THE EDUCATIONAL TELEVISION STATION
IN HIGHER EDUCATION

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Chapter One

HIGHER EDUCATION, TELEVISION AND THE COMMUNITY

Educational television is higher education's brightest new hope for the enlightenment of all the American people. It is potentially an effective medium for distributing information, understandings, aesthetic experiences and entertainment to the majority of the public. Television offers our colleges and universities their latest and best opportunity to fulfill with new vigor and fresh techniques their obligation to educate the largest possible community beyond the campus. American higher education has shown a lively sense of its obligation to the community that supports it, whether the institution enjoys tax exemption privileges, as in the case of private colleges and universities, or is supported directly by public taxation. From early in our history higher education has been conceived of as a training ground for leaders — religious, educational, political, agricultural, industrial. Never before has higher education had a riper opportunity to extend its services, facilities, and ideals to the general public than through television — not even at the beginning of radio broadcasting which presented opportunities education
unfortunately was not particularly anxious to grasp. The history of educational radio is reviewed in chapter two.

Some institutions of higher learning have accepted the challenge offered by television and have risen to the occasion. Some universities and colleges have, within the past few years, acquired channels and equipment for non-commercial educational television broadcasting and are now broadcasting on a regular schedule. Other universities are closely allied with non-commercial educational television stations. Some universities and colleges are operating commercial television facilities; notably Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, Ames, Iowa; the University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri; University of Notre Dame, Notre Dame, Indiana.

Television broadcasting by American universities can be, and certainly ought to be, among their most

1. In January of 1957 the following are on the air: the University of Houston, Houston, Texas; the University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois; Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan; the University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebraska; the University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, North Carolina; the Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio; the University of Washington, Seattle, Washington; the University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin.

2. In the interest of economy of words and convenience the word "university" will be used throughout the dissertation for all institutions of higher education.
important undertakings. There are two reasons for this.

First, television is higher education's most recent potentially effective vehicle for developing and maintaining a society of free men. The achievement and assurance of such a society are education's main tasks. This idea will be discussed at some length later in this chapter and throughout the dissertation.

The second reason why television broadcasting ought to be one of the more important activities of our universities, is that the television industry while not among the very largest American industries it is a substantial, growing enterprise employing tens of thousands of persons. It is a vitally important institution from the standpoint of influencing the minds, morals and manners of the American people. Thus, our universities must of necessity be concerned with any institution of such influence, and economic magnitude. Television must be seriously studied as a social institution.

There are vocational aspects of the problem as well. Personnel must be trained in our colleges to work intelligently and effectively in the industry. These aspects of television and higher education will be dealt with in detail in chapter four.

This thesis will attempt to arrive at a worth-while, practicable philosophy for an educational television
station operated by an institution of higher learning, and finally to devise a plan of organization and administration whereby the station may successfully realize its purposes. Program guides will also be erected to govern the kinds of programs the educational station should broadcast. Additionally, the problem of training personnel in our universities for the commercial television industry as well as for non-commercial educational television stations will be explored.

The idea from which this dissertation begins is that the proper study of educational television in higher education is the examination of higher education itself. The role of the university television station is educational. Its purposes, its programs, its ideals and its administration and organization should be based on principles of American education, if it is to be a true educative arm of the university.

Higher Education and Television

To say, as was said above, "television is higher education's latest and perhaps most effective vehicle for developing and maintaining a society of free men," is to assume that a free society is American education's main business - its primary goal. It would be hard to find an educator today who would dispute that statement.
Education for a free society entails two types of programs not necessarily separate: one, the training of each person in some vocation, and two, the development of each person as a humane citizen of the world. The so-called "Harvard Report" puts it this way, "...the aim of education should be to prepare an individual to become an expert both in some particular vocation or art and in the general art of the free man and the citizen." 3

Perhaps it is "the general art of the free man and the citizen" that is the more basic of the two educational aims. Vocational skill means little in human affairs if held by an individual imprisoned by ignorance and provincialism, with his aesthetic tastes and creative abilities stunted or twisted.

