

Influences on Job Expectations Among Chilean Journalism Students

CLAUDIA MELLADO

Pontificia Universidad Católica de Valparaíso, Chile

ANDRÉS SCHERMAN

Universidad Diego Portales, Chile

Based on a survey conducted in Chile with 1,985 journalism students from 14 public and private universities, this article analyzes the students' job expectations as well as the main factors that explain their career aspirations. The results show that 66% want to work in journalism, 15% in public relations (PR), 8% in teaching and research, and 11% in other areas. Logistic regression analyses demonstrate the importance of educational socialization in their job expectations. Each additional year in an undergraduate degree program increases the likelihood of being interested in working in public relations and teaching and research (rather than in journalism). Being a woman reduces the probability of wanting to work in journalism and increases the interest in having a position in PR. Finally, students with motivations based on job security are more likely to be interested in working in PR.

Keywords: journalism students, job expectations, journalism, Chile, educational socialization

Formal university studies in the field of journalism have increased over the years in an effort to professionalize the activity and improve the training of those who work in it. Following the early 20th-century trend of establishing journalism schools in North American, German, and French universities, the number of university programs in journalism has increased exponentially around the world (Splichal & Sparks, 1994; Weaver & Willnat, 2012). In the case of Chile, a university degree in journalism has become an almost indispensable requirement to start working in the media. The latest study by Weaver and Willnat (2012) on the profiles and views of journalists in more than 30 countries finds that, in most of these countries, at least

Claudia Mellado (corresponding author): claudia.mellado@pucv.cl

Andrés Scherman: andres.scherman@udp.cl

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two-thirds of them have a university degree. Journalism education is considered important because it “perpetuates or modifies professional practices” (Gaunt, 1992, p. 1). In fact, it is increasingly common for journalists to obtain university degrees in journalism. The latest Chilean figures show that more than 80% of those working as journalists studied the career at the university (Mellado, 2012).

In this context, different political and economic changes in society, and specific social contexts in particular, have led to a reconsideration of approaches, definitions, and of the role of journalism (Deuze, 2006; Reese, 1999; Zelizer, 2004). In addition, the internationalization of journalistic education has contributed to an increasingly complex scenario with models of Western-style journalism extending to non-Western countries.

Job Expectations

One question that researchers of journalism education try to address is to what extent students who are studying journalism really want to be journalists, understanding journalism as the activity that involves reporting, evaluating, and producing news and information of public interest (American Press Institute, 2016). It might seem logical that journalism students would want to work as journalists; however, this assumption is not necessarily supported by empirical evidence. A British study found that only 75% of journalism students were sure they wanted to work in journalism, 23% said “maybe,” and 1% said “definitely not.” This percentage declines as the students advance in their studies, with only 53% of seniors saying that they are sure they want to work as journalists (Hanna & Sanders, 2007). Similarly, a Brazilian study of 400 students found that 39% wanted to work in the field of public relations, almost the same percentage as those who wanted to work in journalism (Schwingel, Melo, & Figueiredo, 2004).

Undoubtedly, journalists can develop their professional aspirations by experiencing different situations in various environments and by interacting with multiple sources, including those from the educational field. The role of university education in the training of journalists has generated a wide debate; however, studies that consider the perceptions of journalism students are scarce. Recent research on journalism education has focused on aspects such as curricula and the opinions of professional journalists and educators on this subject. Nevertheless, the perceptions, expectations, and vision of students on the future of the field and the profession have received less attention (Mellado et al., 2013).

Most previous studies have been confined to Western countries, mainly due to the delay in the establishment of schools of journalism in the rest of the world, the limited research developed in this field, and the ambiguity in the nature and meaning of the words *journalist* and *journalism*. For example, little is known about the relationship between journalism and other areas of communication in Latin America, a part of the world that has experienced significant economic growth in recent decades and where the field of communication in general—and specific areas such as public relations—has remarkably expanded (Ferrari, 2009).

There is no systematic research available on the areas preferred by journalism students to develop professionally, or whether they really want to work as professional journalists. Although previous studies in Chile have analyzed the general profile, roles, and attitudes, as well as the motivations and

ideals of people studying journalism as a profession, the samples used in these studies are not representative (Hanusch et al., 2015; Mellado et al., 2013).

