AN EXAMINATION OF CURRICULA IN MIDDLE EASTERN JOURNALISM SCHOOLS IN LIGHT OF SUGGESTED MODEL CURRICULA

Khalaf Tahat, University of Oklahoma
Charles C Self, University of Oklahoma
Zuhair Yassin Tahat, University of Oklahoma

ABSTRACT

This study seeks to understand how journalism is taught in the Middle East. A basic questionnaire was developed to solicit such information to examine the curricula of 95 journalism programs in 13 countries of the Middle East. The study examines these curricula in hopes of developing a better understanding of the needs of journalism educators in one of the fastest growing areas of the world.

The data shows that about half of the journalism programs in the Middle East had been established within the last decade. It also finds that most of these programs were theoretically oriented with little attention to practical concepts. Internships are not a top priority at most schools. Admissions criteria are poorly articulated. Most programs do not have much interaction with media organizations or international partners.

The data confirm much of what found in the literature. Scholars in the region say too much theory and too little journalism practice is taught. The results show that there is a big gap between theoretical and practical concepts in most of Middle East journalism programs' curricula. Most of these programs are theoretical oriented and do not pay much attention to the practical concepts.

Keywords: Journalism Education, Middle East, Survey Studies.

INTRODUCTION

Journalism education opportunities at universities around the globe have expanded rapidly in the recent years, particularly in regions where opportunities have been limited in the past (UNESCO, 2013). This expansion has followed a similar expansion and shift in journalism professional practices (Fenton, 2009; Grueskin, Seave & Graves, 2011; McNair, 2008; Shirky, 2008). Scholars have called for more extensive examination of the nature of these programs in order to better understand the types of approaches being used in different countries (Deuze, 2006). This call has become more urgent as changes in curricula have been made at universities in response to changing technologies and media business practices (Bugeja, 2005; Goodman, 2007; Ocwich & Burger, 2008; Shirky, 2008)and rapidly rising enrollments for journalism programs in many countries (Deuze, 2006; Hanna & Sanders, 2007; Hume, 2007; Monteira & Rodrigues, 2009), even as resources have often remained constrained (Gross & Kenney, 2008; Huang, 2011; Tomaselli & Nothling, 2008).

Some scholars have tried to identify best practices and examine similarities and differences in programs by geographic region (Dueze, 2006; Goodman, 2007). Others have

examined how programs are changing their curricula (Bloom & Mavhungu, 2009; Tracey, Mavhungu, Du Toit & Mdlongwa, 2009). Some have suggested that our studies are too limited to understand journalistic approaches worldwide (Burger, 2007; Deuze, 2005). Hanitzsch (2005) has called for more cross-cultural mass communication research and international comparisons.

New initiatives to conduct such study have begun. One of the most important is the work of the World Journalism Education Council (Foote, 2008; Goodman, 2007; Potter, 2010), a group representing associations of university journalism educators that have been set up in different countries and regions of the world. While work to establish the WJEC began as early as 2001, the first official meeting of the council happened in Singapore in 2007 with 28 representatives from world regional journalism education associations. Three major goals were articulated at that meeting: 1) examination of key issues facing journalism educators everywhere, 2) a declaration of journalism education principles and 3) a census of university based journalism education programs around the world.

This third goal has resulted in a 5-year project guided by the Institute for Research and Training at the Gaylord College of Journalism and Mass Communication at the University of Oklahoma with funding from the Knight Foundation and the Ethics and Excellence in Journalism Foundation. The project was carried out in three phases:

The first phase sought to list every university based journalism program in the world, compiled and published basic contact information for each program. The results have been described in articles in several venues (Self, 2007; Self & Schroeder, 2011; Self & Tahat, 2013; Center for International Media Assistance, 2007; Huang, 2011; Foote, 2007; Foote, 2008; Yang, 2012) and are publically available on the Web at http://wjec.ou.edu/census.php.

The second phase sought to understand how journalism is taught in different regions of the world using the list of programs produced by the census. A basic questionnaire was developed to solicit such information. The census list was divided into sections and focused on specific issues or regions in order to build comparative data. A series of reports followed. One was a description of the project as part of a Center for International Media Assistance paper (2007). Another focused on the issue of transparency and bribery, with results published in the AEJMC's journal Mass Communication and Society (Yang, 2012). Another focused on journalism education in China. That study produced a Master of Arts thesis describing the rapid changes in journalism education in China (Huang, 2011). Two other projects have been planned to study journalism education in South Korea and in Pakistan.

This paper focuses on a project that examines journalism education in the Middle East. The project began in the summer of 2012. The first set of data from that study was presented at the Winter Meeting of AEJMC in March. That data examined "The Evolution of Journalism Education in the Middle East" (Self & Tahat, 2013) and identified some of the core issues involved. Those results are summarized below.

The second set of results from the Middle Ease study is presented in this paper. It compares the programs in the Middle East with the curriculum goals advocated by two organizations: UNESCO in its model curriculum (UNESCO, 2013) and ACEJMC in its Accreditation Standards (ACEJMC, 2013).

Study Goals

The Middle East study set out to examine the curricula of 95 journalism programs in 13 countries of the Middle East including Egypt, Syria, Lebanon, Israel, U.A.E., Jordan, Qatar, Oman, Yemen, Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, Bahrain and Iraq. The study examined these curricula in

hopes of developing a better understanding of the needs of journalism educators in one of the fastest growing areas of the world. The Middle East has seen a rapidly expanding number of programs offering some form of journalism studies for students in a region characterized by a youthful population.

The study was undertaken following evidence from the World Journalism Education Census that many countries in the region have developed new journalism study programs in hopes of preparing students to work in the rapidly developing business and media industries of the Middle East. These developments follow the expansion of media outlets such as Al Jazerra, Al-Arabiya, Al-Hurra & Al-Manar and shifting roles for many newspapers in the region (Khamis & Vaughn, 2011). Research also suggests that digital media, particularly mobile media, played a role in the rapidly shifting social and political relationships of what has been called the "Arab Spring" (Tufekci & Wilson, 2012).

Many scholars have called for expanded studies of this kind, as most research about journalism education has focused on the United States and Western Europe (Melki, 2009). Scholars have suggested a need for more studies to be conducted in Middle Eastern countries, particularly studies that will provide both quantitative and qualitative data that can be helpful in assessing the status of journalism programs in Middle Eastern Countries (El-Nawawy, 2007).

