JOURNALISM: HOW DO THE JOURNALISM STUDENTS IN TURKEY EVALUATES THEIR PROFESSION?

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ABSTRACT

Attempts at professionalizing journalism around the world have led to a veritable boom in the education of journalists at universities. Inspired particularly by the establishment of journalism schools at US universities in the early 20th century, tertiary journalism has swept the globe, prompting some scholars to call the phenomenon a "graduatization of journalism". It is now increasingly common for journalists to have earned university degrees in journalism. Journalism education is seen as so important because it "perpetuates or modifies professional practices and molds the perceptions journalists have of the role and function of the media" (Gaunt, 1992, p. 1).

As a result of the popularity of tertiary journalism education in recent decades, a number of studies have examined the ways in which journalism students see their work and the extent to which university education may account for these worldviews. The professional values and attitudes of journalism can be learned and internalized by journalists by way of living different experiences in a variety of settings and by interacting with multiple sources, including those stemming from professional educational settings (Preston, 2008; Shoemaker and Reese, 1996). It is therefore crucial to investigate the ways in which journalism education influences students' perceptions of and attitudes to their future profession, as arguably they would carry them into their career as journalists.

This study aims to analyze the main debates surrounding the influences on journalism students' professional views. There are three main influences that have been raised in the literature. This study covers: the role that students' motivations and career desires play and the effect that journalism schools may have on students' views as measured by the stage at which students are within a program. Studying these dominant influences on students' professional views is important in order to provide an empirical base that can better inform journalism education in Turkey. This study therefore examines a sample of 435 journalism students from different years and 8 different Universities' journalism programs during 2014 and 2015. By this study the students' opinions about how university education shapes their professional views, as well as the extent to which these views may be similar or different across different schools is asked.

Key Words: Turkey, Journalism Education, Ethical Values, Journalism, Motivation, Career Desire.

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DEVELOPMENT OF JOURNALISM PROFESSION IN TURKEY

One should address the media and journalism culture in Turkey by taking the emerging dynamics of the press in Ottoman Empire into account since many of institutions and their cultures are the extensions of modernization or reform movement that started during the Ottoman period. Considering within the context of modernization; it is more accurate to express a breaking point rather than a radical split between the Republic of Turkey and the Ottoman Empire. *Takvim-i Vekayi,* the first Turkish newspaper in Ottoman Empire was directly published by the dynasty itself in 1831. Until that French and Armenian had been printing newspaper in their own languages (http://www.matbaaiamire.com accessed on 13.07.2015) and these newspapers had been publishing aimed at their own community (İnuğur, 1993, p.165-172; Koloğlu, 2013, p.36-43;Topuz, 2003, p.15).

Takvim-i Vekayi has its own significance since it is the first Turkish newspaper; it was not published either as a civil initiative and/or a response towards a demand that had formed as a social need as a result of socio-economic developments. The purpose of the newspaper was not to meet the communication need about economic, political and social events within the borders of empire, but was to explain and adapt the modernization attempts that had started in Ottoman Empire. *Takvim-i Vekayi* symbolically points out that communication (and mass media) in Ottoman Empire is through from center to the base and expresses the town setting that failed to refresh with trade and capitalism dynamics. However, in the Western countries, appearance and developments of daily newspaper (or media) institutions were directly related to trade dynamics.

In Ottoman Empire, proclamation of Edict of Gülhane and First Constitutional Era brought dynamism and diversity to journalism and a great deal of newspaper and magazine started their publishing life. Yet, Second Constitutional Era was an agitational and unstable era in terms of press freedom. Improvements towards capitalism, modernism and freedom within the Empire were swiftly abandoned in a short period of time with the help of authoritarian laws and policies. Nonetheless, this period is important in terms of press history even though it was tough and unstable since it included certain starting points. Ottoman Telegraph Agency was established in 1911 as the first national news agency. Despite the fact that this agency was not able to generate original news, it sought assistance from the Chamber of Deputies and it was established by the law that agency can open up 15 offices and 50 words telegraphs sent from these offices would be free of charge, even though some members of the Chamber had opposed to this act as it would be a contribution to the propaganda of foreign countries.

Following the defeat at World War I, Government of İstanbul censored the press again with a public mandate released on the 2nd of December, 1918. In the mandate, it was forbidden to make news about the military movements of Allied Powers, and regardless news about the Sultan and native or foreign officials, and provocative news about major countries. After the Committee of Union and Progress had dissolved, newspapers began to publish articles about press freedom. However, new government also implemented some restrictions on press freedom. In the February of 1919, a decree of censorship was issued about books, magazines, periodical and non-periodical publications within all regions under the martial law. After the occupation of İstanbul on 16th of March, 1920, Allied forces also maintained the censorship (Kabacalı, 1994, p. 88).

In Bourdieuan definition, the symbolic power of journalism in imperial era was now the government which was desired by bureaucrats and intellectuals in İstanbul. Intellectual discussions started by means of the symbolic power were not including a problematizing criticism about the government in itself; but discussing the methods about how the empire

could reach the level that Western countries had reached with the help of enlightenment and industrial revolution. In other words, opposing opinions and acts started with Young Turks and became obvious with the Committee of Union and Progress were not proposing radical views or models about the system itself, they rather were in conflict about how the government could improve itself. Even though there was a radical breaking point within the social scheme of the Ottoman Empire with the Proclamation of the Turkish Republic, there was no significant progress in terms of freedom of press and expression. Establishing a profession culture for journalism that idealize publishing news for the public or civil dynamics by keeping a distance from the political authority with its news and information distribution policy within the all organization from top to the bottom was prevented (Gürkan, 1998; Lewis, 1998 ; Taş, 2012).

Because of that reason, it is important to examine the primary issues of today's press (or media industry), which can be expressed as the lack of editorial independence, monopolization, vulnerability of the freedom of thought and expression, being political power oriented, within the scope historical development process of newspapers and news media.

There was Ottoman dynasty in İstanbul and there was a independence movement in Ankara started with the leadership of Mustafa Kemal. This duality in governance and unsteadiness in political area reflected upon the journalism and as a result of their publication policies, two different journalism practice emerged as İstanbul and Ankara media.