One of the concerns of many studies on journalism education has been whether educational socialization has an impact on the way journalism students feel and think about their profession. Existing studies have yielded inconclusive results. Some studies suggest that university education has a significant influence on students' points of view and attitudes—and consequently on their future work (Becker, Fruit, & Caudill, 1987; Splichal & Sparks, 1994)—but others have found limited influence (Bjørnsen, Hovden, & Ottosen, 2007; Hanna & Sanders, 2007). Analyzing the data of journalism students from eight countries, Hanusch and Mellado (2014) found that the year of study was related to the main journalistic role the students considered important: Students who were closer to finishing their education were more likely than freshmen to support the role of watchdog.

Gender can also have an impact on job expectations. Previous studies have shown that men and women have different preferences once they finish studying and enter the labor market. Mellado, Salinas, Del Valle, and González (2010) found, through a survey of Chilean journalists, that more than 50% of professionals working in the field of public relations were women. This figure was reduced to 38% for professionals working in the media. Similarly, Chilean female journalists are more likely than men to work in all subareas of the PR industry: in the public sector, in private companies, in the education sector, as outsourcing consultants, and in civil society. Some studies find gender differences in the preferences that journalism students have on different journalistic beats. In Denmark, Kæmsgaard, Møller and Bendix (2016) found that women's main focus was on issues such as consumer, service, and health, whereas men's preferences focused on traditional subjects such as sports and the economy. This result is consistent with other studies that have analyzed gender differences among professional journalists (Craft & Wanta, 2004; Kim & Kim, 2005; Lumby, 1994; van Zoonen, 1998).

Another important aspect in journalism education is the motivations that students have when choosing the career as their future profession. Several international studies have found different dimensions related to different motivations to study journalism. Splichal and Sparks (1994) surveyed students in 22 countries and found that two-thirds had decided to study journalism because they liked the profession, four out of 10 because they had writing skills, two in 10 because they liked to travel, one in 10 for the possibility of changing society, and only 4.5% for the salary. Hanna and Sanders (2007) studied British journalists and found that the majority had enrolled in journalism because it suited their personality and was an interesting occupation, while three of 10 said that their main motivation was their love for writing; motivation for public service was a priority for 16%. In the case of Chile, Hanusch et al. (2015) found that the most relevant motivations for Chilean students were their preference for journalism as a profession (38%), their talent and enjoyment of writing (20.7%), and the possibility of changing society (8%).

To address these issues in journalism education research, this article examines the issue of job expectations in future journalists as a central component in both the development of the field and the studies on education in the area. Specifically, it presents the results of a study on journalism students enrolled in 14 Chilean journalism programs throughout the country.

Chile is a relevant case for the study of journalism students' job expectations. In addition to being part of Latin America—a region that has received little attention in the study of professionalism in journalism—there are other reasons that make the case interesting. Since the end of the 1980s, Chile has had strong economic growth that, with some ups and downs, has maintained until the present.² As a result, a major public relations industry emerged, which employs more than 40% of students who complete journalism studies at the university. Also, since the late 1980s, journalism education has expanded, with more universities offering the degree and more students enrolled in the programs. There are about 50 journalism and mass communication programs in 36 universities of the country, and more than 9,000 students, undergraduate and graduate, are enrolled in them (Mellado, 2011; Mellado et al., 2010; Mineduc, 2016).

Based on previous literature, this article focuses on the following research questions:

RQ1: What are the main job expectations of journalism students in Chile, and how do they change during the course of their studies?

RQ2: Is there a significant relationship between the job expectations of Chilean journalism students and their educational socialization, their motivations to study journalism, their gender, the university type, and their socioeconomic level?

Journalism and Social Communication in Latin America

What constitutes journalism, its boundaries and definitions, and how are educational institutions related to the professional community? All these are crucial questions that journalism schools have had to address in the field identity debate (de Burgh, 2005; Franklin & Mensing, 2010; Mellado, 2010; Reese, 1999; Zelizer, 2004). Authors such as Franklin and Mensing (2010) have argued that if the new areas of work that have emerged in the field are relevant to students and society, then it is necessary for educators to understand how these areas dialogue with journalism and how this diversification shapes the education of future journalists. In this context, Frith and Meech (2007) wonder whether journalism should be treated as “an occupation in itself or rather as a general term for various occupations” (p. 144).