Mr. Harold Taylor, President of Sarah Lawrence College says:

The purpose of liberal education is to make people free and to keep them that way. I do not mean free to do anything they wish, but free from the handicaps

of ignorance, intolerance, and illiberalism, and free to enjoy their own lives and to enrich the lives of others.4

The general art of the free man and the citizen is what has become known as "General Education." More specifically, for general education is a most inclusive term:

General education should give to the student values, attitudes, knowledge and skills that will equip him to live rightly and well in a free society. It should enable him to identify, interpret, select, and build into his own life those components of his cultural heritage that contribute richly to understanding and appreciation of the world in which he lives. It should therefore embrace ethical values, scientific generalizations and aesthetic conceptions as well as an understanding of the purposes and character of the political, economic and social institutions that men have devised.5

There have been a number of efforts to spell out in more detail the specific types of learning and experience


that constitute general education. The President's Commission on Higher Education and the well-known "Harvard Report" have set forth specific aims and purposes which seem to be satisfactory guide-posts for developing the substance of general education. Those two reports show clearly the increasing emphasis placed on education that trains for effective citizenship; for education in those, "...phases of non-specialized and non-vocational learning which should be the common experience of all educated men and women." It is "non-specialized and non-vocational learning" that gives the wide, liberal scope to general education. Special notice is taken of the idea that this kind of education should be the common experience of all men and women. Briefly, general education is "general" in two respects: both in its wide scope as to content and in its extension to all our citizens. The "Harvard Report" says, "...today we are concerned with a general education...not for the relatively few but for a multitude."

This true "generalness" of general education has significance for a mass medium of communications.


7. *p. ix.*
operated by an institution of higher learning. It may be assumed that the main business of the educational tele­vision station operated by a university should be the general education of all the citizens within range of the broadcast signal.

Specifically, as to the type of learning and knowledge that constitutes general education, both the President's Commission report and the "Harvard Report" are fairly concrete.

The President's Commission says:

The purposes (of general education) must be understood in terms of performance, of behavior, not in terms of mastering particular bodies of knowledge. . .to provide the kinds of learning and experience that will enable the student to attain certain basic outcomes, among them the following:

1. To develop for the regulation of one's personal and civic life a code of behavior based on ethical principles consistent with democratic ideals.

2. To participate actively as an informed and responsible citizen in solving the social, economic and political problems of one's community, state, nation.

3. To recognize the interdependence of the different peoples of the world and one's personal responsibility for fostering international understanding and peace.

4. To understand the common phenomena in one's physical environment, to apply habits of scientific thought to both personal and civic problems, and to
appreciate the implications of scientific discoveries for human welfare.

5. To understand the ideas of others and to express one's own effectively.

6. To attain a satisfactory emotional and social adjustment.

7. To maintain and improve his own health and to cooperate actively and intelligently in solving community health problems.

8. To understand and enjoy literature, art, music, and other cultural activities as expressions of personal and social experience, and to participate to some extent in some form of creative activity.

9. To acquire the knowledge and attitudes basic to a satisfying family life.

10. To choose a socially useful and personally satisfying vocation that will permit one to use to the full his particular interests and abilities.

11. To acquire and use the skills and habits involved in critical and constructive thinking.8

These eleven purposes of general education are somewhat more specific than the four principles suggested or proposed by the Harvard Committee in its report. Paraphrasing somewhat, they might be stated this way:

1. To develop effective thinking; that is, logical thinking. "To develop the ability to draw sound conclusions from

premises...to extract universal truths from particular cases, and, in turn, to infer particulars from general laws."

2. To communicate thought effectively: to develop clear expression. To promote and maintain a climate of free exchange of ideas.

3. To help one make relevant judgments. This involves the "ability of the students to bring to bear the whole range of ideas upon the area of experience."

4. To help one discriminate among values. This involves choice: the personal "code and creed lived up to." Here we find aesthetic values like "good taste" and "beauty." We have here a kind of education that develops both an, "awareness of not only different kinds of values but of their relations, including a sense of relative importance and of the mutual dependence of means and ends."9

These four purposes of general education for a free society are, substantially, those set forth as desirable in the "Harvard Report."

A close examination of the purposes listed above will immediately show their social orientation. The aims of higher education and general education as well, are actually a response to contemporary social need and interest.

And this is, perhaps, the most striking characteristic of American education: that it does now, and has historically, responded to the needs of society, to the nature of the American environment.

Even though higher education everywhere is socially oriented to some degree, the four general education goals of American education listed above give it the flavor of democracy and the faculty and students the taste for freedom. Where the goals of education are related to the social environment to an intense degree in totalitarian culture such phrases as, "to promote and maintain a climate of free exchange of ideas" (number two above), and, "ability of the students to bring to bear the whole range of ideas upon the area of experience" (number three above), would hardly be found in educational purposes. Indeed the inferences for education in the preceding quotations would be intolerable under totalitarianism. It should be added that the statement in number four above about the mutual dependence of means and ends is anathema to the totalitarian mind where ends transcend means and are the justifications for the means.