Shortly after Mustafa Kemal's departure from İstanbul and initiating independence movement, it was needed to be told and backed up via press. Exactly like the Ottoman dynasty, it can be seen that priority was to create a public news and information network that propagate the movement itself and that is not critical and that can be controlled As a result, two different newspapers based in Sivas and Ankara started their publication lives with the names *İrade-i Milliye* and *Hakimiyeti Milliye*.

Following the Proclamation of Turkish Republic, the press perception of the new regime was to configure a national press based on nationalism ideal until the mid-1940s. Particularly during the period of truce, the sharp contrast between the supporters of independence war and the supporters of caliphate caused the new regime to deal with revolution opposing repression sensitively. The ideal press for Kemalist revolution is based on the notion that principles of the revolution should be infused to the public with no exception and the press should operate in a semi-institutional body that provide education for the public. Therefore; journalist principles and professional identities of the era should be evaluated in relation to the expectations of the formal ideology (Taş, 2012, p. 148).

The elections that took place on May 14, 1950 were the beginning of a new era. Republic of Turkey transmitted to multi party political trials. The power transferred from Republican People's Party, which founded by Ataturk, to Democrat Party (DP). The press was a political arena identifying the agenda within the period of 1950-1960. DP tried to obtain public support through press during their reign, however as they were struggling to keep their economic and social promises, the opposition of press increased along with social depression. Immediately after the elections, in a short period of time like 2 months, the Law on the Press, which entered into force on 21 May 1950, passed a liberal regime in which the control of the government on the press was greatly reduced. These were the happy years for the press, but only until 1954. With the Law No. 6334 issued, freedom of the press is significantly restricted (Topuz, 2003, p. 192-197). The DP's government gradually lost the support of the intellectuals, whose desertion became virtually complete between 1955 and 1960. The intellectuals criticized the government's direct involvement in the universities, sanctions against the press, and the DP's use of radio for its propaganda rather than for the public interest. DP power enforced

oppressive legal regulations and methods to suppress the opposition press and encouraged pro-government circles in the press through official notices, paper allocation and implicit subsidies (Koloğlu, 2013). Although the period of 1950-1960 was very distressing in terms of freedom of the press and democracy, there are also significant innovations in turnover. Such as, Hürriyet and Milliyet that crucial newspapers of Turkish press began to publish. The *Institute of Journalism*, which forms the basis of today's Istanbul University Faculty of Communication, was established. This has been important contributions in the development and professionalization of journalism in Turkey (Polat ve Arcan, 2016, p.xxv).

The 10-year Menderes rule ended with a military coup on May 27, 1960. In terms of democratic political culture, although the constitution of 1961 is problematic, it is evaluated positively in terms of improving the rights of journalists and freedom of the press. Law no. 212 is still in effect today and still regulates labour relations in the media. The Directorate General of Press Advertisement is an autonomous institution established for the implementation of official advertisement distribution and for the take away feeding press (besleme basın[1]) of DP's era. However, this institution later moved away from the principle of social justice, home social welfare, which was the purpose of the courtship. This institution has been transformed into pressure or reward instrument of political power (Topuz, 2003, p.228-231).

In March 1971, the army have intervened the government due to overcome instability in the form of worker strikes, student demonstrations, parliamentary stalemate over reform measures, and above all, urban guerrilla terrorism. The 1970s have been years of decadent urbanization and industrialization and an unstable economic life and political turmoil. The first task of the government, which ruled the country in the shadow of the army, was to change the articles related to freedom of the press of the 1961 Constitution. Many journalists have been taken into custody and detained until general election in 1973. The newspapers were in the 1970s *under the pressure of the military, the boss and the government*. The press of the 1970s is a multi-polarized press in accordance with the general political and cultural atmosphere of the country. This polarization is on the right and left views. In the 1970s newspaper bosses are still journalists, yet patrons of different sectors are not active in the Turkish press (Özer, 2014)

1980s is a significant period of time not only for Turkey but also for the majority of the world. On one hand, recessions in 70s started to become dominant in the beginning 1980s, on the other hand, decisions were made that would lead significant changes in Turkey's economic, political and cultural lives. The 12 September 1980 coup d'etat stroked the left-wing movement seriously and eliminating possible opposition to actualizing liberal policies. Even though all regulations between the *Tanzimat* and the Proclamation of the Republic were formed on liberalism, major radical and permanent decisions were made during 1980s.

> "… there was a break with the developmental inclusionary state of the 1960s-70s and the institutionalization of a new form of state in the 1980s in Turkey. The new form, which is called 'the neoliberal exclusionary state' was associated with transformation of the Turkish economy away from interventionist import substitution industrialization to an export-led development strategy in an open market. The pivotal aspect of the neoliberal exclusionary state was the exclusion of organized labour from the political process and its disciplining in the economic sphere (Önder, 2016, p.1)

Neoliberal policies, like all sectors, also affected the working conditions of the journalists and press/media sector. Reflections of neo-liberal policies on the media were criticized by Adaklı

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[1] The feed press concept, a metaphor, is used to describe the DP's press policy that financial supports for the newspaper's which were in favour of their reign

(2006) as it is a period that the survival chance of business units with small capital that operates with basic production techniques, cheap inputs, and resource transfers such as subsidies and official announcements were lowered and newspapers are not business units that descend from a journalist father to his son who is also a journalist. Newspapers were started to be purchased by major capital groups operating in banking, textile, construction, and energy industries. The purchase of the newspaper *Milliyet* and then *Hürriyet* was a significant indicator that industrial production was dominant and there was a transition to oligopoly media market (Adaklı, 2006, p. 34). Governmental monopoly in TV broadcasting was de facto broken in the beginning of 1990s and first private TV broadcast started from abroad towards Turkey. Shortly after, newspaper owners started to found TV channels and expanded their influential area in publishing and broadcasting. Since there were no legal precautions to prevent monopolization, monopolizations began shortly. At the end of 1990s, media that once had been under the control of the government became a tool that private capital groups make use of in their relationships with the governments (Elmas and Kurban, 2011, p. 23).