Several researchers agree that journalism is that which is developed through the processing, production, and management of news information in a mass media (Del Real, 2005; Weaver & Wilhoit, 1996). Most European and English-speaking countries separate the study of journalism and communication in different fields of education and programs. However, Chilean journalism education has brought together the curricula and training of both areas of study in a single program.

This scenario is particularly complex in Latin America due to the strong influence that the Centro Internacional de Estudios Superiores de Comunicación para América Latina (International Center for Higher Education in Journalism in Latin America, or CIESPAL) has exerted on journalistic education.

² In the period 1990–2015, poverty fell from 38.6% to 11.7% and gross domestic product per capita increased from US\$4,407 to US\$ 22,316 (World Bank, 2016).

Introduced as a UNESCO initiative in 1959, CIESPAL advocates a combination of journalism and studies on communication, a model that has been followed by most journalism schools throughout the region to date. Because CIESPAL has influenced Latin American university institutions since the 1960s (Marques de Melo, 1988), journalism and communications have coexisted within Chilean journalism schools. Their curricula have included elements directly related to strategic communication, advertising, public relations, and the production of content for entertainment in addition to journalistic methods and the study of news, a set of competencies that CIESPAL considered necessary to educate a "polyvalent communicator" (Mellado, 2010).

Many Latin American researchers have acknowledged the lack of distinction between the professions coexisting in the field of communication as well as the decontextualized assimilation of foreign models (Beltrán, 1976; Marques de Melo, 1988). In fact, the educational and professional context of most developed countries differs from the hybridization and mix with which Latin America has historically dealt—for example, the education and practice of journalism and public relations. Although university programs in journalism and public relations exist as separate careers, a large percentage of professionals working in public relations hold a university degree in journalism (Aguirre, 1998; Canelón, 2005; Mellado et al., 2010).

With the explosive increase in enrollment that journalism experienced in Chile, especially from the late 1980s to the late 1990s, journalists have diversified their professional options in the field of communication, empowered by the professional title (journalist) and the academic degree (social communicator) they obtain when finishing their studies.

Regardless of the curricular options offered by universities, the new demands of society have led journalism graduates to seek new areas of employment. In recent decades, employment trends for university graduates of journalism have shown that a significant percentage of these professionals are not employed by traditional mass media organizations, but rather by the field of public relations, advertising, and entertainment, among other areas of the field of communication (Humanes & Roses, 2014; Mellado et al., 2010; Willnat & Weaver, 2006).

The study of Mellado et al. (2010) reveals the diversity of professional options for journalists in Chile—a situation that can be extrapolated to other regions of Latin America and that distinguishes at least four areas of work that can be performed by these professionals: (1) production of news content, an area exclusively dedicated to news media, where journalists work in newsrooms and/or press departments; (2) production of miscellaneous content, a segment composed of professionals who generate informative content for spaces or platforms that seek mainly to entertain; (3) teaching or academic research, an area composed of journalists who teach journalism students or develop research projects in university institutions; and (4) corporate communications, an area that focuses on the production of content for nonjournalistic organizations (private companies, the public sector, or civil society organizations) and in the development of communication strategies.

In Chile, most employed journalists work outside the area of production of content for news media. According to the most recent figures from a 2008–2009 census conducted in four regions of the country, 40.8% of journalists work in the production of information content, 36.1% in the field of

corporate communication, and the rest in the production of miscellaneous content or in teaching (Mellado et al., 2010). Despite these potential employment options, most journalism programs in Chile tend to prioritize the development of skills associated with journalistic production, with less than 10% of their subjects specifically related to public relations or other areas of the field of communication (González, 2011).