The study also responds to the "model curricula about how journalism should be taught (UNESCO, 2013; ACEJMC, 2013). Thus, it becomes important to gain an assessment of what current journalism educational practices are in the Middle East and what models journalism educators in the region are embracing.

The Middle East Context

For many years, the Middle East as a region has been ruled by nondemocratic and authoritarian regimes (Bensahel & Byman, 2004). Most Arab Spring countries rank in the lower half of the Corruptions Perceptions Index (Kujundzic, 2012).Repressive governments have controlled public expression and restricted media with limitations on press freedom and citizens' participation in civic organizations and decision making processes (Bensahel & Byman, 2004).

While the Middle East dominates the global energy market with 70% of the world's proven oil reserves (Bensahel & Byman, 2004) and produces 20% of the natural gas in the world (Ratner & Nerurkar, 2011), efforts to implement economic reform have failed to create jobs or attract investors. The youth unemployment rate is 25% in the Middle East and "Joblessness is largely a youth phenomenon" in the Middle East (International Monetary Fund, 2011).

The educational situation in the Middle East is not better. Despite the rapid growth of enrollment in primary schools in the past 20 years, a high fraction of the adult population is still illiterate (World Bank, 2008). In fact, the number of illiterates rose from 50 million in 1975 to 70 million in 2004 (Hammoud, 2005).

Studies suggest that higher education in the Arab world continues to fall short of the needs of students, employers and society at large (Wilkens, 2011).It suffers from a gap between the education supply and the labor market demand (Sawahel, 2012) and still suffers from a lack of academic freedom because of governmental restrictions and interventions (Boubatana, 1988).

Regardless of the problems in higher education; the Middle East has witnessed a rapid jump in the number of higher education institutions. While in 1940, there were ten universities in the MENA countries, by 2007 their number had reached 260, two-thirds of which were founded after the 1980s (Romani, 2009). The number of universities in the MENA had risen to 1,139 by 2010 (UNESCO, 2010).

In the last decade, expanding economic demands, marketing and public relations needs have contributed to an expansion in founding foreign and top ranking universities in the Middle East (Saleh, 2009). Political leaders have sought to change their higher education institutions from opposition to receiving knowledge to knowledge production and they aim at decreasing the gap in knowledge between West and East (Romani, 2009).

Reform of higher education in the Middle East recently has gained urgency. Nevertheless, since higher education faces numerous challenges, its prospects remain uncertain (Al Rashdan, 2008).Thus, continued economic and political decline may erode public confidence (Bensahel & Byman, 2004).

Into this environment, the citizens of many of these countries have precipitated the reform efforts known as the Arab Spring. The term "Arab Spring" refers to the huge uprisings that swept across most counties in the Middle East at the end of 2010. Ordinary people succeeded in toppling four regimes that had spent decades in power (Game III, 2011; Inbar, 2012; Freedom House Report, 2012; Dakacoura, 2012).Institutional media and new media played a key role in the critical developments across the Middle East (Cottle, 2011). The role of media suggests the importance of journalism education.

Journalism Programs in the Middle East

The first academic teaching of journalism and mass communication in the Middle East began at the American University in Cairo in 1935 (Abu Baker, Labib & Kandil, 1985; Amin, 2012). More than 30 years later, five other journalism programs were established in Tunis, Sudan, Algeria, Iraq and Lebanon (Abu Baker, Labib & Kandil, 1985). However, in the 1980s, the growing numbers of journalism programs escalated and expanded. Lebanon, Egypt, Jordan, Morocco, Saudi Arabia, Qatar, Libya and the United Arab Emirates all (UAE) established similar journalism programs (Abu Baker, Labib & Kandil, 1985).

Over the last several years, the Middle East has witnessed a massive expansion and rapid strides in different media industries which has opened new opportunities (Saleh, 2009) and placed journalism education on the "front lines" (Melki, 2009). As a result, the number and quality of journalism programs have sharply increased (Martin, 2010).

In fact, many researchers, official reports and academic studies have highlighted the need for understanding the basic problems that face higher education in general and journalism programs in particular in the Middle East (British Council, 2005; UNESCO, 2007; El-Nawawy, 2007). Before the advent of private journalism programs, which has increased the competition and enhanced the quality of journalism education (Amin, 2012), most of journalism schools in the Middle East were controlled by governments and operated within in a harsh political situation (Saleh, 2010; Amin, 2012). They were not allowed to criticize local governments; their main goal was to prepare journalism students to promote the states' accomplishments (Amin, 2002; ADHR, 2003; Amin, 2012).

In 1995, efforts succeeded in establishing the Arab-US Association for Communication Educators (AUSACE) "http://www2.gsu.edu/~wwwaus/). This organization is dedicated to the advancement of Arab-U.S. relations among communication educators and media professionals (AUSACE, 2012). AUSACE have "witnessed growing cooperation among hundreds of educators, students and others with a steady focus on the development of journalism education and media studies" (Teel, 2007). Other attempts to address journalism curricula in the Middle East were launched in the last decade by Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) such as the British Council (2005) & UNESCO (2007).

Scholars have increasingly shown interest in non-Western countries (Melki, 2009). In fact, a small number of studies have focused on journalism education in specific countries in the Middle East including a large number about Egypt (Kamel & Albbasi, 1997; Nassar, 1999; El-Nawawy, 2007; Hamdy & Auter, 2008; Saleh, 2010; Amin, 2012). Egypt has pioneered programs in journalism and its schools have been the strongest and most reputable journalism programs, particular Cairo University, Al Azhar University and the American University (Pehowski, 1981; Amin, 2012), alongside Israel's Hebrew University (Pehowski, 1981). At the same time, very few studies have been done about journalism education in other Middle East countries such as Oman (O'rourke, 2011), United Arab Emirates (Yunis & Picherit-Duthler, 2011; Lebanon & Melki, 2009). None have comprehensively examined journalism education for all Middle Eastern countries. Scholars from different parts of the world have called for more research (Morgan, 2003; Reese & Cohen, 2003) assessing the status of journalism programs in the Middle East counties (El-Nawawy, 2007).

These scholars have identified four key issues, curriculum, faculty qualifications, industry partnerships for work experience and student support services.