JOURNALISM EDUCATION IN TURKEY

Historical development of university level institutions providing journalism education in the world has primarily started in the USA at the beginning of the twentieth century and these institutions has increased in the second half of the twentieth century. Contemporary journalism education initially started in a journalism school established within the Missouri University in the USA in 1908 and in the midst of twentieth century, the number of journalism schools that provide professional level education has reached to 100. It is known that between the years 1970 and 1990, the number of graduates with communication degree has increased by 35% in the USA (Mutlu, 1994, p. 165, Mutlu, 2000, p. 245). Journalism education institutions started increase and institutionalize in Europe as well in 1960s (Tüfekçioğlu, 1997, p. 53). In Turkey, the first private journalism school was opened in İstanbul by Prof. Fehmi Yahya in 1948. Even though "İstanbul Private Journalism School" was not a university-level educational institution, it has a historical significance as it is the first private journalism school opened in Turkey. Aiming to train professional staff for the media industry, the school has two levels; a 3-year secondary level and one-year high school level. The school discontinued its education in 1963 (Tokgöz, a2006).

University level education in Turkey was initiated by İstanbul and Ankara universities. In 1950, İstanbul University has established the Institute of Journalism under the body of Faculty of Economics; in 1965, Ankara University has founded the School of Press and Broadcasting under the body of Faculty of Political Sciences (Tokgöz, 2000, p. 25). The number of journalism education institutions, started with İstanbul and Ankara universities, went up to five in 1970s. Thereby, the foundations for Faculties of Communication that still operate today in Ankara, İstanbul, Marmara, Ege and Gazi universities were laid. Another development in terms of journalism education institutions in Turkey took place with the enactment of the Law of Private Education Institutions in 1966. Private education institutions established apart from universities with this law were publicized with a law regulated in 1971 as a result of increasing criticism towards education. Private education institutions were handed over to Rectorates of İstanbul, Ankara, and İzmir universities (Topuz, 1996, p. 206). An initiative started in Eskişehir in 1975 has brought up the foundation of Faculty of Communication Sciences in Anadolu University. With the Higher Education Law regulated in 1982, Schools of Press and Broadcasting were linked to Rectorates of Ankara, İstanbul, Marmara, Ege and Gazi universities with their names to be remained same. With the Law No. 3837 issued by the Grand National Assembly of Turkey in 1992, Schools of Press and Broadcasting were converted into Faculties of Communication. Another Faculty of Communication was established under the

body of Selçuk University in Konya (Tokgöz, a2006). Following the establishment of departments under the Faculties of Communication, post-graduate and doctorate programs were started to enroll students under the body of Institutions of Social Sciences. Even before and after this regulation, there are differences between post-graduate and doctorate programs of universities in terms of presented courses to students. Post-graduate programs were started to be established under the body of Faculty of Communication in private universities founded after 1997 as well.

About the education institutions providing education about media and broadcasting in Turkey, Tokgöz (a2006) mentioned that variables such as media, capital, technology, policy were effective on education onwards from the beginning of the education; "ranker/scholar" discrimination among the employees in the media industry, despite the increasing employment issue, "had evolved in favour of scholars". Demands of media industry and its employers have been effective on the rising of journalism education institutions in Turkey. Beginning from the midst of twentieth century, understanding of journalism has started to change in Turkey and the demand for a more qualified, educated journalists has increased. It must be noted that İstanbul and Ankara Journalists' Associations have a major role, respectively, in the establishment of journalism/communication education in Turkey. The initiatives of İstanbul and Ankara Journalists' Associations for the training of "educated journalist" have been realized by İstanbul and Ankara universities by establishing programs about journalism/communication education. While İstanbul Journalists' Association, along with İstanbul University, was supporting the realization of Institute of Journalism under the body of Faculty of Economics in İstanbul University, Cihat Baban and Sedat Simavi, who were the Associate Leaders back in that time, provided major support for the cause. Similarly, in the establishment of School of Press and Broadcasting under the body of Faculty of Political Sciences in Ankara University, Ankara Journalists' Association, Ankara University, Ankara Journalists' Union and Anadolu Agency have had major influences. Along with that, beginning from 1946, associations and unions founded by journalists in particular have had major influences on the start of university level journalism education in Turkey (Abadan Unat, 1972, p. 67-69). During 1990s, these organizations continued to increase in number and accordingly educational institutions and therefore number of graduates have increased resulting in a major employment issue which is the subject of another study.

As of August, 2016, the number of journalism education institutions in Turkey has reached to 30.

In general, the aim of the journalism/communication education can be defined as to train qualified media professional. Today, within the current structure of state/private universities, a graduate with communication education, regardless of the degree, is considered to look for jobs mainly in media industry. As the occupation of journalism got more professional along with the development of capitalism and liberal policies during the twentieth century, a university level degree was started to become a requisite.

Institute of Journalism under the body of Faculty of Economics in İstanbul University, which was established to train educated journalists, has a similar curriculum with discontinued Institute of Journalism; "journalism education" is dominant and general knowledge courses are relatively limited.

Among the journalism dominant courses of İstanbul Private School of Journalism, there are courses such as "Journalism Composition, Preparation for the Profession, Journalism and its Technique, Newspaper Management, Journalism Seminar, Turkish Press Laws, Turkish and Global History of the Press, Press Technique and Photo"; while Institute of Journalism had

courses such as "History of Journalism, Morals of Journalism, Press Law, Article Types and Composition in Journalism, Gathering News, Archive Filing, Journalism Photography, Application of Journalism". Besides these courses, there are other cultural courses as well. Regarding that İstanbul Private Journalism School provide 3-year education for secondary-level graduates and 1-year education for high school graduates and Institute of Journalism provided 3-year education following the 2-year education for high school graduates, the quality and the quantity of the courses should be considered thoroughly. The Institute was closed down in 1971 because of the reasons that the graduates would find difficulty in finding jobs in the industry, failing to complete the necessary technical equipment in the Institute, graduates being unable to pursue post-graduate degrees because of the short period of education, and Ministry of Finance's not making course payments to the lecturers (Abadan Unat, 1972, p. 69-70). Examining the situation today, it is not quite wrong to claim that the media industry that demand the Institute of Journalism to be established in order to train qualified journalists, once resisted to employ the graduates of the Institute.