The strong presence of corporate communication and activities other than those related to journalism in mass media seems to have an important influence on university students still in training. In a comparative study of eight countries with different levels of development and cultural characteristics (Hanusch et al., 2015), Chilean journalism students expressed the highest preference for working in nonjournalistic areas (38.5%), surpassing their peers in Switzerland (30.7%), Brazil (27.2%), Mexico (25.2%), the United States (24.9%), South Africa (21.2%), Australia (20.7%), and Spain (12%). The same study also found that the students' interest in working as journalists in the production of news content declines gradually, but steadily, as they continue their university education. Although 29.5% of all students starting their studies declared their preference for working in nonjournalistic areas, this figure increased to 47.7% for those in their last year. This tendency was repeated in all countries participating in the study, with the exception of Switzerland (Hanusch et al., 2015).

Despite the differences in the work of journalists in the news media and of professionals working in corporate communication, advertising, and teaching and education, among other fields, these groups share values associated with the practice of their profession, feeling part of the same community (Mellado & Hanusch, 2011). In this sense, Chilean professional journalists seem to share a similar view of what is the professional field of journalism.

The Chilean Context

To better understand the job expectations of Chilean journalism students, it is important to consider the historical context of journalism education in Chile. In Chile, a country with 17 million inhabitants, journalism is taught only in universities, with about 35 journalism programs currently offered in public and private universities. More than 8,000 undergraduate students and nearly 700 graduate students enroll in these programs each year.

After journalism schools were established under the influence of CIESPAL in Chile in 1959, they gradually became more general communication departments in the early 1960s (Marques de Melo, 1988; Mellado, 2010). The study of public relations, as well as of organizational and strategic communication and advertising, was gradually incorporated into the curriculum of journalism. Until the late 1970s, public relations was not considered a professional career in Chile, but was treated as a set of specific courses that the new polyvalent communicator needed to study. Meanwhile, public relations were practiced by senior journalists or by those who had studied journalism, and their work was socially perceived to involve primarily event planning and propaganda (Herrera, 2010). The teaching of public relations in professional institutes began only in the 1980s, during the regime of Augusto Pinochet, as a two-year technical program. However, journalism graduates were still preferred for those jobs, because formal five-year university education gave them greater legitimacy in the eyes of employers (Ferrari, 2009).

Advertising, in contrast, began to be taught in Chile in the 1960s as a technical program. It was not until the 1990s that universities began offering it as an undergraduate degree. The lack of professionals specifically trained in advertising allowed professionals from other areas—such as designers, journalists, and business managers—to occupy jobs in the advertising industry for many years. This last group promoted and created the basis of the advertising industry as we know it today.

Additionally, after the 1973 coup d'état, the military dictatorship, in response to the emergence of political movements in universities and demonstrations against the regime, closed most of the journalism schools across the country. Undoubtedly, this frustrated the development of the profession in Chile. It was not until the late 1980s that schools were reopened and new journalism programs were allowed to flourish.

The rapid and unregulated growth of the university programs of journalism and communication, shaped by the economic policies in force during and after the end of the Pinochet regime, led to the hiring of new educators to meet the demand generated by the large number of new students. However, many of them did not have more than an undergraduate degree. Furthermore, several nonprofessional journalists (who had learned the trade on the job) were recruited as journalism educators, without any previous connection with the academic world, or with studies related to corporate communication or advertising.

Method

The data presented in this article are based on a survey of 1,985 Chilean journalism students. The purpose of the survey was to analyze journalism students' perception and vision of their career, journalistic education, and their future employment. This study is part of an international project called Journalism Students Across the Globe, which is conducted simultaneously in more than 30 countries to capture the vision of journalism students in different political, economic, social, and cultural contexts. To investigate the job expectations of journalism students and how they perceive their university education, we used data collected in two levels of analysis: academic institutions and students.

First, of all the journalism programs in the country, we chose 14 that were offered by universities with different characteristics to cover the diversity of journalistic education in Chile, making the sample representative. In some cases, journalism schools prepare their students for the production of news in mass media, whereas others are more inclined toward the production and dissemination of content related to public relations and/or advertising. In contrast, some academic institutions emphasize theory, while others give higher priority to practice and technical skills. In addition, some journalism schools specialize in the production of news for traditional media (newspapers and magazines), and others specialize in television or digital/multimedia journalism.

Universities can also be classified according to their geographical location (capital or regions), their ownership (state or private), and whether they are part of the Council of Rectors of Chilean Universities, which represents state and private universities founded before 1981. This separation is commonly known as traditional and nontraditional universities, the first being state universities and private universities with a public mission that are larger and more complex than other private universities

and much more oriented to the creation of new knowledge, while the other private universities are more oriented to teaching.