FOUR CORE ISSUES

Curriculum

Many scholars have argued that most curricula in journalism schools in the public journalism programs in the Middle East focus on theory more than practice. They have called for a better balance between those two parts to provide the basic skills to prepare students for their professional careers and for a focus on critical thinking (Kamel & Abbasi, 1997; Nassar, 1999; El-Nawawy, 2007; Sahleh, 2010; Amin, 2012). Dealing with skills versus concepts in curricula is a challenge facing journalism educators and practitioners throughout the world (Shawna, 2003). On the other hand, in the private universities, the main problem of journalism education is that "its core curricula show a distinctive Western structure without any adaptations" (Sahleh, 2010). Hamdy & Auter (2008) pointed out that many private and public journalism programs in Egypt (e.g., Cairo University and the American University) have begun to adapt curricula to meet media industry changes (p. 8); however, Egyptian educators realized that they may not always have the freedom to change or modify curricula for different reasons including administration, faculty resistance and confusion over industry directions (p. 36).

Except for the journalism program of the American University in Cairo, which is grounded in the liberal arts, the curricula of the rest of the journalism programs of the Egyptian schools offer the same curricula, which focuses largely on theory (Amin, 2012).

Surveys of faculty, practitioners and students from journalism departments in Egypt found that the number of theoretical courses taught at most journalism programs in Egypt far exceeded that of the practical courses (Kamel & Albbasi, 1997). While faculty in journalism schools called for balance between the theory and practice courses, journalism students said that these theoretical courses were not beneficial because they did not prepare them for a professional career (Kamel & Albbasi, 1997).

El-Nawawy found that the gap is increasing between journalism theory classes and practice classes and between journalism education and professionalism in Jordan and Egypt (El-Nawawy, 2007). El-Nawawy said journalism educators emphasized theoretical courses while practitioners emphasized journalism skills courses (El-Nawawy, 2007).

In Lebanon Melki (2009) found three practical programs in Lebanese journalism schools: one, liberal "focusing on theory and research"; second, a liberal-professional program "balancing theory and skills"; and third that had the most skills-focused approach (p. 680).

On the other hand, Yunis & Picherit-Duthler (2011) argued that visual communication education has grown quickly in the UAE. They said these professional programs in visual communication and "film and video production" aim to prepare students to be directors and producers.

Finally, Saleh (2010) criticized the quality of the curricula taught in Egyptian journalism programs after the government transferred it into the public relations curriculum (p. 116). He said this type of journalism education had become an "instrument of political patronage" (p. 125).

Faculty

Several studies in the region have criticized the absence of criteria for how faculty members get their positions and a shortage of instructors in these programs (Kamel & Alabbasi, 1997; El-Nawaway, 2007; Saleh, 2010; Amin, 2012).

El-Nawawy (2007) has argued that journalism faculty members should have: "extensive professional journalistic experience; doctorate degree in journalism or communication; and publications in peer-reviewed academic journals" (p.83). However, Kamel & Alabbasi (1997) found that many journalism programs in Egypt depend on professional journalists to teach student skills courses on a part time basis.

Other studies say faculty face problems that hinder efforts to develop the education process. For example, British Council (2005) found that an overwhelming majority of respondents pointed out problems of "nepotism." Other problems included no career guidance, skills premium/technical skills, mismatched jobs, language issues and quality of education. At the same time, Ederveen, De Groot & Nahius (2003) agued the core illness that faces faculty in Egyptian journalism programs include a lack of media ethics (54%), cultural problems (17%), absence of premium skills (12.5%) and language problems (8%).

Melki (2009) argued that a faculty shortage is one of the most pressing problems in Lebanese schools. He said all participants in his study agreed there was a strong and urgent need for qualified journalism faculty and scholars and for research resources (p. 686).

Recently, Saleh (2010) has criticized the way journalism faculty is recruited in the Egyptian journalism programs. Except for the American University in Cairo, he noted, most faculty are selected through connections, with no professional standards for selection (p.127). Saleh also faulted faculty working conditions. He argued that faculty members in journalism programs in Egypt have overload hours weekly, leaving little time for preparation and no time for research (p.128). At the same time, Amin (2012) indicated that rural journalism programs in Egypt suffer from the lack of quality instructors.

Finally, Amin (2012) said that research in journalism education is undeveloped with limited publications. Journals are in English rather than in Arabic and poor budgets restrict faculty from traveling to present their papers in international conferences.

Professional Partnerships, Internships and Work Experience

Many journalism educators in the Middle East believe in the importance of internships and laboratory experience for their students. They have developed internships as either optional or required components of the curricula (El-Nawawy, 2007; Amin, 2012). Still, most schools

have a shortage of internship opportunities to give their students (Amin, 2012). Most journalism programs do not offer training courses and internships are not priority (Kamel & Alabbasi, 1997; Mousa, 1998; El-Nawawy, 2007). Journalism programs in Egypt lack preparation with required skills (Kamel & Alabbasi, 1997). Some scholars suggest that students should be provided intensive training sessions in specialized training institutes or "professional institutes" (Mousa, 1998). Kamel & Alabbasi (1997) emphasized the need for collaboration between journalism programs and news media organizations. Most respondents in the Kamel & Alabbasi study mentioned four main problems that impeded cooperation between journalism programs and news organizations: "lack of enthusiasm on the part of newspapers' administrators; inefficiency of the journalism departments' assessment of their students' training; lack of enthusiasm on the part of the students; and the conflict between the students' course scheduling and the practical training requirements" (p.49).

Saleh (2010) pointed out that journalism programs in Egypt face a shortage of funding for vocational training and journalism research that makes it difficult for media outlets to hire qualified and professionally trained journalists (p.128). Amin (2012) said a shortage of funding and trained production staff meant little practical training.

On the other hand, most journalism programs in Lebanese universities required internships. According to Melki (2009), 12 of 14 journalism programs required an internship for an undergraduate degree (p. 680).

Student Support Issues

Few studies have addressed students' issues such as vague admission criteria, the selection process of students, the unbalanced ratio between students to the number of faculty and other required skills that should be available in students of journalism.

Melki (2009) noted that the number of students enrolled in journalism programs grew in the last six years (2001-2007) and they made up around 2.5% of the total body of universities' students.

Saleh (2010) criticized how students were chosen for journalism programs in the Egyptian universities. He argued that testing talent should be the main criteria for applicants' selection (p.128). Amin (2012) argued that the student-faculty ratio is one of the greatest problems facing journalism programs in Egypt.

Amin (2012) suggested revising the procedure for admissions by focusing on the quality of the admitted students and improving English language instruction in secondary schools and enhancing critical thinking inside the classroom.

O'rourke (2011) reported that a lack of English language skills caused Omani students to avoid joining journalism departments in private universities.

CORE RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In phase I of the study the goal was to identify all university-affiliated programs that teach journalism.