ETHICS OF JOURNALISM PROFESSION IN TURKEY

The word "ethic", "ethicus" in Latin and "ethikos" in Greek, meaning "traditions, customs, and habits" is used as a synonym for "professional ethics" in our day. The word "moral" stresses the nature of the human being descending from our ancestors with creation, "ethics" stresses out customs and habits that societies accept. When ethic is defined as the rules for behaviors, its roots should be "individual and social". That is why our demands, expectations and satisfactions take part among "the origins of ethic" and moreover, what the society consider as "good-correct-suitable" gain importance[2].

Ethics is part of practical philosophy that deals with moral actions of people and qualitative circumstance that makes an action a good action in terms of morality. There are two methods in ethics: normative and determinative. In determinative method, behaviors and actions in a society are investigated in terms of effective values and validity values in the society and this method involves judgments aimed at whole moral code that is accepted by the majority as obligatory. Normative method is a definite method rather than describing the present and before determining something it tries to develop criteria that offer the opportunity to evaluate active in the framework of morality (Uzun, 2011, p.19-22).

Ethic relationship is a kind of relationship that one individual with a specific integrity brings into existence by living with actions towards other individuals. Other than that, all other inter human relationships are relations that one individual as a member of group creates and takes part in (Kuçuradi, 1996, p. 5). Moral and correspondingly understanding of ethics have a relative structure differing from one society to another.

Ethics, a branch of philosophy dealing with morality, researches the qualifications of good or bad moral values among individuals and approaches underlying judgments of moral attitudes. It is a fact that each profession group in society has a specific function and they aim to provide benefits to the society. Profession groups in society should form moral rules that are good for the society and behave accordingly. Ethic rules that are applied in the media industry are generally formed by several professional organizations that are active in the industry. As commercialization in the media sector increases, the need for ethical principles has also increased. Journalistic professional organizations have thus begun to develop ethical principles (Özer, 2010, p.149).

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[2] (www.cgdbursa.org).

Communication ethics express the professional ethics of workers in communication related jobs. In this context, it involves the professional ethics of individuals who work for news agencies, newspapers, radios, televisions or websites along with people and organizations that take place in media, even if they are not the media themselves (Uzun, 2011 p. 25). In many countries, steps towards the press supervising itself are dealt within the scope of "Journalism Ethics". Self-supervision is considered within both freedom and moral framework. The press is accepted as the fourth power after execution, legislation and jurisdiction because of its function to inform and lead the society. Conveniently for the fourth power approach "ethic principles for the press should be based on conscientious freedom different from religions and laws, in other words they should not appear with an outside force and should be realized in an environment with free choice (Özgen, 1998, p. 55). The power the media has should be used for democracy, state of law, rights and freedoms of individuals and the benefit of the society. For this reason, media institutions and professional organizations form several professional principles and show effort to make their members follow them. Journalists' following the rules related to their professional ethics is based on the value judgments of the society they live in. Media moral principles should consider the social value judgments.

In the countries that democracy is relatively developed, media moral principles feed from these resources: a) professional tradition b) court decisions c) media honor council or self-supervision institutions' (i. e. press councils) decisions (Özgen, 1998, p. 65). The moral and the principles of the press are formed by gathering from more than one resource. Legal arrangements are also important sources to form a database for these principles. Being useful for the social life is an important foundation for professional ethic understanding. Journalists have responsibilities towards the society they live in and the members of this society in terms of professional ethic understanding and they should be conscious of this responsibility. A journalist should primarily assure that the public find out the truth. Journalists abandoning the professional ethic understanding form a trust gap in their relationships with readers. Considering the self-supervising system in the media, there are two types of applications: In terms of foundation types; a) arbitrary organizations formed by voluntary consent, b) organizations formed by the law and apply the authority and the sanction given by the law (Dönmezer, 1958, p. 7). Generally, ethic codes and other media responsibility system are effective tools to encourage responsible journalism. Self-supervision system can be effective only when it is independent; economic resources of the system should always come from the industry, never from a governmental or a public body; otherwise, it loses its independence. Besides, it can be observed that the ethical understanding and concern increase in parallel with the level of education.

The date when the ethical code of journalism was put into use is not known definitely. Trying to define the exact date on which the ethical rules were started to be used in journalism is defined as a hopeless pursuit as researching when the modern journalism has started (Ward, 2006). In the study of Ward, it is stated that the word "journalist" was first used in 17th Century in scientific journals and it was first used in the media in 1712, at the beginning of 18th Century. It arose in western countries where the contemporary media came into existence historically. Although it is not known when the ethical principles of journalism were put to use, it is considered that first discussions were started by the newspapers Ahasver Fritsch and Christian Weise published in Germany in 1676 (Kunczik, 2000). Journalists established a non-profit professional organization in 1922 named American Society of Newspaper Editors (ASNE) in order to suppress the present dissatisfaction in the society and to protect the reputations of the profession and employees and tried to form ethical standards that journalists should comply. ASNE accepted an ethical code named "Canons of Journalism" based on

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responsibility, freedom of press, independence, honesty, accuracy, neutrality, and decency in a gathering in April of 1923.

American Society of News Editors sets forth this Statement of Principles as a standard encouraging the highest ethical and professional performance. By this mean ASNE Statement of principles are listed as; responsibility, freedom of the press, independence, truth and accuracy, impartiality and fair play.

In a research report titled "*To Tell You the Truth- The Ethical Journalism Initiative*" published by The International Federation of Journalists (IJF), two international congress held in 1954 and 1986 are defined as two significant steps in the process of determination and application of journalism code of ethics. The ethical code that was accepted in the first World Congress of The International Federation of Journalists, which was held in 1954 to determine the ethical principles of journalism and modified and finalized in the second congress held in 1986, was approved by journalist associations and unions with different cultures and traditions and gathered hundreds of journalists working in different parts of the world such as Japan, Colombia, Kongo, Canada, Mexico, USA and Iran under global media standards in order to raise the quality in media industry (White, 2008, p. ii- iii).