For this study, the students surveyed belong to these two groups of universities in four regions around the country: Metropolitana, Valparaíso, Antofagasta, and Biobío. These four territorial areas represent northern, central, and southern Chile and cover 80% of the journalism education offered in the country. Finally, certain demographic variables such as gender and socioeconomic class could also shape the vision of future professionals. Journalism students were defined as those enrolled in undergraduate programs in these universities.

Second, we conducted a survey of students enrolled in the 14 selected journalism programs. Specifically, all students of each year within each of the chosen programs were asked to answer voluntarily a self-administered paper questionnaire in their classrooms (see Table 1). We received support from faculty members in each of the sampled journalism programs to contact students and to obtain permission to conduct the survey during teaching hours.

Table 1. Participating University Institutions and Response Rates.

Institution	Total number of journalism students	Response rate
U. Santo Tomás	95	85.3%
U. Finis Terrae	177	65.5%
U. Alberto Hurtado	125	88.8%
U. de Chile	403	69.9%
U. Diego Portales	521	64.2%
P. U. Católica de Valparaíso	196	79.5%
U. Católica del Norte	174	64.9%
U. de Concepción	196	97.4%
U. de los Andes	182	84.6%
Uniac	132	71.2%
U. Central	128	73.4%
U. del Pacífico	103	52.4%
U. Mayor	71	70.4%
Usach	217	75.5%

About 56% of the students who answered the survey were women, 77% studied in the capital, and 23% studied in the regions. Also, 78% belonged to private universities (22% to state universities), and 46% to traditional universities.

Before completing the questionnaire, the students were informed about the goals of the study and of the fact that their participation was voluntary and anonymous. The set of questions and scales used to measure students' perceptions about different aspects of journalism education and about their future profession was developed by the central team leading the international project in which this study takes

part. The original questionnaire was written in English. For this study, the questionnaire was translated into Spanish and back-translated into English to ensure the accuracy of the translation.

In total, 1,985 questionnaires were completed. Answering the questionnaire took an average of 15 to 20 minutes per student. The response rate at each university ranged from 52.4% to 97.4%. To establish that the different response rates obtained in each program did not generate biased results, we compared the basic sociodemographic variables between respondents and the total number of students in each program. According to the results, the respondents and nonrespondents were fairly homogeneous; there were no significant differences between the groups in terms of gender, age, and year of study. The questionnaire was administered between March and May 2014.

Measures

We used different data analysis procedures to answer our research questions. First, we used descriptive statistics. Second, we conducted a multinomial logistic regression, considering the professional areas in which the students wanted to work as the dependent variable. Specifically, the question used to obtain our dependent variable was, "If you could choose, which professional area would you like to work in after you finish your studies?" (journalism: 65.6%; public relations/corporate communication: 15.1%; advertising: 2.9%; teaching and research: 8.4%; and other: 8%). The model introduced three types of independent variables: the year of study, the motivations to study journalism in the university, and some control variables.

Due to the evidence found in previous studies and the interest of this study on the influence of educational socialization in the attitudes of journalism students, one of the independent variables included was the progress of students in their education. About 33% of respondents were in their first year, 21% in the second year, 17% in the third year, 17% in the fourth year, and only 12% were in their fifth year (which, in Chile, is the last year).

Respondents were also asked to rate the importance of different motivations to study journalism. Each item was classified on a scale with a minimum value of 1 (*not important*) and a maximum value of 5 (*extremely important*). Subsequently, we conducted a factorial analysis that allowed us to group the motivations in four different dimensions and to create indexes for each one.

The first group was called *professional motivations* and included the following elements: the opportunity to help people in their daily lives, the chance to influence the audience, fight against injustice, working for freedom and democracy, helping in nation-building, to hold those in power accountable, and to help the government achieve its goals for national development ($M = 3.36$, $SD = 0.82$, and Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.84$).

The second group was called *personal development motivations* and included the following elements: varied and lively work, a dynamic lifestyle, and the opportunity to meet different people and to travel ($M = 3.93$, $SD = 0.80$, and Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.72$).

