in length. Usually, graphics experts prefer that longer columns be to the right rather than to have four inches of type, for example, followed by two or three inches. Likewise, it is poor practice to extend a story to a column not under the headline or to use a headline of a non-related story directly under a multi-column head.

(Slide #33)

This is not to say, of course, that stories cannot be jumped to other pages. But, the number of jumps should be held to a minimum and, certainly, jumps of only an inch or two should be avoided whenever possible. Likewise, one can usually arrange the type so that it is not necessary to plug gaps with small fillers. If a small gap cannot be avoided, a local filler should be used--one which has local appeal such as "The average rainfall in Kalamazoo county is 31.2 inches"--rather than "The world's largest mammal is a whale."

(Slide #34)

Pages should be balanced. Top heavy or bottom heavy pages disturb a reader and decrease readership. Some layout persons attempt to balance type or artwork in advertising with editorial type and photography. And, just as advertising persons frown on too many typefaces in an.ad, so do the better editors like to use few typefaces for headlines. One way to balance a page is to liven the corners or each quadrant of the page.

(Slide #35)

Just as headline typefaces should not conflict with one another, sc should body and headline type blend or coordinate. Some newspapers, for example, overuse italics in headlines.

If used too often, italics loses its effect. Contemporary typefaces such as Futura or Helvetica are found increasingly in better newspapers. Some newspapers too frequently screen large masses of body type with a gray or a black tone challenging readers to make their way through the story.

(Slide #36)

It is sometimes easy for an editor to become so enamored of layout and design that he lets it overshadow content. He sometimes forgets that typography and layout cannot disguise poor news coverage and writing (1, p. 323). While newspapers must compete for their readers' time, they must also communicate with those readers. Good news coverage and good writing will make that possible. Layout and design are only helpful tools toward that end.

D. Newswriting

This packet, like the one that follows it, responds to the press association managers' selection of newsriting as the third ranking need of weekly and semi-weekly newspaper personnel in their states. This packet, however, deals with only one form of the news story--the inverted pyramid form. Others, such as the narrative or chronolcgical forms, would be handled in additional packets.

(Slide #1)

Most experts agree that no writer can do a good job without first knowing tc whom and for whom he is writing (18, p.9). Although this appears too obvious to escape attention, some newswriters get so involved in the art of expression that they fail to recognize how few persons may be reading their work. They overlook the fact that audience analysis is basic to newswriting effectiveness.

(Slide #2)

Some writers enjoy the luxury of a feel for their audiences. Others more scientifically and painstakingly analyze just who it is that makes up that mass out there that subscribes to and, hopefully, reads their newspapers.

(Slide #3)

It is not the purpose here, however, to discuss means of analyzing audiences. Rather, considering the steps just beyond the establishment of to whom and for whom you are writing, beginning with the measurement of those situations or events on the basis of interest or importance to that audience, is more important.

(Slide #4)

A sports story or a list of real estate tranfers, for example, are likely high interest stories in your community, but probably of very little significance to it. Proceedings of your county board of supervisors or a story on a new academic course at the area school may attract little interest among readers, yet may be highly important to them.

(Slide #5)

How you attend to or balance these two requirements of news--interest and significance--is a matter of judgment or choice. The ideal story, of course, is one which responds to both criteria, one which is equally interesting and important to large numbers of your readers (7, p. 44).

(Slide #6)

Some experts in the business list what they call qualities of news. These qualities are of two kinds: those over which the reporter or writer has control and those over which he or she has no control. Qualities of news over which the writer exerts control include:

(Slide #7)

ACCURACY. Not only must the facts of a story be interesting and/or significant, they must be accurate. It's accepted practice for reporters to double-check names, ages, addresses, occupations, or titles of persons in news events (7, p. 28).

(Slide #8)

CONCISENESS. Tight writing is much preferred to verbose writing with superfluous words or information. Avoid redundancies such as bald-headed when bald says it all (7, p. 41).

(Slide #9)

BALANCE. Just as it would be unreasonable to give only one team's score in a story of an athletic contest, so is it not acceptable to present only one side of a news event or

or situation. Balance a story with ALL the information, both good and bad (7, p. 31).

(Slide #10)

OBJECTIVITY. Despite the argument that absolute objectivity is impossible, good reporters and writers keep themselves out of their news stories. They leave personal comment to the editorial page (7, p. 33).

(Slide #11)

These qualities of news just discussed are those qualities over which the reporter-writer has some direct control--the accuracy of the news story, the conciseness with which it is written or reported, the balance or fairness with which facts are presented, and the objective fashion in which the story is handled.

(Slide #12)

Those qualities over which the reporter-writer has little control are these: PROXIMITY. An event or situation which hits home or close to home for the reader usually attracts more of his attention than one which took place many miles away (7, p. 54).

(Slide #13)

PROMINENCE. An event or situation involving a person or persons prominent in the reader's circle of interest is usually more newsworthy than an event or situation involving unfamiliar persons (7, p. 48).

(Slide #14)

UNUSUALNESS. Just as the man bites dog story commands readership because it is different, so does the unusual event get attention from readers (7, p. 55).

(Slide #15)

TIMELINESS. Events become history rather quickly unless there is a new development to renew interest (7, p. 58).