Ethical principles in media industry were first mentioned in Turkey in the Turkish Media Congress held in 1935. As a result of the studies in the congress, a professional organization named Turkish Press Union was established with Press Association Law issued on 27th of June, 1938. According to this law, one should obtain a Yellow Press Card and become a member of Turkish Press Union in order to perform journalism. Press Association Law proposed to establish a Supreme Court of Honour that would resolve conflicts between individual members of the Union, make a research and make a decision about the union members who had violated the professional honour and purposes of the Union determined by the law. Supreme Court of Honour could decide to dismiss a journalist from the profession up to 3 months and expel from the union along with warning penalties (Uzun, 2011, p. 62). Turkish Press Council, established in 1980s, published professional ethics code declaration. Yet, Turkish Journalists' Association, established in 1946, explained that Turkish Press Council did not represent all journalists in a declaration titled "Rights and Liabilities of Turkish Journalists" in 1998 and showed its opposing position. Journalists and owners of the newspapers gathered on 24 of July, 1960 and approved the establishment of Press Honour Council and a document titled Press Ethics Code. On 14th of February, 1972, Turkish Journalists' Association approved Ethics Code of Journalism adapted from International Press Institute (Köylü, 2006, p. 35-41).

Press Council expressed an ethics code with 16 item with the following declaration in 1987: "We, the journalists that consider the Freedom of Communication as the basic condition of living properly in our country, having a transparent administration, and the democratic system, publicly express that we promise with our own free will to oppose to restrictions to the Freedom of Communication by Legislatives or other individuals and organization anywhere and anytime; we consider the Freedom of Communication as a tool for the right of the public to find out about the truth; we bear in mind that the main function of the journalism is to find about the truth and share it with the public without spoiling or exaggerating it; we stress the determination of Press Council to deny any kind of intervention of its own practices; and we consider complying with Principles of Journalism Profession, including the section above, as a requisite of our primary beliefs.

METHODOLOGY

This study, which aims to determine the reasons of Faculty of Communication students in Turkey to choose journalism studies and their understandings of the professional role and

professional ethical principles, includes the Turkey part of an international research. Survey research method is used in the research. Universities from 7 different regions, not only different in geographical aspects but also different for economic, political, cultural/social characteristics, are included in the study. These universities are; Atatürk University, Akdeniz University, Anadolu University, Ankara University, Ege University, İzmir Economy University, Kocaeli University and Karadeniz Technical University

As the number of Faculty of Communication in Turkey increases, the number of graduates also increases. Yet, the media industry in Turkey is not able to employ all these graduates. The number of Faculty of Communication has reached to 30 in 2016. 22 of them are state universities and 8 of them are private universities. Therefore, as stated by Tokgöz (a2006), it is observed that variables such as media, capital, technology, and politics have increasing effects on education as of 2011. 18 of Faculties of Communication in Turkey provide bachelor degree for journalism. Departments of Journalism in other Faculties of Communication do not admit students, yet.

Attempts at professionalizing journalism around the world have led to a veritable boom in the education of journalists at universities. Inspired particularly by the establishment of journalism schools at US universities in the early 20th century, tertiary journalism has swept the globe, prompting some scholars to call the phenomenon a "graduatization of journalism" (Splichal and Sparks, 1994, p. 114). It is now increasingly common for journalists to have earned university degrees in journalism. Journalism education is seen as so important because it "perpetuates or modifies professional practices and molds the perceptions journalists have of the role and function of the media" (Gaunt, 1992, p. 1).

The professional values and attitudes of journalism can be learned and internalized by journalists by way of living different experiences in a variety of settings and by interacting with multiple sources, including those stemming from professional educational settings (Preston, 2008; Shoemaker and Reese, 1996). It is therefore crucial to investigate the ways in which journalism education influences students' perceptions of and attitudes to their future profession as mean of ethical issues.

Field work startes at the beginnig of September 2014 (at the beginnig of fall term). In order to caption the freshman's thoughts and data collecting phase finished in February 2015.

Journalism Departments in Turkey listed according to geographical areas. There are 42 Communication Faculties all over Turkey. 30 of them have Journalism Department. In detail:

3 University Mediterranean Region

5 University Eastern Anatolia Region

1 University Aegean Region

1 University Southeast Anatolia Region

7 University Central Anatolia Region

5 University Blacksea Region

8 University Marmara Region

We reached to 8 universities from different geographical areas .

FINDINGS

Valid data is gathered from 435 survey forms filled out by the students participated in the study. Regarding the gender distribution among the students participated in the study, we can

observe that there is balance. 216 of the participants are male and 214 of them are female. 5 participants didn't declare his/her gender.

Looking at the age range of the participants, 17.5% of them are 20, 19.3% of them are 21, 21.6% of them are 22, and 12.9% of them are 24 years old, so we can observe a density at the age range 20-24. This density seems consistent with the education system in Turkey. Investigating the endpoints, the youngest participants are 18 years old (15 participants) and the oldest participant is 58 years old.

Table 1. Distribution of the Participants According to the Universities

Name of the University	Number of the students
Atatürk University	%14 (61)
Akdeniz University	%13.8 (60)
Anadolu University	%12.2 (53)
Ankara University	% 13.8 (60)
Ege University	% 12.5 (54)
İzmir Ekonomi University	% 9.5 (41)
Kocaeli University	%13 (57)
Karadeniz Technical University	% 11.2 (49)
Total	%100 (435)

Table 2. Distribution of the Participants According to the Classes

The year that the student currently within the program	Number of students
1st Year	% 20.7 (90)
2nd Year	% 28 (122)
3rd Year	% 22.8 (99)
4th Year	% 24.8 (108)
5th Year and more	%3.7 (16)
Total	%100 (435)

82% of the participants did not study another university that this was their first university level education. Students are asked whether they would pursue a professional journalist career or not; 38.2% of them state they would definitely be journalists, 22% of them state they would probably be journalists, and 28% of them state they had not decided yet. It will be arguing that most of the students who had decided to study in this department in order to pursue a career in this profession.