In phase II of the study, we set out to use the census to focus on journalism curricula, faculty, students and sources of funding, scholarships, internships and international cooperation by collecting data from 95 journalism programs in 13 countries including: Egypt, Syria, Lebanon, U.A.E, Jordan, Qatar, Oman, Yemen, Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, Bahrain and Iraq.

A questionnaire was sent by email to deans and heads of journalism programs including six sent to Israeli journalism schools. None of the Israeli schools responded. Thus, the total population of this study was 89 journalism programs in 12 Middle East countries.

In this phase, the study posed these basic questions:

RQ1:   *What is the nature of the curriculum provided at journalism programs in the Middle East?*

RQ2:   *What is the nature of experience that faculty members have for teaching journalism?*

RQ3:   *To what extent do journalism programs offer internships and training courses for their students?*

RQ4:   *Is the ratio of students adequate to the number of faculty in these programs?*

RQ5:   *What are the main financial sources for these programs?*

RQ6:   *To what degree do these programs have international partnerships?*

RQ7:   *To what degree do these programs offer the opportunities for their students to work for an online media website?*

METHODS

The study used a survey method aimed at examining all programs in the Middle East identified as part of the World Journalism Education's worldwide census of journalism programs. This survey sought to confirm whether the programs are focused more on theory than practice, as has been suggested. Scholars have called for changes in the balance between theory and practice and a greater focus on critical thinking (Nassar, 1999; El-Nawawy, 2007; Sahleh, 2010; Amion, 2012). It also asked questions about faculty qualifications, professional experience and research interests. Scholars have suggested that little research had been done on these issues in the Middle East (El-Nawaway, 2007; Saleh, 2010; Amin, 2012). It also asked about admission criteria, the selection process for students, the ratio between students and faculty and perceptions of additional skills missing from the curriculum, as urged by previous studies (Melki, 2009; Saleh, 2010). The surveys were administered by telephone and email.

A survey methodology was used because, as Wimmer & Dominick (2006) have pointed out they "are not constrained by geographic boundaries; they can be conducted almost anywhere" (p.180). The questionnaire (see Appendix A) used in the study was adapted from an earlier instrument that had also been used in a study of journalism education in China (Huang, 2011).

Sample

The study aimed to conduct a census of those programs that offer journalism programs in 13 Middle Eastern counties including: Egypt, Jordan, Israel, Syria, Yemen, Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, Qatar, Iraq, UAE, Oman, Bahrain and Lebanon. The total number of journalism programs identified in these countries was 95, which makes up the study's target population. However, schools in only 12 countries responded (see Table 1). The list was drawn from World Journalism Education Counsel's website (WJEC) (http://wjec.ou.edu/), where all data, access and contact information about the programs are available. Other countries in the Middle East were excluded because of lack of time and some journalism programs are in non Arabic languages including Pakistan, Turkey, Afghanistan, Morocco, Sudan, Iran, Libya, Algeria, Tunis, Mauritania,

Djibouti and Somalia. The programs were asked to respond during a period from May 15 to August 15, 2012. This period coincides with the end of spring and beginning of summer classes in the most of the Middle East universities, which gave an ample time to contact people in charge in these programs.

Number	Country	Total Programs Responding	Number Completing Questionnaire	Percent of Total Respondents
1	Egypt	24	13	20%
2	Syria	3	3	4.6%
3	Iraq	6	6	9.2%
4	Jordan	7	6	9.2%
5	Lebanon	14	9	13.8%
6	Saudi Arabia	7	7	10.8%
7	Qatar	2	2	3.1%
8	Oman	4	4	6.2%
9	Kuwait	3	3	4.6%
10	Yemen	3	3	4.6%
11	UAE	11	4	6.2%
12	Bahrain	5	5	7.7%
Total	12	89*	65	100%

Table 1
LIST OF THE JOURNALISM PROGRAMS THAT PARTICIPATED

*This number does not include 6 Israeli journalism programs that did not respond.

A primary email both in Arabic and English was sent to all deans and heads of journalism programs in the Middle East. The email included an overview about the study, its importance and its main goals. Respondents were asked to take part in the study by providing the needed information about their programs. When they agreed to take part in the study, the researchers gave them the option to complete the survey by telephone interview or by email.

Instrument Design

The questionnaire of the study was divided into ten sections. Frequencies and percentages were used to answer the research questions.

1. Section one focused on numbers of students, faculty and staff in the program.
2. Section two focused on curriculum. It asked for numbers of classes that taught theoretical concepts, technical equipment instruction, or practical skills instruction in the curriculum. The question used an interval scale with three points: number 1 meant less stress, 2 meant some stress and 3 meant extensive stress.
3. Section three focused on instruction, facilities and internships. An interval scale with three points was used: 1 meant the least extensive instruction, 2 meant more extensive and 3 meant the most extensive.
4. Section four aimed to identify the sources of funding. This variable included: government funding, tuition funding, other fee cost funding, private support funding and other sources of funding. An interval scale with three points was developed to measure this variable. The number 1 meant the lowest level of funding, 2 meant greater funding and 3 meant the highest level of funding.
5. Section five focused on international partnerships. If aimed to discover the types of partnerships, these programs had with foreign universities. Respondents were asked to list the numbers of these programs and the name of the countries with which they had partnerships.
6. Section six examined scholarships and other financial aid for students received at the undergraduate level and graduate level. Participants were asked to list the percent of the students in their programs who received such financial aid.

7. Section seven was concerned with faculty and their media experience. Respondents were asked to list the percent of faculty members who had media experience.
8. Section eight asked about partnerships with international organizations: 1) the name/names of the Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) with which the program had cooperation and 2) what type of cooperation they had with these NGOs (training, funding, support in establishing media structures and other types of cooperation.)
9. Section nine asked if these programs provided students with an opportunity to work for an online media website. It also asked whether these schools had their own website to give their students this experience.

Finally, demographic data was collected including date of establishment, structure of the program (independent college within university or department belonging to another college), level of the degrees offered (undergraduate degree, graduate degree, doctoral degree and other degrees) and subjects taught in the program (print journalism, broadcast journalism, advertising studies, public relation studies, general mass communication and other subjects).

Data Analysis

Frequencies were run for all variables. Frequencies and percentages were used to describe the findings.

RESULTS FROM PHASE II

The response rate for the questionnaire was 73 percent, i.e., 65 programs of the 89programs responding actually completed the questionnaire.