(Slide #16)

HUMAN INTEREST. Readers relate to or identify with events or situations for emotional or sometimes irrational reasons. Stories about the carrier boy who was robbed or the widow who held a winning sweepstakes ticket generate high reader interest (7, p. 52).

(Slide #17)

These uncontrollable qualities then are PROXIMITY, PROMINENCE, UNUSUALNESS, TIMELINESS, and HUMAN INTEREST.

(Slide #18)

Now, consider a reporter's task from a functional standpoint. Some authorities suggest that there are two principal functions of reporting. First is the observation function and second, of course, is the description function. Neither can be ignored or treated lightly.

(Slide #19)

Inexperienced reporters sometimes slight one or the other. They discover when writing a story that there's a question they wish they had asked at the time of observation.

Or they may dangle a modifying phrase or misspell a word when writing their stories. But, neither function can be carelessly handled or short-changed.

(Slide #20)

Now, about the first function--observation--and how a reporter knows when it has been completed. Once he or she can satisfactorily and completely answer the five W's and H about the event or situation, the reporter can be reasonably sure he has observed fully.

(Slide #21)

Who are the participants in the event or situation? What is the event or situation which makes it newsworthy? When did

the event or situation take place or develop? Where is the event occurring or situation developing? Why? What brought all this about? How did it all happen or how will it happen?

(Slide #22)

With the five W's and H now duly recorded in a notepad or on a tape recorder, the reporter is ready to complete the second function--description. Whether it's at a typewriter or a video display terminal, the reporter now consolidates the facts so they may be presented in a form appealing to the reader. For most straight news stories, that form is called the inverted pyramid.

(Slide #23)

Such a writing style dictates that the most important detail or feature of the news appears first. Additional details or facts then are presented in descending order of importance. In effect, the story is written in such a fashion that end paragraphs can be deleted or cut out without materially destroying the meaning of the story for the reader (52, p. 51).

(Slide #24)

Here's a news story which illustrates the inverted pyramid style and introduces the five W's and the H in descending

order of importance (54, p. 16). I quote: "A bill that would protect consumers from being surprised by high repair bills for cars and home appliances was introduced (that's the what) in the Iowa House (the where) Friday (the when)."

(Slide #25)

Again quoting the newswriter: "Representative Wallace Horn, Dem., Cedar Rapids, (that's the who) said his bill would require repairmen to submit written estimates of the cost of repairs to consumers if the repairs would total at least half of the replacement cost of the product (that's the how)."

(Slide #26)

The news story continues: "He said the bill would provide consumer protection for 'thousands of persons' who have been surprised to receive high repair bills (that's the why)."

(Slide #27)

The balance of the story expands upon these major points with facts and information suited to readers who desire to pursue the subject matter farther. Some readers exit from the story at various spots after receiving enough of the information to satisfy their interest or needs.

(Slide #28)

Expansion of the story for those wanting more information includes additional paragraphs on the need to protect consumers who are in a hurry and forget to ask what the repair costs will be, on the requirements of the bill that repairmen list parts to be replaced and the costs of these parts and labor, on the written and oral agreements between repairmen and consumers, and the penalties for violation of the act.

(Slide #29)

Exits for readers satisfied with only some of the facts of the story usually take place at the ends of paragraphs or at points following introduction of one of the five W's or the H.

(Slide #30)

For example, a reader interested in consumerism only in a general way might exit after learning in the first paragraph that protective legislation was introduced. Another reader might exit after the second paragraph when he discovers that he doesn't know the legislator who introduced the bill. On the other hand, a reader who feels he has been recently burned by his repairman might be so concerned he would read the story in its entirety.

E. News Story Lead Writing

This packet, like the one preceding it, responds to the press association managers' selection of newswriting as the third-ranking need of weekly and semi-weekly newspaper personnel in their areas. It is designed to teach only the summary-type news lead. Narrative, suspended interest, or other styles of leads would be handled in additional packets.

(Slide #1)

Readers must actually be beckoned into a story and invited to taste its contents. Leads to stories thus must say something cogently interesting or important to that reader. The most effective leads open with a brief, sharp statement of the story's most important fact (7, p. 185-186), the peg upon which the story is to be hung. It's this fact around which supporting information is blended that makes the story.

(Slide #2)

A bland, routine lead or "calendar event" lead turns off readers (17, p. 55) and is to be avoided. Leads which say "The City Council discussed several major items of business at its regular meeting last night" or "Election of officers was held at the Chamber of Commerce directors' meeting today" don't really expose the central fact of the story.

(Slide #3)

What the city council did--approved a 9 o'clock curfew for juveniles or lowered city water rates--is what readers are interested in and is what should appear in the news lead. The fact that the Chamber of Commerce directors named its first woman president after three deadlocked votes is a more inviting lead than the fact that the election was held.

(Slide #4)

Some writers are so convinced by the merits of the names-make-news philosophy they begin each story with the name of a person. Thus, you see leads which say "Pete Jackson was injured Sunday when the snowmobile he was riding..." and "Geraldine Ryan was presented the best-speller award last week" or "Clarence Spikes arrived home last week after...." Unless you live in an extremely small community in which everyone knows everyone else by sight and by name, such leads are not the most effective.

(Slide #5)

In most communities, unless the person is of some prominence, readers will not recognize the name and may well pass over an interesting or important story. In the case of the snowmobile accident story, it is likely to be more appropriate to begin with "A rural Fort Dodge man was injured Sunday

when the snowmobile he was riding..." or, in the case of the best-speller award story, "An Albert City girl received the best-speller award last week...."