The third group was called *job security* and included the following elements: to get a secure job, the prestige of journalism as a profession, and the amount of money that can be earned ($M = 2.73$, $SD = 0.97$, and Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.72$).

Finally, we calculated an index for *vocation and creativity*, including two elements: to be able to be creative and the pleasure of writing ($M = 3.86$, $SD = 0.91$, and Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.44$).³

We also included the following control variables: gender (female: 56.4%), type of university (traditional: 45.6%; nontraditional: 54.4%), and socioeconomic level of the student (lower class: 11.3%; middle class: 55.8%; upper class: 32.8%).

Results

Job Expectations Among Chilean Journalism Students

Overall, most journalism students in Chile want to work as journalists. In fact, two of three respondents are sure they want to work in journalism once they finish their studies. This trend is similar to the one found by previous national studies. Hanusch et al. (2015), for example, found that 38.5% of the Chilean journalism students surveyed wanted to work in areas other than traditional journalism.

Meanwhile, 15% of journalism students would like to work in public relations/corporate communication, whereas other options, such as teaching (8%) and advertising (3%), are less likely to be among students' job expectations (see Table 2). However, when analyzing data according to the progress of students in their education, the results change significantly. In fact, as students move forward in their studies, their interest in working as journalists diminishes. Although 73.2% of first-year students are sure they want to work in the media, this figure is reduced to 50% by the fifth year, when students are ready to enter the job market. These figures are similar to those previously found in Chile by Hanusch et al. (2015).

Table 2. Job Expectations by Students Once They Finish Their Studies.

Professional area	Percentage
Journalism and mass media	66%
Public relations/corporate communication	15%
Advertising	3%
Teaching and research	8%
Other areas outside the communication field	8%

³ These dimensions are similar, but not equal to those found by Hanusch et al. (2015) when analyzing the motivations for studying journalism between different countries, including Chile. The importance given to different aspects that could motivate students to study the career is also different from the results of that study, probably because the samples were not representative.

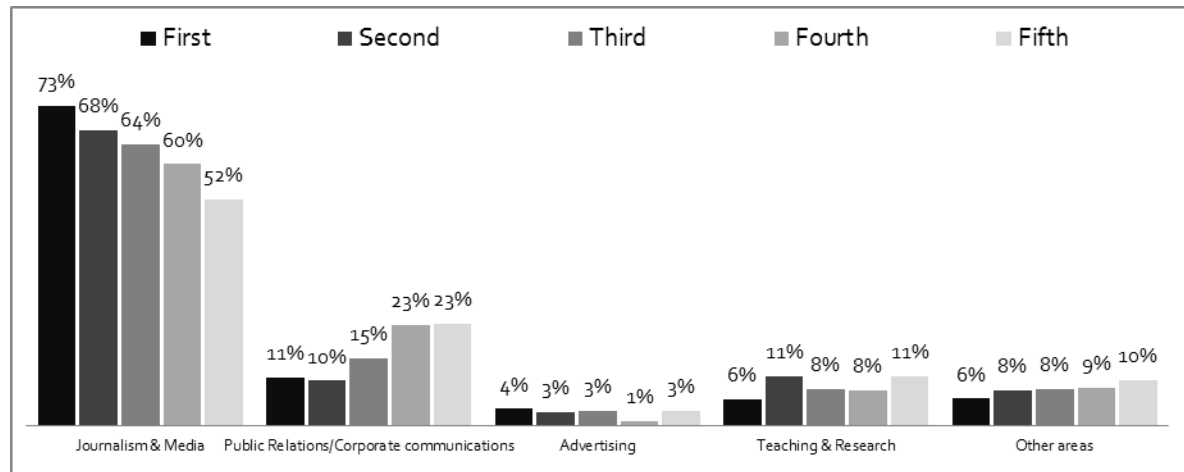


Figure 1. Job expectations according to year of study.

The data also show that, although interest for working in journalism declines among students as their studies progress, the desire to work in public relations increases. While only 11% of first-year students show interest in this area, the number of fifth-year students reaches 23.3% (see Figure 1).