Participants are also asked whether it is necessary to receive a related university education to work as a journalist. 84% of the participants state that a communication degree is necessary to do journalism. 97% of the participants state that the journalism is an inter-disciplinary

profession, yet the provided education is not enough to cover the professional requirements. Without any doubt, the effect of relation between dependent variables used in the study on independent variable which is communication education and control variable which is journalism education is not general but makes impact. It will not be quite wrong to express those divisions in Faculties as a need for instrumental logic is aimed at creating balance between theory and practice in education. Students, regardless of the departments they have graduated, work in jobs they could find in media sector. There is no job for every graduate in related sector. Along with graduates of recently opened Faculties of Communication, hundreds of fresh graduates' step into the industry with a demand for a job. It is possible say that there is a ranker/scholar discrimination among workers in media sector. New era is advantageous for scholars communicators. But, in this new order, the graduated school and its qualification have stronger influence.

Establishing a Faculty of Communication in private universities along with state universities in İstanbul, the center of media, or a private organization providing communication education outside of a university is, without doubt, not only about having a legal ground but also owning the capital. Considering this formation in the context of relations of capital/media/technology, by establishing private organizations providing communication education, the capital invests in such organizations and creates diversity in fields of activity related to media. A private initiative making use of the education policy of the state as well as relationships between capital/education/media/technology/politics draws attention. Even though there are educational institutions that own a media organization or have close contact with one, the media industry is yet to define the journalist profile it requires, but discusses the qualifications of the graduates and the education they receive.

Participants are asked about the field they want to work in. Outlining the data; 23% of the participants state they want to work in television, 18% of them want to work in newspaper, 15% of them want to work at the university, and 14% of them want to work at a news agency.

Their motivations about being a journalist are evaluated with separate items.

These items are provided in the Table 3.

1   Not important at all

2   Little important

3   Somewhat important

4   Very important

5   Extremely important

Motivation	1 (n)	2 (n)	3 (n)	4 (n)	5 (n)
The opportunity to travel	54	41	54	122	164
The possibility of being famous	170	81	75	56	53
To help in nation-building	144	35	75	85	96
The varied and lively work	52	16	58	129	180
The chance to influence public affairs	53	12	65	132	173
To work for freedom and democracy	52	16	51	113	203
The pleasure of writing	79	38	68	105	145

The chance to help people in their everyday life	54	23	79	112	167
The amount of money one can earn	58	40	87	115	135
To hold people in power accountable	106	52	74	100	103
To get a secure job	109	58	61	76	131
The amount of autonomy one has	96	30	73	100	136
To fight injustice	41	20	47	106	221
My talent for journalism	59	55	101	120	100
To be able to be creative	46	22	68	144	155
The prestige of journalism as a profession	71	59	88	115	102
The chance to meet different people	52	21	56	116	190
The dynamic lifestyle	57	27	58	110	183
To help the government achieve its goals for national development	178	64	86	70	37

Table 3. Participants Motivation to Journalism Education

During the job selection of students studying journalism, there are attractive factors that affect their preferences. Likewise in almost in all occupations, motivations for receiving an education and pursuing a career in journalism are diverse. Participants are asked a series of questions about reasons and motivations behind their interest and choice in this profession.

Traveling while working and in some cases travel expenses being covered by an organization or an institution are among the motivational reasons making this profession attractive and when students are asked about that subject; 12% of them state that it is not a source of motivation, and 40% of them stated it is not an important source of motivation for them.

Participants are asked about a motivational factor for selecting the journalism department which is the possibility of being famous and 39% of them state that it is not a source of motivation at all. Being a famous is possible by drawing attention of somebody by doing or saying something, making impact and being supported by journalists; in other words, being with one side and being bias make things easier. Bourdieu and Wacquant (2003, p. 37) separates biases into three groups; personal, academic and intellectual biases. These three biases, respectively, push towards personal origin (class, gender, etc.), intellectual position or position offered by the government and finally perception of the world as a show rather than a solid problem mass that requires practical solutions.

Reassessing tendencies of the participants, these people getting ready for their professional lives do not support bias and intend to pursue their careers in an idealist manner.

Participants are asked whether they chose this department in order to aid in ensuring national unity and 33% of them state that this motivation is not significant for them at all but 59% of them state it is some way motivating for them to receive journalism education. At this point, it seems suitable to mention types of capital. Bourdieu (1999) defines capital types that are chased to be obtained with the effort of being dominant in an area as economic, social and cultural capitals. Philosopher rather tries to explain the cultural capital and in this study, it is the journalist. Economic capital means having absolute economic resources. Social capital

refers to an actuator's network of relationship in that area. Cultural capital that has a fundamental place in Bourdieu's studies is a structure imposed to families and indirectly to individual via education by the ones who have the power (in today's case the government). In this aspect, Bourdieu places schools at a very specific point. Educational system creates a system in which mostly the distinguished individuals succeed, undistinguished families take place in the process believing that the success is a must in this system and supply for the reproduction of the system. These acceptances inherited from the family to the child have become the cultural capital of that society. This is the underlying reason for the pre-supposition that every single individual with a university level would be a successful individual with a guaranteed bright future, which can also be observed in Turkey.

Influencing the public is another motivational factor in the study. Looking at the endpoints; 12% of the participants state it is not important at all; yet 40% of them it is a really important factor in selecting the school and profession of journalism.

When the participants are asked about the motivational factor of working for the development of freedom and democracy, we have similar answer ratios. 12% of the participants state it was not important, 4% of them remained indecisive, and the rest of the participants state it is significant.

Participants are also asked about the effect of profession's having a living structure scattered upon various fields. 42% of the participant's state that it was an important motivational factor. It is correct to refer the journalism profession as an office job. Journalists operating in various fields, being on the scene and experiencing the atmosphere bring diversity and dynamism to the profession.

Profession of journalism is an occupation that requires production and the very good usage of language. Using the language well can only be achieved by reading a lot and making writing practices. So, individuals who choose the journalism profession should enjoy producing by writing personally. Thus, participants are asked how much they are motivated by the satisfaction from producing by writing. 34% of the participants state it is extremely important, 24% of them state it is very important and 16% of them state it is important.

Participants are asked whether they are motivated by having the necessary skills for journalism and 74% of them believe that they have the required skills for journalism therefore selected this profession. When asked about whether they are motivated by the profession's need for creativity and its boosting creativity, 85% of the participants conclude that journalism's allowing for creativity during the educational phase is motivating.