(Slide #6)

This is not to say that the name of the person involved in the story should be ignored entirely, or for very long in the story. One would want to provide the reader with early identification by name, perhaps in the sentence or paragraph following the lead sentence.

(Slide #7)

In the case of prominent persons, opening a news story with a name is a frequent practice. Perhaps the mayor, the chief of police, the superintendent of schools, or the county sheriff would enjoy enough public recognition to be named in the opening sentence of local news stories. On a national level, of course, stories involving such figures as President Ford, Secretary of State Kissinger, or Senator Kennedy may open with the name.

(Slide #8)

Generally, however, even if a person is the focal point of the news event, his name is not of such consuming importance that it should be given top billing in the story's lead sen-

tence. And, in the case of a speech or personal interview story, what that person has to say is usually more important or interesting to the reader than who he is.

(Slide #9)

Old timers were accustomed to including all six elements of the news--the five W's and H--in their leads. These old clothesline leads averaged more than 50 words each. Today's lead paragraphs run half that amount. In fact, some newspapers limit their leads to "about 25 words." Others tell their reporters that lead paragraphs should be no longer than three typewritten lines (7, p. 188).

(Slide #10)

Reporters now are more selective in their use of the five W's and the H. If a writer is to catch the meaning and the flavor of a news event in his story, he chooses for his lead the elements which best serve this purpose. Which of the five W's and H, he or she asks, must be included in the lead, which may be presented later in the story, and which may be left out?

(Slide #11)

The element which appears more frequently than any other in lead sentences is the <u>What</u> element. Such leads may open with

"A two-car crash Tuesday claimed the lives of two Estherville men..." or "Hail and high winds last night caused an estimated $1 million loss to Buena Vista county crops..." or "An audit of the Pamona State Bank uncovered a $3,000 shortage..." are all What leads. And, since news stories almost by definition tell what happened or will happen, it follows that the What element should be more commonly featured than any other.

(Slide #12)

The When element is rarely the most important in a news story, but is also seldom left out of a lead. Both the consumers and the purveyors of news are so firmly and properly conditioned to timeliness the When element is usually included. Although the When is not the dominant element, lead sentences of news stories typically include it: "Bank deposits in Wright county reached a new high last month, it was announced this week..." or "Flash floodwaters Sunday destroyed the county's chances for a bumper corn crop...."

(Slide #13)

The Who, sometimes wrongly, appears frequently as the opening element in news story leads. Certainly, when the central figure in the story is a person of prominence, this element could be given first consideration. But, remember the

earlier warning: What a person says or does is often more important than who he is.

(Slide #14)

When this is the case, Who leads emphasize the person's title rather than his name. Perhaps only a handful of readers might want to read a statement by Joe Green. But, few readers would skip over a statement by a prominent local leader. Thus, Who leads often read like this: "The head of the county cattle feeders said yesterday the boycott should be lifted..." rather than "Dick Jones said yesterday the market boycott would be lifted...."

(Slide #15)

The Where element is only occasionally the key element for top billing in a news story. A highway intersection where repeated traffic accidents occur might prompt a Where lead. "The intersection of Highways 3 and 4 was the site of another costly traffic accident yesterday" or selection of a city for a major event might trigger a Where lead. "Sioux Center has been selected as host city for the regional food conference in March, it was announced...."

(Slide #16)

Why and How are the two elements seldom used in news story leads. There may be growing concern among readers to know the Why of situations or events, but the use of the Why element in the lead sentence is rare. Occasionally, however, such leads as "Because of excessive spring rains, county farmers are facing..." or "Since interest rates have been declining, housing starts in Hamilton county..." appear.

(Slide #17)

Leads in which the How element is emphasized are also uncommon. "By a single vote, Congress overrode the President's veto Monday" or "In a 5-4 split, the State Supreme Court upheld Sunday liquor sales" sound somewhat awkward. In fact, they violate the rule against opening lead sentences with prepositional phrases, a rule that may be violated if clarity and understanding are better served.

(Slide #18)

Prepositional phrases, participial phrases, and noun phrases are poor ways to open lead sentences. Direct, straightforward, declarative sentences are much preferred by readers and make less likely the chances for misunderstanding or misinterpretation. The two How leads cited earlier flow much more easily when rewritten to say "The State Supreme Court

upheld Sunday liquor sales in a 5-4 vote..." or "Congress overrode the President's veto by a single vote...."

(Slide #19)

Question leads are sometimes effective, but can easily be overdone. Such leads as "Has the area's economy bottomed out?" or "When will the new recreation area open?" or "Who really won Tuesday's election?" are simple and straightforward, command immediate interest, and emphasize the major fact of each story. But, question leads also demand that answers be provided rather quickly lest the reader be left dangling and wondering what is going on.

(Slide #20)

In these examples, the reader must be told rather quickly in the story that area unemployment is falling and the economic picture has brightened, or that the new recreation area is to be completed early next month, or that unofficial election returns place two candidates in a dead heat. Failure to provide a quick answer to question leads is an irritant to be avoided. One way is to avoid question leads.