Program Characteristics

Just under half of journalism programs in the this study (n=30, 46%) were established in the years between 2000-2012, about a fifth of them (n=13, 20%) were started in the 90s and fewer than a fifth of them (n=11, 17%) were began in the 80s, more than a tenth of them (n=9, 14%) were established between 1951-1979 and very few programs (n=2, 3%) were launched between 1930-1950.

Most journalism programs in the study (n=45, 69%) were departments belonging to other colleges, whereas roughly the third of the programs (n=20, 31%) were independent college within universities.

The overwhelming majority (n=63, 97%) offered undergraduate degrees (B.A.) while fewer than half (n=26, 40%) provided graduate program degrees (M.A.) and even fewer (n=5.8%) granted doctoral degrees (Ph.D.). A very few (n=2.3%) offered technical degrees.

Most programs in this sample (n=54, 83%) teach print journalism in their programs; 71% (n=46) teach broadcast journalism; 66% (n=44) public relations; 35% (n=23) advertising; a quarter of them (n=16) teach general mass communication; and a very few teach new media subjects (n=10, 16%) such as multimedia, electronic media, journalism translation, visual communication and graphic design.

These programs do not have strong cooperation with NGOs (e.g. USAID, UNESCO, IREX, etc.). Less than quarter (n=16, 24.6%) said they had this kind of cooperation. They said the cooperation was mostly focused on support for establishing media structure (n=11, 20%), some (n=4.6%) for training and only one (n=1.2%) for funding.

Theoretical and Practical Gap: RQ 1 asked about the nature of the curriculum. Just under half of the programs (n=29, 45%) reported an extensive focus on theoretical concepts in their curricula (M=2.43), just over quarter of them (n=17, 26%) reported an extensive focus on practical skills (M=2.2) and few of them (n=11, 17%) reported extensive technical equipment instruction (M=1.98). Consistent with previous research (Kamel & Abbasi, 1997; Nassar, 1999; El-Nawawy, 2007; Sahleh, 2010; Amin, 2012), the study indicated that curricula in journalism schools in the ME focus on theory more than practice. Despite this finding, the data also show that there is a serious attempt to decrease the gap between theory and practice. The data revealed that almost half of these programs try to balance between theoretical, technical and practical concepts in their curricula. For example, 53 programs (54%) stress that they include "some" theoretical concepts, 42 programs (65%) stress that they include "some" technical equipment and 44 programs (67%) stress that they include "some" practical skills instruction in their curricula.

Faculty Media Experience: RQ 2 sought to know the nature of the professional experience of the faculty members have who teach journalism. Generally, the data show that more than a third (M=37.34, SD=27.4) of faculty members in journalism education in the Middle East have at least two years media experience. However, the data also indicated that in about two thirds (n=43, 66%) of these programs, 45% of faculty members have media experience of less than two years, According to the collected data, eight programs (12%) reported that 30% of faculty members have media experience; another 8 programs (12%) report that 10% of faculty members have media experience; another 7 (11%) programs report that 20% of faculty members have media experience; and 5 programs (8%) report that 5% of faculty members have media experience.

Internship and Training: RQ 3 inquired about facilities and about internships. The majority of programs (n=34, 60%) do not provide internship experience to their students. At the same time, more than a quarter (n=17, 26%) offer "some" internship experience and less than a quarter (n=9, 14%) offer "extensive" internship experience. The result of this study is consistent with previous studies (Kamel & Alabbasi, 1997; Mousa, 1998; El-Nawawy, 2007; Amin, 2012). The data suggest that journalism programs in the Middle East have a shortage of internships to offer their students.

Student-Faculty Ratio: RQ 4 asked about the ratio of the number of students to faculty in the program. In this study, the ratio of students is 12 times that of faculty members. Data indicated that there are 13,185 students (M=202.846, SD=146.837) and 1,111 faculty members (M=17.09, SD=15.100). Surprisingly, this result is inconsistent with previous discussion (Melki, 2009; Saleh, 2010; Amin, 2012) as it suggests that for the most part there is no problem with the number of students in journalism programs compared to the number of faculty members in the same schools.

Financial Funding: RQ 5 sought to identify the main financial sources for these programs. More half of these programs (n=38, 58%, M=2.31) get their funds extensively from governments; less than a quarter (n=15, 23%, M=1.754) depend extensively on tuition; few (n=7, 10%, M=1.523) rely extensively on private support and very few (n=4, 6%, M=1.431) get their funding from other fee costs. Most of the journalism programs belong to universities managed by governments. The literature had suggested that it is not uncommon for the government to

intervene in appointing the deans of colleges and heads of departments and to provide these programs with resources sufficient to ensure these programs will remain under their control.

International Partnerships: RQ 6 asked about the number of international partnerships. There is a deficit in building partner ships between journalism programs in the Middle East and other international programs. The data showed that the majority of journalism programs (n=46, 71%) did not have any faculty exchange program and only 14% (n=9) had two faculty exchange programs. Furthermore, the majority (n=45, 70%) of these schools did not have any student exchange programs; only 6 schools (9%) had two student exchange programs and the same number (n=6, 9%) had three student exchange programs. A majority of the journalism schools (n=53, 82%) did not have any student abroad programs.

Online Opportunities: RQ 7 asked about the degree to which these programs offer any opportunity for their students to work for an online media website. The data showed that fewer than half of these programs (n=31, 48%) offer the opportunity to their students to work for an online media website. Less than a third of these programs (n=20, 31%) have their own media websites to give students online experience. Most journalism programs that belong to foreign universities reported that they had created websites and give their students the opportunity to work for online media. Those programs that belong to the public and are government-run universities do not do this.

MODEL CURRICULA

These findings suggested a need to look further into curricular issues and how these programs compare with international recommendations about curricula. To do this we decided to compare the curricula from a sample of these schools with two "model curricula" recommended for programs around the globe.

The first of these "model curricula" is the UNESCO "model curricula for journalism education" publicly announced during the first World Journalism Education Congress in Singapore in 2007. UNESCO announced at the 2013 WEJC meeting in Mechelen, Belgium, that schools in 70 countries had adopted the model (UNESCO, 2013).

The second 'model curriculum" is the ACEJMC accreditation standards curricula as revised in 2008 and used by some international consultants to promote improvements in journalism education around the world. The ACEJMC Standards are widely used in the United States and have been adopted or aspired to by many schools.