Popular journalist with a lot followers/readers are considered to have a very good income and to have secure jobs. Deriving from this point, motivational power of individual's income rate is also interrogated. 78% of the participants state that the income is an important source of motivation. Similar results are gathered when asked about job security. 62% of the participants state that journalism's being a profession with a job security is an important motivational source.

Creating opportunity to meet and connect with different people is considered as an motivational factor and the participants are asked about this. 44% of the participants state that it is an extremely important motivational factor. 12% of them state that it is not important at all. Journalism is defined by the ones who perform the profession as a job that requires connecting with different types of people and making interviews and sometimes even establish close relationships with them. Events that individuals experience or witness in person are much more effective than the ones they only hear/read about. Journalists are sometimes first level and

sometimes second level witnesses to events that every one of us read at newspapers or watch at TVs.

Journalism is the profession that conveys the unknown to the public. The perception about journalism is "cool" and "exciting" profession. In other words, it is a prestigious occupation. 23% of the participants state that its being a prestigious occupation is extremely important for them, 27% of them state it is really important for them, 20% of them it is important, 14% of them state it is not important, and 16% of them state it is not important at all. In general, occupations are preferred because of reasons such as earning money, making a career, reaching the top or it is the most suitable job for that day but in journalism, ideals and desires of individuals step forward.

The dynamic structure of the job, the possibility of having a dynamic occupational life and the prestige generating from that are defined as motivational sources by 68% of the participants for selecting the school and the journalism profession.

When the participants are asked whether the poor professional ethics is a problem effecting / threatening the quality of journalism, 63% of them evaluate that to be a major threat. 15% of them state it is a big threat and 18% of them state it is a threat.

As a result of magazine programmes being dominant in the media sector at the beginning of 1990s, production processes of news and programmes are started to be defined within market circumstances. In the context of media/capital/technology relations, modifications started to show up in production processes of news and programmes, legal regulations, moral ethics understanding and relationships between politics. In modern societies; journalists, who transfer the information to the public, serve to make everyone heard by others. In this way, newspapers and journalists ensure that people are aware of different opinions and create environment that people can exchange ideas (Belsey and Chadwick, 1998, p. 41). The duty of the journalist is explained as "Seeing, hearing, feeling, understanding and recording the event, and finally narrating it honestly". In this context, honesty is the most fundamental element expected from a journalist. A journalist is expected to be unbiased while narrating the information to the society. Moral and ethics have always been significant matters in the profession of journalism. In the industrialized media structure in which the economic interests are determinant, it can be said that complying the professional ethical codes became a bigger problem than writing to increase the circulation of the newspaper.

Participants are asked about 11 fundamental situations in order to determine their ethical understandings and how they perceive the professional role of journalism.

Given a news story that you or another journalist could cover, which of the following, if any, do you think may be justified and which would you not approve of under any circumstances?

1   Always justified

2   justified on occasion

3   not approve under any circumstances

Ethical Condition	1 (n)	2(n)	3(n)
Paying people for confidential information	34	240	161
Using confidential government documents without authorization	54	244	137
Claiming to be someone else	43	263	129

Not protecting source confidentiality	78	122	235
Exerting pressure on unwilling informants to get a story	39	166	230
Making use of personal documents such as letters and photographs without permission	35	157	243
Using hidden microphones or cameras	45	274	116
Getting employed in a firm or organization to gain inside information	43	203	189
Using re-creations or dramatizations of news by actors	89	235	111
Publishing stories with unverified content	49	111	275
Accepting money from sources	49	113	272

Table 4. Ethical Condition

Participants are asked about whether journalists' having low ethical norms threats the profession and its future; 68% of them evaluate this situation to be extremely large threat. 4% of them state they definitely do not see it as a threat and 3% of them do not see it as a threat. 25% of them consider this situation to be a big threat.

In this context, students are asked to what extent they consider some specific situations to be acceptable. When asked about paying money for confidential information; 37% of them state it is unacceptable under any circumstance and 8% of them state it is absolutely acceptable. 55% of them state it can either be acceptable or not depending on the situation. This situation conflicts with the article no. 12 of the "Principles of Media Profession" by the Press Council; "A journalist performs his/her duties by avoiding methods and attitudes that can compromise the dignity of the his/her title", and the principle established by International Federation of Journalists-IFJ; "The journalist shall use only fair methods to obtain news, photographs and documents". It is notable that students of journalism department who consider losing ethical values as a big threat for the profession conflict with their own statements in this context.

When asked about publishing official documents without permission, 12% of the participants state it is not a problem, 56% of them state it can be acceptable according to the situation, and 32% of them state it is unacceptable. Similarly, when asked about publishing personal information and documents without consent, 56% of the participants state it is definitely unacceptable under any circumstances.

Participants are asked about a journalist's introducing himself as someone else and gather information with this method, 10% of the participants state it is acceptable under all circumstances, 60% of them state it can be acceptable according to the situation, and 30% of them state it is unacceptable under any circumstances.

When asked about revealing the source of information, 54% of the participants state it is unacceptable under any circumstances to reveal the source of information. 28% of them state that it can be revealed according to the situation, and 18% of them state it is not a problem to reveal the source of information. This situation does not comply with ethical code approved by International Federation of Journalist-IFJ "The journalist shall observe professional secrecy regarding the source of information obtained in confidence" and the ethical principle of Press Council "A journalist protects the identity of the information sources. The situation in which the resource attempts to manipulate the public for personal, political, economic, etc. reasons is an exception".

When asked about gathering information by suppressing eye witnesses or individuals who does not want to share information, 53% of the participants state it is unacceptable under any circumstances. 9% of them does not considers this as a problem, and 38% of them it can be acceptable according to the situation. Making news encouraging violence and bullying, and offending humanitarian values should be avoided, as gathering information from sources of information by bullying or other methods is a reason to question the ethical approach of a journalist.

Using hidden camera and microphone is one of the most debated issues in terms of journalism ethics. Participants are asked about their potential attitudes towards a material gathered without the knowledge and published without the permission of the interviewed source of information and 63% of them state it can be acceptable according to the situation.