(Slide #21)

Direct-quote leads, too, can be effective but some readers look on direct-quote leads as laziness on the part of the

writer. The reporter wouldn't take the time tc paraphrase what was said in briefer and more understandable terms. In the case of speech stories, for example, few speakers provide neat summaries or statements that would be suitable for leads. But, when they do, the direct-quote can be effective.

(Slide #22)
Consider a lead such as this: "'You bums! You didn't want to win enough, did you?' a fan screeched from above the dugout at County Stadium Sunday." A direct quote lead works in this case.

In line with the admonition that clothesline leads are no longer acceptable, one should avoid compound sentences or sentences that have too many ideas in them. It's too much to expect a reader to grasp multiple ideas, especially at the opening of a news story.

(Slide #23)
A lead such as this: "Mayor Jones and members of the City Council argued over who controls the city purse-strings, the City Clerk or the City Treasurer, at Tuesday's meeting attended by delegations representing the Taxpayer's Association and the City Development Commission as well as other individuals supporting a third position" requires reading more than once for understanding.

(Slide #24)

Unless vitally interested, most readers won't go to the trouble of re-reading. One-idea sentences, whether in leads or in the body of the story itself, ease the reading task and, thus, contribute to improved communication between reporters and consumers of news.

(Slide #25)

Here is a simple, declarative lead from a highly regarded metropolitan newspaper: "Detroit police are seeking two armed robbers who took an undetermined amount of morphine, codeine, other narcotics and cash yesterday morning from a west side drug store." (54, p. B1). Another from the same newspaper generates interest without overlooking the major elements: "When a man turned in two crisp $5 bills to police at a Detroit police mini-station a month ago, the officers on duty thought at last they had found a truly honest man." (54, D1).

(Slide #26)

Okay! What have we said here about leads? First, of course, we've said that a lead should open with a brief, sharp statement of the story's most important fact. This serves to capture attention and invites a reading of the story.

(Slide #27)

Emphasize only the Who, What, When, Where, Why, or How that best captures the meaning and the flavor of your story. The old clothesline lead in which all the five W's and H had to be included in the opening sentence of a story is unacceptable to the sophisticated, busy reader.

(Slide #28)

Avoid identifying persons in leads by name unless they are persons of prominence. Generally, the person's title has more meaning to more readers and often what he has done or has to say is more important and more interesting than who he is.

(Slide #29)

Limit lead sentences to no more than 25 words or three typewritten lines. Readers get lost or turned off by long, involved lead sentences. Some of the best leads are brief, sharp, single idea statements.

(Slide #30)

Good news writers avoid opening their leads with prepositional, participial, or noun phrases. They recognize

that it's too easy to confuse the reader or mislead him with other than direct, straight-forward language.

(Slide #31)

Although question leads often can generate interest from a reader and motivate him to read on, they can be a source of reader irritation. They should be used sparingly and only at the most appropriate times.

(Slide #32)

Direct quote leads, too, can be effective but sources rarely issue neat summaries or statements that lend themselves to concise lead sentences. More often, it is better to paraphrase what a speaker or source has to say.

(Slide #33)

Avoid compound, multiple idea lead sentences. They confuse the reader who is innately lazy and wants information parceled out in smaller, more palatable doses.

VI. SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, RECOMMENDATIONS

The history of the nation's community newspapers--the weekly and semi-weekly publications--has been one of concern for survival. For any one or more of a variety of reasons, the numbers of these community publications have declined over time. Changing economic conditions, population shifts, industrialization, or alterations in community political philosophies have sometimes contributed to such decline.

But, newspapers do survive. Publications do succeed in adjusting to the changes which cause others to fail and some newspapers prosper and grow in influence despite great odds. Why?

One of the purposes of this study was to determine the needs of community newspapers or the threats to their survival as perceived by state press association managing directors and executive secretaries. Because most community newspapers belong to their state press associations and because most association managers are highly knowledgeable with respect to the editorial and economic welfare of the member publications, press association managers are the most logical and expert sources for delineating newspaper needs, concerns, and threats.

A second purpose of the investigation was to determine if press association managing directors and executive

secretaries of states demographically dissimilar would perceive the needs for upgrading the craft and the product of community journalism in their states differently. Or, would such variables as population density or competition from other community newspapers play no significant role in the determination of how press association managers viewed the needs of their state's newspaper personnel?

It was thus hypothesized that state demographic differences would result in divergent percepticns of these needs. Demographic considerations in this study were: weekly and semi-weekly newspaper/population ratios, daily newspaper/population ratios, population density, farm/population ratios, weekly and semi-weekly/daily newspaper ratios, and farm/manufacturing added-value income ratios.

Questionnaires were mailed to state press association managers listed as members of Newspaper Association Managers, Inc., and data from 40 of them were used in the study.

Press association managers were asked to select topics best suited to the needs or concerns of newspaper personnel in their states. These topics were classified as either reader-oriented or newspaper-oriented (without the knowledge of the respondents).

First consideration was given to the overall selection of topics by the press association managers. Leading the

list of 16 suggested topics was display advertising, named by 82.5 per cent of the association managers as best meeting the needs of newspaper personnel in their states. Close behind was the topic layout and design, selected by 80 per cent. Others in order were; newswriting, 72.5 per cent; new technology, 65 per cent; news photography, 60 per cent; classified advertising, 57.5 per cent; press law, 52.5 per cent; circulation, 50 per cent; postal regulations, 42.5 per cent; editorial writing, 40 per cent; accounting and bookkeeping, 37.5 per cent; newspaper ethics, 35 per cent; copy editing, 27.5 per cent; headline writing, 25 per cent; news interviewing, 17.5 per cent; interpretive reporting, 15 per cent.