UNESCO's model curriculum (UNESCO, 2013; Burger, 2008) argues that:

> *"A journalism education should teach students how to identify news and recognize the story in a complex field of fact and opinion, how to conduct journalistic research and how to write for, illustrate, edit and produce material for various media formats (newspapers and magazines, radio and television and online and multimedia operations) and for their particular audiences….It should teach them how to cover political and social issues of particular importance to their own society…." (UNESCO 2007, p. 6).*

The model envisions three "curricular axis or lines of development:" (UNESCO, 2007).

1. An axis comprising the norms, values tools, standards and practices of journalism;
2. An axis emphasizing the social, cultural, political, economic, legal and ethical aspects of journalism practice both within and outside the national borders; and
3. An axis comprising knowledge of the world and journalism's intellectual challenges.

The model suggests that education about the first axis (professional practice) should make up roughly 40 percent of the curriculum; education about the second axis (journalism studies) should make up roughly 10 percent of the curriculum; and education about the third axis (arts and sciences) should make up roughly 50 percent of the curriculum. It places a further emphasis upon writing and reporting skills and content and intellectual development for the student. It also emphasizes a supervised and evaluated media placement experience such as an internship or work experience and urges partnerships with media organizations to give both students and faculty direct experience with journalism as it is practiced.

The UNESCO model has been tested in Iraq to mixed results and recommendations for modification (Pavlik, Laufer, Burns & Ataya, 2012). It has been called "balanced" (Singh, 2008) and criticized as "ambitious in theory but unlikely in practice" (Freedman & Shafer, 2010). UNESCO published a "compendium" of syllabi and some modifications of the model in 2013 in response to critiques of the original work and suggested wider application of the model beyond the "developing world, as had been suggested in the original. However, the thrust of the model remains the same (UNESCO, 2013).

The Accrediting Council for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication (ACEJMC) has its own set of standards for journalism education. Those standards have changed over the years and also were recently modified lowering by the number of hours required outside the JMC program. The Standards require core knowledge and competencies and 12 specific skill sets. The model acknowledges that graduates should "understand and apply the principles and laws of freedom of speech and press for the country in which the institution that invites ACEJMC is located…." (p. 2) it specifies five indicators of success for programs:

1. A minimum of 72 semester credit hours outside of the unit
2. A balance among theoretical and conceptual courses, professional skills courses and courses that integrate theory and skills
3. Instruction, whether on-site or online, that is demanding, current and responsive to professional expectations of digital, technological and multimedia competencies.
4. Student-faculty classroom ratios that facilitate effective teaching and learning including a ratio in skills and laboratory sections that should not exceed 20-1.
5. Opportunities for internship and other professional experiences outside the classroom that is supervised and evaluated.

Of course, the Standards also require levels of performance in governance, diversity, faculty qualifications, scholarship, student services, facilities and equipment, professional services and assessment of outcomes.

Phase III Methods

In order to understand how the Middle Eastern Journalism Programs were doing compared with these model curricula, we selected 13 schools from the 65 that completed the questionnaire for a more detailed examination of their curriculum. The schools were selected as a convenience sample because they are leading schools in their countries and because they post their curricula online. We examined each class and the description of the content of the class and compared those descriptions with the goals for the model curricula using the descriptions published in their literature. We grouped the classes as 1) Concept/Theory/Journalism Studies classes, 2) Practice/Professional classes or 3) Outside/Liberal Arts classes. Here are the definitions we derived from the UNESCO model to describe these groups. We used these

definitions to sort the classes taught in the Middle East schools into the groups as defined by the model curricula:

Concept/Theory/Journalism Studies Classes: The coursework elucidates the institutional and societal contexts within which journalists function and connects the practice of journalism to related human activities. Such studies strengthen professional identity, values and goals through an understanding of democratic functions and legal and moral constraints (e.g. Media law, journalism ethics, Media and society and international journalism).

Practice/Professional Classes: The coursework prepares students to report, write and edit for the various media. It represents the core of any program designed to prepare students for careers in journalism. It should be noted, however, that the professional skills of journalism involve methods of knowing and thinking as well as recording and representing (e.g., reporting and writing, magazine design and opinion writing).

Outside/Arts and Sciences Classes: The coursework exposes students to modern knowledge. In this respect, journalism is not a stand-alone discipline. It should be combined with education in the disciplines of arts and sciences (e.g. Psychology, sociology, political science, economy, history, etc.). We compared data about the percentages of classes actually taught in each category by the 13 schools with the recommended percentages of classes in each category in the models. Table 2 shows the 13 schools with their percentages listed for comparison with the UNESCO model and with the ACEJMC model. An examination of the percentages quickly shows that most of the universities offer higher percentages of Concept/Theory/Journalism Studies classes than the UNESCO model suggests; lower percentages of Practice/Professional classes; and mostly lower percentages of Outside/Arts and Sciences classes.

Table 2
DISTRIBUTION OF CLASSES BY TYPE COMPARED WITH UNESCO AND ACEJMC MODEL RECOMMENDATIONS

	UNESCO Model				
#	Name of University	Total #credits	Journalism studies (10%)	Professional (40%)	Arts and Sciences (50%)
1	American University of Sharjah	124	27 (21%)	18 (15%)	79 (64%)
2	Abu Dhabi University	120	48 (40%)	27 (23%)	45 (37%)
3	Qatar University	126	18 (14%)	39 (31%)	69 (55%)
4	University of Petra Jordan	132	49 (37%)	30 (23%)	51(40%)
5	KING SAUD UNIVERSITY	128	57 (45%)	22 (17%)	49 (38%)
6	Beirut Arab University	120	54 (45%)	35 (29%)	31(26%)
7	University of Bahrain	126	19 (15%)	82 (65%)	25(20%)
8	Ahlia University/Bahrain	132	51 (39%)	30 (22%)	51(39%)
9	Umm Al-Qura Uni/ Saudi	130	42 (32%)	12(9%)	76(59%)
10	Taibah University/Saudi	128	33 (26%)	50 (39%)	45 (35%)
11	Sohag University/Egypt	215	112 (51%)	52(24%)	51(23%)
12	Assiut University/Egypt	183	85(46%)	40(22%)	58(32%)
13	Bayan College/Oman	123	39 (32%)	48 (39%)	36 (29%)
	Totals	**1,787**	**634 (36%)**	**584 (27%)**	**668 (37%)**
	ACEJMC Model				
#	Name of University	Total	Concept/Theory=Balance	Practice=Balance	Outside