Participants are also asked about starting to work in an institution/organization in order to gather/leak information from inside and publishing these information without the knowledge of the institution/organization. 47% of the participants state it can be acceptable according to the situation, 43% of them state it is unacceptable under any circumstances, %10 of them state it is no problem for them.

Even though it is not preferable to use enactment in TV news in particular, sometimes this method can be employed. Participants are asked about broadcasting enactments without mentioning it is an enactment; 54% of them state it can be used according to the situation, 20% of them state it is not an ethical problem.

One of the fundamental principles of journalism is not to publish unconfirmed information. When asked about this situation, 63% of the participants state it is unacceptable under any circumstances. 11% of them state it cannot be seen as a problem. %26 of them state it can be evaluated according to the situation. Complying with journalism principle which is the news that is possible to investigate by means of journalism cannot be published without investigating or confirming, publishing news gathered without an official confirmation or an insider volunteer to provide information causes to question the ethical identity of the journalist.

Accepting money from individuals, organizations or institutions involved in a news is another critical point in terms of professional ethics. When asked about this situation, 63% of the participants state it is unacceptable under any circumstances. 11% of them state it cannot be seen as a problem. %26 of them state it can be evaluated according to the situation. A journalist shall avoid methods and attitudes that can compromise the dignity of the title.

After all these questions, participants are asked about the future of journalism profession in Turkey; 40% of them state they are indecisive, 23% of them state they are definitely negative and do not have any hopes for this profession, 32% of them state they feel pessimistic about the profession, 3% of them state they feel positive about the future of the profession, and 2% of them state they are quite optimistic about the future of the profession.

When participants are asked how important to have a Journalism degree from a Faculty of Communication in order to pursue a career in this profession, 49% of them state it is definitely essential to receive journalism education. 35% of them state it is required but any degree obtained from other departments is not an obstacle to perform this profession, 9% of them state they are indecisive, and 7% of them state it is not required to receive special education to perform the profession of journalism.

CONCLUSION

It is quite wrong to claim that communication education at a bachelor level continuing longer

than a half century in Turkish universities is getting institutionalized. Education that was primarily started as journalism education/communication education continue in the frame of communication education in both state and private universities, vocational schools, and private educational institutions. Dating from the beginning of both journalism education and communication education; variables such as media, capital, technology, and politics have become effective on journalism/communication education. Effects of the variables show differences according to the years. In the beginning years of journalism/communication education, relations between media/education/politics became effective, while between the end of 1960s and 1971, plus onwards from the end of 1990s, it can be observed that relations between the variables capital/media/education/politics have become much more complex. At the beginning of 1990s, relations between variables capital/media/technology/politics have increasingly become more effective.

As long as social, economic and technological developments alter the relation between the producers and consumers, problems can be experienced even with definitions and applications of traditional professions. Bertrand (2000, p. 23) claims that journalism was not a profession: Journalism is based on an organized science subject with a global model including a systematic information cluster. It is not obligatory to perform journalism to obtain a university diploma proving the educational process or to take a set of exams. Journalists do not require any kind of licenses to perform their occupations.

Ethics, which is an important sub-branch of philosophy, is a much debated and studied field in media and journalism. Ethics define and investigate actions of good and bad individuals. That is why it is a vast and productive study field with uncertain borders that investigates all human related structures and human action in these structures in fields such as medicine, law, politics, and media. Ethics of journalism is to try to answer the question "What is the correct action in journalism?" Especially in twentieth century, discussions about journalism and media ethics often come up. The reason behind the increase and density of the discussions can be explained as the tension emerged from the transformation of public duty of the journalism and the media into a tool for manipulative power groups.

As the stress on individualism in modern life increases, search for new ethic codes in every aspect of the life also increases. Ongoing search for ethic codes in journalism show similarity to this situation. Continuous increase in the search for ethic codes also points out the sectional structure of the modern life and moral discomfort of individuals who have to cope with this structure. Yet, societies tend to solve this discomfort with different ethic codes specific every different field as a results of individualism rather than solving it on a political ground with an ethical understanding. Ethic that is imposed to journalists individually is not only pointless in this structure but also makes the journalist forget the social connection of the profession and relation with the democracy. The form of the news get ahead of its content and social connection as journalist codes get ahead of social and political meaning of the profession.

In an article which discusses the philosophical ethics and professional ethics, Kuçuradi (2000, p. 30) states that ethical problems in journalism did not start with camera tricks, photo montages or made up news; ethical issues in journalism "are problems arise from individuals who are journalists among others things and use journalism as a tool for his/her own personal objectives that are not related with journalism." According to the writer, the basis for the problems in journalism is related to the purposes of journalism and this purpose is "to make it possible to know about what is happening in the world and contribute to the public to use their right to form their own opinions about the ongoing events" (Kuçuradi, 2000, p. 29). Considering that principles about the professional ethics for journalism started when the media started to produce as a commercial initiative within market conditions, their historical similarities become

clearer. If we attempt to deal with journalism ethics based on universal principles, we need to perceive democracy in an emancipatory perception considering obstructive points in liberal definition - as in "freedom" and "equality" notions - and in this process we need to define journalism as a "representative perception that will contribute to the right of individuals forming their own opinions (İnal, http://ilefarsiv.com/etik/tarihsel-gelisimi-icinden-gazetecilik-etigini-yeniden-dusunmek/)

A majority of the problems and difficulties that conventional journalism face in practice arise from the inevitable conflict between serving the public and serving to the market. Aiming to create a new journalism style aspiring to mutual communication with readers instead of conventional one-way news feed requires the role of journalist to be re-defined. In this situations, discussions arise causing to question the conventional role of the journalist. These discussions should focus on whether the journalists would only question the failing parts of the system or generate solutions for this problems; and whether they will remain as independent supervisors or be participants in search of solutions. As a conclusion from the study, it will not be inaccurate to claim that students studying at Journalism department at Faculties of Communication are confused in terms of ethical code. The underlying reason of some specific subjects which were strictly unacceptable to this day but can now be evaluated as applicable or acceptable according to the situations is the changing media order, developing technology and the change it brings to media and broadcasting industry.

For further studies, it will be on point to perform a detailed qualitative research involving journalists who are also in managerial positions as well as students and get into the subject thoroughly by evaluating it from multiple dimensions.

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