Based on the demographic considerations for each, the states were divided into groups and comparisons of the mean responses by press association managers were tested to determine significant differences, if any, in the selection of suggested topics for seminars and short courses. The eight reader-oriented and eight newspaper-oriented topics served as dependent variables in the study. The six demographic considerations served as independent variables.

Statistically, significant differences appeared in elements of five of the six hypotheses tested. In the sixth, Hypothesis No. 6 which stated that press association managers representing states with comparatively larger agricultural

incomes in relation to manufacturing incomes would select more reader- than newspaper-oriented short course and seminar topics as those best meeting the needs of newspaper personnel in their states, there was no significant difference in any of the 16 dependent variable cells.

Hypothesis No. 1 stated that association managers from states with larger numbers of weekly and semi-weekly newspapers per person would select newspaper-oriented topics over reader-oriented topics. A significant difference was found in only one of the 16 dependent variables--postal regulations at the .01 level of significance.

Hypothesis No. 2 stated that association managers from states with larger numbers of daily newspapers per person would select newspaper-oriented topics over reader-oriented topics. Two of the 16 dependent variables--interpretive reporting at the .01 level of significance and copy editing at the .05 level--showed significant differences in group means.

Hypothesis No. 3 stated that association managers from states with more concentrated populations would select newspaper-oriented over reader-oriented topics. In oneindependent variable--postal regulations at the .01 level of significance--a significant difference was noted in the group means.

Hypothesis No. 4 stated that association managers from states in which there were more farms per capita would select more reader-oriented topics than newspaper-oriented topics. In the testing of one independent variable--interpretive reporting at the .01 level of significance--a significant difference in group means occurred.

Hypothesis No. 5 stated that association managers from states with comparatively more weekly and semi-weekly newspapers in relation to dailies would select reader-oriented over newspaper-oriented topics. A significant difference in responses was recorded in testing the independent variable display advertising at the .05 level.

Despite the fact that statistically significant differences were found in only a limited number of cases--six of 96--the results of the study are of importance and of practical significance to journalism educators and practitioners.

The statistical differences (six of 96) are little better than those one might expect due to chance or its fluctuations at the .05 level. Where tests are independent of one another, one might expect about five per cent of the results to occur by chance. In studies such as this, in which the treatments or tests are not completely independent, but somewhat related, one might expect an even higher occurrence by chance.

Thus, there appears to be little reason to reject the six hypotheses of the study in favor of the null hypotheses which suggest no significant difference in group responses. What's more, the magnitude of the difference between the means is not of great practical concern. In 90 of the 96 cells, no statistical and little substantive difference was recorded. In the six in which significant differences resulted, the substantive differences are not of alarming magnitude, for the most part. In four of the six cases, the group means vary less than 35 per cent.

One might argue that some statistical imprecision may have resulted from the demographic measurements used in the tests. For example, when one measures the relationship between newspapers and population or between farms and population, a low ratio could mean one of two things, or a combination of the two. Either there is a high number of farms or newspapers against a high number of persons, or a low number of farms or newspapers against a low number of persons.

The data show that the ratio of weekly and semi-weekly newspapers to population in Michigan is 1/25,142 persons, not much different from New Mexico's 1/26,737 persons, yet an offhand appraisal might well be that the two states are extremely different from other standpoints. Or, the ratio of daily newspapers to population in Utah is 1/211,855 persons, not much different from New Jersey's 1/224,005 persons, yet

those two states would appear to be widely different by other, perhaps more meaningful considerations.

Another possibility for imprecision in the results could center on the perceptive abilities of the state press association managers. Their responses on what they perceive to be needs, it could be argued, are off-target and do not conform to reality. This possibility, however, is an unlikely one. A number of years of personal community journalism experience and contacts with dozens of community newspaper publishers lead the writer to believe the perceived needs expressed by the association managers are accurate.

Nonetheless, the study's results do indicate that programs developed to help beginning or under-trained journalists in one area of the nation are appropriate for use in all areas. While this may be encouraging to educators and others concerned with human development, practitioners of the craft also may find satisfaction in the knowledge that any post-graduate training or continuing education they receive in community journalism will serve them equally well in all geographical or demographical locations.

The lack of significant differences in a substantial number of the cells could also be interpreted as indicating a more homogeneous community newspaper audience than one might have expected. The fact that association managers in rural, agriculture-oriented states made topical selections little

different from those by association managers in urban, industry-oriented states could indicate the audiences their respective newspapers serve are not appreciably different.

Continued research is needed, however. Additional community journalism research, in both the testing and developmental fields, should cover continuing education models and their application. In Chapter Five of this study are five audio-visual mini-courses or learning packets developed as a result of the perceived needs of community newspaper personnel. Topics of these are news lead writing, newswriting, display advertising sales, classified advertising promotion, and newspaper layout and design. Others should be developed, if not for all the topics covered in this study, then for those selected by press association managers as the most needed.

The most appropriate areas or topics of additional mini-courses are: new technology, news photography, press law, circulation, and postal regulations.