Modeling Job Expectations Among Chilean Journalism Students

Logistic regressions analyses confirm, first, the relationship observed at a descriptive level between the students' job expectations and the year they are in the program. As shown in Table 3, for each additional year the students advance in their studies, their interest in working in public relations increases 1.37 times (compared with working in journalism, which was used as the reference category in our regression analysis). A similar situation can be observed when analyzing variables associated with the category teaching and research.

Each additional year of study increases by 1.18 the chances of preferring to work as an educator or researcher rather than as a journalist. In the case of advertising and other areas outside the field of communication (compared with working as a journalist in media), the year of study is not a statistically significant variable.

In terms of gender, being a man diminishes the likelihood that students will want to work in public relations once they complete their studies. The same situation arose when analyzing the variables associated with the desire to work as an educator or a researcher, although the incidence is substantially lower in the second case than in the first. These results are consistent with other studies that have shown an increase in the number of women educators in journalism schools during the last decades (Mellado et al., 2013) and also with studies that have shown that six of 10 female journalists actually work in communication areas other than traditional journalism (Mellado et al., 2010). For all the other areas under analysis, gender does not have a significant impact (see coefficients in Table 3).

Table 3. Logistic Regressions Results for Predictors of Job Expectations Among Chilean Journalism Students.

	β	SE	Wald	p (sig)	Odds ratio
<i>Public relations</i>					
Gender (male)					
Female	.864	.152	32.318	.000	2.373***
Socioeconomic status (upper class)					
Lower class	-.598	.256	5.450	.020	0.550*
Middle class	-.605	.152	15.807	.000	0.546***
Year of study	.020	.550	.020	.000	1.365***
Type of university (traditional)					
Nontraditional	-.193	.147	1.713	.191	0.825
Professional motivations	-.127	.099	1.671	.196	0.880
Personal motivations	-.180	.101	3.157	.076	0.835
Job security motivations	.355	.082	18.905	.000	1.427***
Vocation and creativity motivations	-.544	.083	42.604	.000	0.580***
<i>Advertising</i>					
Gender (male)					
Female	.517	.304	2.896	.089	1.677
Socioeconomic status (upper class)					
Lower class	-.915	.644	2.019	.155	0.401
Middle class	-.234	.314	.555	.456	0.791
Year of study	-.013	.109	.015	.902	0.987
Type of university (traditional)					
Nontraditional	-.455	.298	2.336	.126	0.634
Professional motivations	-.433	.201	4.611	.032	0.649*
Personal motivations	-.040	.218	.034	.853	0.961
Job security motivations	.327	.168	3.788	.052	1.386
Vocation and creativity motivations	-.124	.176	.495	.481	0.884
<i>Teaching and research</i>					
Gender (male)					
Female	.444	.182	5.975	.015	1.559*
Socioeconomic status (upper class)					
Lower class	-.029	.284	.011	.918	0.971
Middle class	-.202	.199	1.025	.311	0.817
Year of study	.165	.062	6.971	.008	1.179**
Type of university (traditional)					
Nontraditional	-.882	.184	23.050	.000	0.414***
Professional motivations	.347	.125	7.676	.006	1.415**
Personal motivations	-.487	.120	16.318	.000	0.615***
Job security motivations	.039	.102	.145	.704	1.040
Vocation and creativity motivations	.007	.109	.004	.951	1.007

Other areas outside communication

Gender (male)					
Female	.145	.187	.603	.438	1.156
Socioeconomic status (upper class)					
Lower class	.004	.293	.000	.989	1.004
Middle class	-.424	.203	4.359	.037	0.654*
Year of study	.089	.066	1.787	.181	1.093
Type of university (traditional)					
Nontraditional	-.588	.189	9.633	.002	0.555**
Professional motivations	-.552	.121	20.787	.000	0.576***
Personal motivations	-.013	.126	.010	.919	0.987
Job security motivations	-.275	.109	6.328	.012	0.760**
Vocation and creativity motivations	.058	.106	.294	.588	1.059
<i>N</i>	1.814				
Nagelkerke <i>R</i> ²	.171				

Note. Reference value: job expectations in journalism/news media.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Along with gender and the year of study, the model proposed also presents the effect that students' motivations to enter the career have on their job expectations. Students with motivations based on job security are more likely to work in public relations (compared with working in journalism and news media), whereas the opposite is true for students who have high vocational motivations: As these increase, the interest in working in corporate communication decreases.