		#credits	(25%)	(15%)	72 (60%)
1	American University of Sharjah	124	33(27%)	18 (15%)	73 (58%)
2	Abu Dhabi University	120	48 (40%)	27(23%)	45 (37%)
3	Qatar University	126	7 (5%)	39 (31%)	80 (64%)
4	University of Petra Jordan	132	49 (37%)	30 (23%)	53 (40%)
5	KING SAUD UNIVERSITY	128	57 (45%)	22 (17%)	49 (38%)
6	Beirut Arab University	120	54 (45%)	35 (29%)	31(26%)
7	University of Bahrain	126	19 (15%)	82 (65%)	25(20%)
8	Ahlia University/Bahrain	132	51 (39%)	30 (22%)	51(39%)
9	Umm Al-Qura Uni/Saudi	130	42 (32%)	12(9%)	76(59%)
10	Taibah University/Saudi	128	33 (26%)	50 (39%)	45 (35%)
11	Sohag University/Egypt	215	112 (51%)	52(24%)	51 (23%)
12	Assiut University/Egypt	183	85(46%)	40(22%)	58 (32%)
13	Bayan College/Oman	123	39 (32%)	48 (39%)	36 (29%)
	Totals	**1,787**	**634 (36%)**	**584 (27%)**	**668 (37%)**

At the same time, an examination of the percentages for the 13 schools listed for comparison with the ACEJMC model shows a slightly different, yet strikingly similar pattern. While these percentages are closer to the model, these universities on average offer higher percentages of Concept/Theory/Journalism Studies classes than the ACEJMC model recommends, higher percentages of Practice/Professional classes than the ACEJMC model recommends and lower percentages of Outside/Liberal Arts classes than the model recommends.

Table 3 makes the pattern a bit clearer. It calculates the total number of credit hours required by these 13 schools. That total is 1,787 credits for students to graduate. Of those, 634 or 36 percent of the classes required are Concept/Theory/Journalism Studies classes. This is higher than the recommended distribution for both the UNESCO model (10 percent) and the ACEJMC model (25%). In addition, 584 credits or 27 percent of the required classes are Practice/Professional classes. This falls lower than the UNESCO recommendation (40%) and higher than the AEJMC recommendation (15%). Finally, 688 of the credits or 37% are classes outside the journalism program, primarily in Arts and Sciences. This is lower than the recommended levels of both UNESCO (50%) and ACEJMC (60%).

Table 3 COMPARISON TOTALS WITH MODEL CURRICULA					
UNESCO Model					
#	Recommended	Total # Credits	Journalism studies (10%)	Professional (40%)	Arts and Sciences (50%)
ACEJMC Model					
#	Recommended	Total # Credits	Concept/Theory =Balance (25%)	Practice =Balance (15%)	Outside 72 (60%)
Middle East Average					
	Totals Actual	1787	634 (36%)	584 (27%)	668 (37%)

Another method to see this is to examine the distribution "drift" from the recommendations for each of the two models. We looked at the departure of each percentage from the recommended allocation and ranked it "high," "fit," or "low".

To do this, we assumed that if the number of credit hours offered was within six semester hours, or about five percent, of the levels recommended, we would code it as a "fit" for the model. So, if the percentage fell within 10 percent of the recommended level, we coded it a neutral, "zero." If it were five percent above the recommended percentage, we coded it as "high"

and assigned it a "plus" sign. If it were five percent below, we coded it as "low" and assigned it a "minus" sign.

Table 4
DISTRIBUTION BY FIT-UNESCO COMPARISON

			UNESCO Model		
#	Name of University	Total # credits	Journalism studies (10%)	Professional (40%)	Arts and Sciences (50%)
1	American University of Sharjah	124	+	−	0
2	Abu Dhabi University	120	+	−	−
3	Qatar University	126	0	−	0
4	University of Petra /Jordan	132	+	−	−
5	KING SAUD UNIVERSITY	128	+	−	−
6	Beirut Arab University	120	+	−	−
7	University of Bahrain	126	0	+	−
8	Ahlia University/Bahrain	132	+	−	−
9	Umm Al-Qura Uni/Saudi	130	+	−	+
10	Taibah University/Saudi	128	+	0	−
11	Sohag University/Egypt	215	+	−	−
12	Assiut University/Egypt	183	+	−	−
13	Bayan College/Oman	123	+	0	−
			11-+; 2-0; 0-−	1-+; 2-0; 10-−	1-+; 2-0; 10-−

Table 4 shows how the data looked for the UNESCO model when examined in this way. Most of the schools had a "plus" sign for concept/theory/journalism studies category. Most schools had a "minus" sign in the Practice/Professional category. Most schools also had a "minus" sign for the Outside/Arts & Sciences category. Concept/Theory/Journalism Studies instruction is much higher than the recommended levels for the UNESCO Model Curriculum. The other two categories are much lower than the recommended levels for the model.

Table 5
DISTRIBUTION BY FIT-ACEJMC COMPARISON

			AEJMC Model		
#	Name of University	Total # credits	Concept=Balance (25%)	Practice=Balance (15%)	Outside72 (60%)
1	American Uni. of Sharjah	124	0	0	0
2	Abu Dhabi University	120	+	+	−
3	Qatar University	126	−	+	0
4	University of Petra /Jordan	132	+	+	−
5	KING SAUD UNIVERSITY	128	+	0	−
6	Beirut Arab University	120	+	+	−
7	University of Bahrain	126	−	+	−
8	Ahlia University/Bahrain	132	+	+	−
9	Umm Al-Qura Uni./Saudi	130	+	−	0
10	Taibah University/Saudi	128	0	+	−
11	Sohag University/Egypt	215	+	+	−
12	Assiut University/Egypt	183	+	+	−
13	Bayan College/Oman	123	+	+	−
			9-+; 2-0; 3-−	10-+; 2-0; 0-−	0-+; 3-0; 10-−

Table 5 shows how the data looked for the ACEJMC model. Both the Concept/Theory/Journalism Studies category AND the Practice/Professional category have

mostly "plus" signs while the Outside/Arts and Sciences category has mostly "minus" signs. Both the Theory AND the Practice class categories are mostly higher than the ACEJMC model recommends. The Outside class category is mostly LOWER than ACEJMC recommends.