In addition to the development of sound-on-slide, tape-slide, or videotape presentations, the learning packets should include such additional software as behavioral objectives, printed summaries, review tests, and means for feedback. These learning packets then should be scientifically tested with control and treatment groups or with pre-testing and post-testing of groups receiving the

treatments. Where necessary, the procedures or messages should be adjusted and refined to offset any weaknesses or to capitalize on strengths uncovered in testing.

A final recommendation would be to make such packets available to community newspaper personnel for the purpose of upgrading the craft and the product of the nation's community journalists.

Too often, those who need it the least are the ones who now participate in seminars, workshops, or continuing education programs. The owners, publishers, and editors are those who more frequently attend, while the ones who would benefit the most--sub-editors, reporters, advertising salesmen, bookkeepers--are at home "tending the store." One press association managing director said the greatest need in his state was for "workshops to supply enthusiasm, ideas and techniques for those who do the work, not the top level people who can attend regional and national meetings." Another suggested, "It's too costly for most newspapers to send staffers to such (state) clinics."

One method for reducing the problems of distance and cost is to hold area workshops or clinics which involve only minimum driving distances for the participants. Such area programs are now being sponsored in a number of states. Unfortunately, newspaper representation percentages in these states do not vary substantially from those in others which

rely entirely on centrally-located seminars to bring information, ideas, and new practices to their newspaper personnel. An argument against the area seminar, of course, is that it multiplies costs. The time and expense of bringing resource persons or experts to five area clinics, for example, are considerably greater than those of bringing the same authorities to one centrally-located clinic site.

On the basis of what has also been found in this study, a gap appears to exist between what press associations are now doing and what their association managers say needs to be done. Four of five association managers said personnel in their states needed layout and design ideas and techniques. Yet, less than one-fourth of the associations are sponsoring or co-sponsoring efforts to make such information available to their newspapers' personnel. Press law was selected as a topical need by more than half of the association managers, yet less than 10 per cent of them report any such programs in their states.

Difficulty in finding suitable short course or workshop speakers was cited as one reason for limiting the topics covered. Another was the lack of funds to finance appearances of persons recognized as authorities in some of the more esoteric fields.

The learning packet concept proffered in this study holds promise for offsetting disadvantages of the centrally-located clinic while embracing advantages of area seminars. Additionally, the learning packets are likely to be used by those personnel they're designed to help, particularly if they are made available to individual newspapers or to groups of newspapers with common skill or product improvement needs.

The packets, if developed through the cooperative efforts of schools and departments of journalism, could relieve the problem of locating credible speakers and eliminate the cost of bringing such experts to workshop and short course sites.

A set of five sound-on-slide, video tape, or tape-slide presentations, for example, could replace five highly qualified speakers in such diverse areas as news photography, bookkeeping and accounting, new technology, newspaper law, and classified advertising. Such sets could be duplicated, made available through university area extension offices, and served up simultaneously to small groups of community newspaper personnel at several locations.

This final recommendation may well be the most important of the study. If one harbors a belief that democracy flourishes only when man has free access to information and ideas, then the loss of any medium which provides this access is a diminution of freedom. Contrarily, any measure to im-

prove or to maintain the free flow of information and ideas aids the cause of man's freedom. Audio-visual mini-courses made readily available to community journalists, this study suggests, could be vehicles for countering threats to the survival of an important segment of the nation's press--the weekly and semi-weekly newspaper.

VII. BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Arnold, Edmund C. Functional Newspaper Design. New York: Harper and Brothers, Publishers, 1956.

2. Bagdikian, Ben H. How Communities May Shape Our Future Environment. In Francis H. Voelker and Ludmila A. Voelker, (Eds.), Mass Media Forces in Our Society. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1975, pp. 412-419.

3. Borg, Walter R. and Meredith D. Gall. Educational Research, An Introduction, 2nd ed. New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1971.

4. Boyd, Dale E. North Central Iowa Community Newspaper Problems: Their Identification and a Proposal for Solution. Unpublished M.S. Thesis, Ames, Iowa, Library, Iowa State University, 1970.

5. Caples, John. 50 Things I Have Learned in Advertising. Advertising Age, September 12, 1975, 47-48.

6. Chamberlain, R. L. and D. Jowett. The Omnitab Programming System, A Guide for Users. Ames, Iowa: Statistical Laboratory, Iowa State University, 1969.

7. Charnley, Mitchell V. Reporting, 3rd ed. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1975.

8. Cypher, Irene F. Filmstrips and Slides. Innovations for Time to Teach. Project: Time to Teach, Dept. of Classroom Teachers, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1966, pp. 99-103.

9. Denne, Kenneth T., Mitchell Schorow, Sandra Ulicny, and Donald Ulmer. Mass Communication Media in Continuing Education. Journal of Medical Education, 47, No. 9 (Sept., 1972): 712-716.

10. The Detroit News. March 12, 1975.

11. Eberhard, Wallace B. Daily Newspaper Starts and Suspensions, 1960-69. Journalism Quarterly, 52, No. 18 (Spring 1975): 117-120.

12. Eide, Arvid Ray. The Influence of Learning Packets and Independent Study on Student Achievement in Engineering Graphics. Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis, Ames, Iowa, Library, Iowa State University, 1973.

13. Emery, Edwin, Phillip H. Ault and Warren K. Agee. Introduction to Mass Communications, 3rd ed. New York: Dodd, Mead and Company, 1970.