In contrast, the motivations of personal development of Chilean journalism students have a significant and negative relation with their interest in teaching and research (compared with those interested in working as journalists). Therefore, as personal development motivations increase, the interest in a job in teaching and/or research falls and the interest in working as a journalist increases.

Regarding the interest in areas outside the communication field, the data demonstrate the importance of the professional motivations of students when they begin to develop their professional identity and aspirations. The results show that having a high level of professional motivation is inversely related to interest in working in areas outside journalism and communication (see coefficients in Table 3).

Finally, the students' socioeconomic level has little impact on their job expectations, and is a significant predictor only for those who hope to work in public relations (where belonging to low and middle socioeconomic levels decreases the possibility of expecting to work in public relations) and in the interest of middle-class students to work in areas outside communication. In addition, belonging to a nontraditional university (compared with a traditional one) decreases the interest of working in teaching and research as well as in other areas outside communication.

Discussion

Through a survey conducted with 1,985 Chilean journalism students, this study analyzed the job expectations of future journalists as a central element of the studies on journalism education, providing information on how students' visions are affected during their university experience as well as by sociodemographic and motivational factors.

The study was guided by the following formal research questions: What are the main job expectations of journalism students in Chile, and how do they change during the course of their studies? Is there a significant relationship between the job expectations of Chilean journalism students and their educational socialization, their motivations to study journalism, their gender, the university type, and their socioeconomic level?

Overall, the results reveal that most journalism students in Chile want to work in the production of news. However, when this preference is analyzed according to the year of study, the data show a significant decrease in interest in journalism as students advance in their studies and a greater interest in other areas, especially public relations/corporate communication, as demonstrated by previous studies conducted in the country (Hanusch et al., 2015). Nevertheless, future studies should be able to explain, perhaps by using other methods, whether the significant percentage of journalism students who do not work as journalists is a response to the perceived difficulties of finding exclusively journalistic work or whether it indicates that the perceived porous borders of the different careers that coexist in the journalistic field are not only established in the professional practice, but are already installed in the process of the educational socialization of journalism students (Deuze & Witschge, 2017; Franklin & Mensing, 2010; Medsger, 1996; Zelizer, 2015).

The results also reveal that students' job expectations are linked to three factors: gender, educational socialization, and motivations to study the career. The relationship between gender and job expectations is clear. Women students are more likely to be attracted to areas of communication other than journalism (e.g., public relations and teaching and research), which is consistent with previous research among Chilean students (Mellado et al., 2010; Mellado et al., 2013).

The process of socialization while studying journalism is especially relevant among students who want to work in public relations/corporate communication. As they advance in their studies, their interest in working in this area increases and their interest in working as journalists decreases; their interest in teaching/research or in areas outside the communication field also increases, although the strength of this effect is less than in the case of public relations/corporate communication. This finding is relevant, because it opens the debate not only on the education received by journalists in Chile but also on the professional identity generated within the classroom. Throughout their studies, many students do not consolidate their initial interest in working as journalists. On the contrary, the interest in working in public relations increases significantly, and motivations such as job security and salaries gain influence.

The analysis also recognizes the importance of motivational aspects in students' job expectations and in the formation of their professional identity. In all cases, with the exception of the group that

preferred to work in advertising, there is some kind of motivation that is the main predictor of the future field of work expected by students.

Certainly, analyzing journalism students' attitudes and perceptions about the profession allows us to study future journalists by providing information on how their visions are shaped during their university experience as well as by other individual and educational factors. In addition, this study allows us to broaden the study of job expectations, gender, and university education, using them as possible determinants of interest in working in different areas of communications instead of only measuring their influence in different areas of journalism and media.

Although this is the first study that analyzes, through a representative sample of journalism students in Chile, the factors that explain their job expectations, the study is not free of limitations. First, it does not include organizational variables with a greater focus on the structural characteristics of the universities where the career is offered, which could be an important aspect to consider in future research. Second, there is a need for comparative studies to incorporate the macro-social level in the analysis and to test the extent to which these results can be extended to other cultural, social, economic, and political contexts.

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