Table 6
DISTRIBUTION OF FIT TOTALS COMPARED WITH UNESCO AND ACEJMC MODEL RECOMMENDATIONS

UNESCO Model					
#	Recommended	Total # Credits	Journalism studies (10%)	Professional (40%)	Arts and Sciences (50%)
			11-+; 2-0; 0-−	1-+; 2-0; 10-−	1-+; 2-0; 10-−
ACEJMC Model					
#	Recommended	Total # Credits	Concept =Balance (25%)	Practice =Balance (15%)	Outside 72 (60%)
			9-+; 2-0; 3-−	10-+; 2-0; 0-−	0-+; 3-0; 10-−

Finally, Table 6 shows the same data presented as a direct comparison with both models. Here the contrast in the patterns is clear. Most schools require larger numbers of Concept/Theory/Journalism Studies classes than either UNESCO or ACEJMC recommend. Most schools offer lower numbers of Outside/Arts and Sciences classes than both UNESCO and ACEJMC recommend. However, in a surprising twist, most of these top Middle Eastern schools offer more Practice/Professional classes than we might have expected from reading the literature. Ten programs offered lower numbers of Professional classes than UNESCO's recommended levels of classes. BUT, ten of the programs offered higher numbers of Practice classes than ACEJMC's recommended levels of such classes. This suggests that, at least among these top programs in the Middle East, significant progress has been made in increasing instruction for actually practicing journalism. These programs seem to have increased the numbers of practical reporting, writing and editing classes they offer.

CONCLUSIONS

So, what do we make of this data?

The data showed that about half of the journalism programs in the Middle East had been established within the last decade. It also found that most of these programs were theoretically oriented with little attention to practical concepts. Internships were not a top priority at most schools. Admissions criteria were poorly articulated. Most programs did not have much interaction with media organizations or international partners.

The data from both phases offer more detailed information about the curricula.

Keep in mind what is obviously a cautionary tale: Both UNESCO and ACEJMC offer flexibility in their models. The percentages, in UNESCO's core document and in the latest version of the ACEJMC standards, represent inferences and interpretations that are subject to adaptation to local circumstances. Second, the classification of classes into these categories is based on posted class descriptions. More detailed information from course syllabi could produce changes in how the classes should be classified.

Still, the data confirm much of what we found in the literature.

First

Scholars in the region say *too much theory* and too little journalism *practice* is taught. We did find an emphasis on Concept/Theory/Journalism Studies classes. There is a big gap between theoretical and practical concepts in most the Middle East journalism programs' curricula. Most these programs are theoretical oriented and did not pay much attention to the practical concepts.

Second

Scholars in the region say students don't get a strong introduction to *national and global issues* and *critical thinking*. We did find too few classes about the larger world within which these students should work.

Third

Scholars in the region say *faculty hiring* results in staff without sufficient experience in the media industries. We did find these same concerns.

Fourth

Scholars in the region say *funding* is *inadequate* to provide students with the *equipment* and industry *work experiences* they need. We did find too few internship opportunities for students and too little equipment to properly train them. Internships are not a priority for most of the journalism programs in the Middle East.

Fifth

The majority of these programs did not have a partnership or cooperation with international institutions or NGOs. They also had too few meaningful partnerships with industry. This left little support for work experience or online opportunities for students or faculty.

However, we also found reasons for *optimism*, too. These data imply that journalism education in the Middle East has moved closer to these models. The percentages for *Practice/Professional classes* at the top schools are *higher* than the ACEJMC model recommends although lower than UNESCO recommends. That may mean that the numbers of practice classes is growing. In addition, while these programs had weak or defective student admission criteria, in our data, the faculty-student ratios were better than we had expected based in the literature.

Nevertheless, progress depends on having the human and capital resources to support this progress. The data still show a *striking dependence* on government finding and *too little* support from *industry* and private sources. Further study will be required to explore how far progress can go and how broadly in can reach.

Appendix A
QUESTIONNAIRE

World Journalism Education Census-A Study for the World Journalism Education Congress

1. The date of establishing the school (program) _____
2. The structure of your program is:

a. Independent college within university	-
b. Department belongs to other college	-

3. Which levels of education in mass communication do you offer:

a. Technical degree	-
b. Undergraduate program degree	-
c. Graduate program degree	-
d. Doctoral degree	-
e. Other degree (please list)	-

4. Please check the subjects you teach in your program (check all that apply):

a. -Print Journalism	-
b. -Broadcast Journalism	-
c. -Advertising Studies	-
d. -Public Relations Studies	-
e. -General Mass Communication	-
f. -Other (Please specify)	-

5. Please list the number of individuals in your program:

a. Full-time students	-
b. Part- time students	-
c. Full-time faculty	-
d. Part- time faculty	-
e. Other Staff	-

6. Please rate how much; overall, you stress these areas in your curriculum: (Please check the Level of Instruction)

a. Theoretical Concepts	None	Some	Extensive
b. Technical Equipment Instruction	None	Some	Extensive
c. Practical Skills Instruction	None	Some	Extensive
d. Other (Please specify)	-		

7. Please rate how extensively you use each of the following in instruction for students in your program: (Please check the Level of Instruction)

a. Instructional Technology	None	Some	Extensive
b. Professional Media Equipment	None	Some	Extensive
c. Computer Technology	None	Some	Extensive
d. Internet Technologies	None	Some	Extensive
e. Internship Experience	None	Some	Extensive
f. Student Media Production	None	Some	Extensive
g. Extracurricular Activities	None	Some	Extensive
h. International Experiences	None	Some	Extensive
i. Job Placement Activities	None	Some	Extensive
j. Other (Please specify)	-		

8. Which of the following reflects the sources of funding that support your program: (Please check the Level of Funding)

a. Government Funding	None	Some	Extensive
b. Tuition Funding	None	Some	Extensive
c. Other Fee Cost Funding	None	Some	Extensive
d. Private Support Funding	None	Some	Extensive
e. Other Funding (Please specify)	-		

9. Please list the types of partnerships you have with foreign universities:

Type of Partnership	Number of Programs	Names of International Partners	Country of Partner	Notes
a. Faculty Exchange Programs	-	-	-	-
b. Student Exchange Programs	-	-	-	-
c. Study Abroad Programs	-	-	-	-
d. Other International Programs	-	-	-	-

10. What is the percent of your students who receive scholarships or other financial aid from your university or college?

a. Undergraduate Students	-
b. Graduate Students	-

11. What is percentage of your faculty which has at least two years of full-time media experience? _____

12. With which NGOs (Non-Governmental Organizations) does your program have any kind of cooperation: (e.g. USAID, IREX, etc.) and what kind of cooperation do you have with them?

13. Does your program work with online media websites? Does your program offer online media experience with websites operated by your own university?

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