14. Everly, Jack C. Continuing Education Instruction via the Mass Media. Paper presented at the National Seminar of Adult Education Research, Chicago, Ill., February 11-13, 1968.

15. Facts about Newspapers 1976, A Statistical Summary of Newspaper Business. Washington, D.C.: American Newspaper Publishers Association, May, 1976.

16. Felton, Charles E. A Comparison of Two Methods of In-Service Teacher Training in Selected Non-Public Midwestern Secondary Schools. Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis, Ames, Iowa Library, Iowa State University, 1973.

17. Gilmore, Gene and Robert Root. Modern Newspaper Editing. Berkeley, California: The Glendessary Press, Inc., 1971.

18. Grey, David L. The Writing Process. Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishing Co., 1972.

19. Grotta, Gerald L. Properous Newspaper Industry May be Heading for Decline. Journalism Quarterly, 51, No. 3 (Autumn, 1974): 498-502.

20. Hartley, James. Editing a Program: A Case History. Strategies for Programmed Instruction: an Educational Technology. London: Butterworth & Co., Ltd., 1972, pp. 187-198.

21. Heckinger, Fred M. The Audio-Tutorial Approach to Learning. Change, The Magazine of Higher Learning, 8, No. 6 (July, 1976): 8-11.

22. Hulteng, John and Roy Paul Nelson. The Fourth Estate, An Informal Appraisal of the News and Opinion Media. New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1971.

23. Jamison, Dean, Patrick Suppes and Stuart Wells. The Effectiveness of Alternative Instruction Media: A Survey. Review of Educational Research, 44, No. 1 (Winter, 1974): 1-67.

24. Johnson, Stuart R. and Rita B. Johnson. Developing Individualized Instructional Material. Palo Alto, California: Westinghouse Learning Press, 1970.

25. Jones, Richard V. Learning Packets: An Approach to Individualized Instruction. Journal of Secondary Education, 43 (1968): 178-183.

26. Kennedy, Bruce M. Community Journalism: A Way of Life. Ames, Iowa: Iowa State University Press, 1974.

27. Klein, Frederick C. Plummeting PMs. Big Afternoon Papers Still Losing Readers: Many Factors Blamed. Wall Street Journal, May 25, 1976.

28. Kleppner, Otto. Advertising Procedure, 6th ed. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1973.

29. Knezevich, Stephen J. Administration of Public Education, 2nd ed. New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1969.

30. Mager, Robert F. Preparing Instructional Objectives. Palo Alto, California: Ferron Publishers, 1962.

31. Markle, Susan Mayer. Good Frames and Bad. A Grammar of Frame Writing. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1964.

32. Millhollan, Frank and Bill E. Forisha. From Skinner to Rogers, Contrasting Approaches to Education. Lincoln, Nebraska: Professional Educators Publications, Inc., 1972.

33. Nie, Norman H., Hadlai C. Hull, Jean G. Jenkins, Karin Steinbrinner, and Dale H. Bent. Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, 2nd ed. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1975.

34. N. W. Ayer and Son's American Newspaper Annual. Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, 1888.

35. N. W. Ayer and Son's American Newspaper Annual and Directory. Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, 1918.

36. N. W. Ayer and Son's Directory of Newspapers and Periodicals. Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, 1946.

37. N. W. Ayer and Son's Directory of Newspapers and Periodicals. Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, 1970.

38. N. W. Ayer and Son's Directory of Newspapers and Periodicals. Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, 1975.

39. Ohliger, John. The Listening Group in Adult Education. Washington, D. C.: Office of Program Planning and Evaluation (DHEW/OE), November, 1968, p. 68.

40. Packard, Vance. A Nation of Strangers. New York: David McKay Company, Inc. 1972.

41. Peterson, Theodore. Why the Mass Media are That Way. In Francis H. Voelker and Ludmila A. Voelker, (Eds.), Mass Media Forces in Our Society, 2nd ed. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc., 1975, pp. 5-20.

42. Postlethwait, Sam, et al. Audio-Tutorial Approach to Learning Through Independent Study and Integrated Experiences. Minneapolis, Minnesota: Burgess Publishing Co., 1969.

43. Read, Hadley. Communication: Methods for all Media. Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois Press, 1972.

44. Rogers, Carl R. To Facilitate Learning. Innovations for Time to Teach. Project: Time to Teach, Dept. of Classroom Teachers, National Education Association, Washington, D. C., 1966, pp. 4-19.

45. Rucker, Frank W. and Herbert Lee Williams. Newspaper Organization and Management, 3rd ed. Ames, Iowa: Iowa State University Press, 1969.

46. Schwartz, J. W., Herb Strentz, and Ken Starck. 1975 Newsroom Competencies and Staffing Study, an unpublished cooperative project of the schools and departments of journalism at Iowa State University, The State University of Iowa, Drake University and the Education Committee, Iowa Daily Press Association.

47. Serrill, Theodore A. Total Weekly Newspapers Increase $75 million to $1.8 billion During 1975. Publishers' Auxiliary, July 14, 1976.

48. Shover, William R., ed. Promoting the Total Newspaper. Washington, D.C.: International Newspaper Promotion Association, 1973.

49. Sim, John C. The Grass Roots Press. Ames, Iowa: Iowa State University Press, 1969.

50. Snedecor, George W. and William G. Cochran. Statistical Methods, 6th ed. Ames, Iowa: Iowa State University Press, 1967.

51. Stanley, Julian C. and Kenneth D. Hopkins. Educational and Psychological Measurement and Evaluation, 5th ed. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1972.

52. Stein, M. L. Reporting Today: The Newswriter's Handbook. New York: Simon and Schuster, Inc. 1971.

53. A Study of Adult Vocational Education Programs in Three Cities. Final Report. Washington, D.C.: Office of Program Planning and Evaluation (DHEW/OE), September 24, 1971.

54. Swartzwalder, Louise. Consumer Bill of Rights is Offered. Des Moines Register, May 3, 1975.

55. Talbert, Ray L. A Learning Activity Package: What is It? Educational Screen and Audicvisual Guide, 48, No. 18 (January 1968): 20-21.

56. Tien, Helen Y. Learning Variables Related to Television and Lecture Methods of Learning. Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis, Ames, Iowa, Library, Iowa State University, 1974.

57. Tinker, Miles A. Legibility of Print. Ames, Iowa: Iowa State University Press, 1963.

58. Turvold, Bruce. Personal Letter to the Author. September 16, 1974.

59. Tuttle, Ralph M. Modern Newspaper Layout and Design. Fort Benjamin Harrison, Indiana: Defense Information School, PI AJ-1, November 1973.

60. Van, Jeffery Colin, The Community Press: Health is Good. Publishers' Auxiliary, January 24, 1976.

61. Worthington, Robert M. A Home-Community Based Career Education Model. Educational Leadership, 30, No. 3 (December 1972): 213-214.

VIII. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my appreciation to the members of my committee for their efforts in this study: Professor Ray J. Bryan, major professor; Professor James W. Schwartz, thesis advisor; Professor Carl Hamilton; Professor Trevor G. Howe; and Associate Professor Milton D. Brown. I am most grateful for their encouragement and counseling.

I am not unmindful of the contributions of my good friend, Paul Kaufmann, whose timely and persistent advice eased the task. Nor would such an effort have been possible without the assistance of the nation's community press association managing directors.

Finally, no undertaking of this kind can succeed without large portions of patience and understanding from those held most dear. Thank you, Ardie.

IX. APPENDIX

September 1, 1974

Dear _____:

Seminars, short courses and other forms of continuing education programs for weekly and semi-weekly newspapers are being held to update the product and the craft in many states. In Iowa these often take the form of area seminars paneled by local newspaper personnel teamed with Iowa State Journalism and Mass Communication faculty members. The Iowa Press Association, photography groups, equipment firms and others, too, sponsor informational meetings with similar objectives.

And just as weekly and semi-weekly publishers welcome the opportunity to upgrade their newspapers, so do we want to be able to update and upgrade methods of providing them with new and better programs to get the job done.

That's the purpose of the enclosed questionnaire. We hope to get ideas from continuing education programs now being carried out in other states to do a better job here. You will be doing us a favor, and perhaps your state's press as well, if you will complete and return the questionnaire in the enclosed envelope. We'll be glad to share a compilation of the results. Just check the appropriate box and I will see that you get a copy.

Sincerely yours,

Dale E. Boyd
Press Building
Iowa State University
Ames, Iowa 50010

DEB/jw

PLEASE COMPLETE AND RETURN IN THE ENCLOSED ENVELOPE

Your Name_____

Press Ass'n_____

1. ( ) Yes Are continuing education programs for weekly and semi-weekly newspapers held in your state?
   ( ) No
2. ( ) Yes Does your association directly sponsor such programs?
   ( ) No
3. ( ) Yes Do others sponsor such programs in your state?
   ( ) No
4. Which program subjects or topics would you suggest best meet the needs of your state's weekly and semi-weekly newspaper personnel? (Check as many or as few as necessary.)

Newswriting	( )	Postal Regulations	( )
Interpretive Reporting	( )	Accounting, Bookkeeping	( )
News Photography	( )	Display Advertising	( )
News Interviewing	( )	Classified Advertising	( )
Editorial Writing	( )	Newspaper Ethics	( )
Layout and Design	( )	New Technology	( )
Headline Writing	( )	Others	
Copy Editing	( )		( )
Circulation	( )		( )
Press Law	( )		( )

5. Which THREE subjects or topics from the above list would you select as the MOST worthwhile for your state's newspapers?

_____
_____
_____

(Turn to Page 2 please)

6. Would you please list those continuing education programs you know of held in your state within the past year? (Use the back of this sheet if needed.)

Program Topic(s) or Subject(s)	Sponsor(s)	Program Time (evening, afternoon, weekend, etc.)	In What City Held?	If More Than One Day, Indicate	Who Attended? (editors, newsmen, etc.)

7. Please estimate the percentage of the weekly and semi-weekly newspapers in your state represented at ANY of the above.
   less than 25% ( ) 25-50% ( ) 50-75% ( ) over 75% ( )

8. What is the BEST single newspaper related topic presentation you've seen recently in terms of content and methods of presentation? Describe it briefly.

_____
_____
_____

9. Comments or suggestions. List any suggestions you have for bringing useful information and ideas to the nation's weekly and semi-weekly press. (Use back of this sheet if needed.)

_____
_____
_____

THANK YOU! Check here ( ) if you'd like a copy of the results.