The liberal goals of higher education listed above have paramount significance for the operation, administration, and the program content of a non-commercial
educational television station. It is toward their achievement that the university station must strive.

The operation of a television station as an educational arm of the institution, is within the pattern of American higher education which, as will be shown in the next section, has conscientiously attempted to respond to the needs of society in a contemporary way, and to bring its services to an ever-widening public beyond the campus confines. It may be seen readily through a brief historical survey that our colleges and universities have tried almost from their beginnings in the 17th century to be of practical service to the society of which they were a part.

The Social Development of Higher Education

In 1636 the General Court of Massachusetts appropriated $400 pounds to establish a school or college (later known as Harvard) at Newtown, Massachusetts. Three centuries later, in 1950, there were in the United States 1,868 institutions of higher learning, two-and-a-half million students and two-and-a-half billion dollars worth of buildings and equipment. And phenomenal new growth is under way to which there seems to be no foreseeable end.

This amazing physical growth has actually been the result of social needs arising from profound social changes taking place in the country — namely,
industrialization and westward expansion.

American higher education's most rapid and novel growth came after the Civil War; nevertheless, the colleges did not escape the need to adapt to social requirements prior to that time.

In the Colonial period of our development higher education reflected in its curricula many of the educational traditions of Western Europe. This was because the American scholars being graduates of European universities were the teachers and administrators of the colleges. Nevertheless these men were aware of the need for college trained political and religious leaders for Colonial America. They did not escape the needs of a pioneer environment of which many of them were a part.

Numerous public officials and community leaders apparently had a clear grasp of the vital social importance of education. One finds the following enlightened and progressive declaration, dated 1780, in the "Constitution or Frame of Government of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts Part the First:

"...The Encouragement of Learning, etc. Wisdom, and knowledge, as well as virtue, diffused generally among the body of the people, being necessary for the preservation of their rights and liberties: and as these depend upon spreading the opportunities and advantages of education in the various parts of the country, and among the different orders of the people, it
shall be the duty of the Legislature and Magistrates. . . to cherish the interests of literature and the sciences and all the seminaries of them. . . to encourage private societies and public institutions for the promotion of agriculture, arts, sciences, commerce, trades, manufacturers, and a natural history of the country. . . 10

This response to public need had its roots in earlier documents on education. Harvard College was founded to train men in those arts and sciences which qualified them for public employment both in church and state. Yale University was founded in 1701 so that, "...youths may be instructed in the Arts and Sciences who... may be fitted for Publick employment both in Church and Civil State." Princeton University, King's College (later named Columbia University), William and Mary, and Dartmouth College were also among the first Colonial colleges to be established to train (among other aims)


ministers and political leaders for Colonial America.

Toward the end of the 18th century the federal government instigated what eventually became one of the most important factors in the social character and the amazing growth of American higher education: the setting aside of public lands for its support. In 1787, under the Articles of Confederation, the national government through ordinances pertaining to the Northwest Territory recognized the critical importance of higher education and first set aside public lands for its support. States, too, actively encouraged the growth of higher education by enacting laws for its public support:

The first state university to be established was that of North Carolina, which opened its doors in 1789, the year that our National Government was organized. Since that time, fifty-one of these institutions have been established in the several states and territories. 13

During the first half of the 19th century the intensified movement westward and the industrial adaptation


of scientific thought and discovery created the need for more universities and colleges across the country and, also, more professional and technical education. There then came a rapid westward spread of higher education institutions. To be sure these were mostly private academies and colleges religiously dominated and they were, in general patterned after the Eastern schools which supplied the faculty to teach in them. To list several: Allegheny, Meadville, Pa., 1815; Baldwin-Wallace, Berea, Ohio, 1845; Carroll, Waukesha, Wisconsin, 1846; Central, Pella, Iowa, 1854; Earlham, Richmond, Indiana, 1847; Georgetown, Georgetown, Kentucky, 1829; Grinnell, Grinnell, Iowa, 1846; Hanover, Hanover, Indiana, 1827; Kenyon, Gambier, Ohio, 1824; Knox, Galesburg, Illinois, 1837; Oberlin, Oberlin, Ohio, 1833, and many others. However, a few separate professional and technical schools appeared: approximately 30 medical schools and 4 engineering schools by 1862. Teacher training had already begun in normal schools at Concord, Vermont, and Lancaster, Massachusetts, in the 1820's.

Also, during the first half of the 19th century increasing pressures forced new courses into the curriculum. As one author has written:

There is no doubt that adaptation to social change was uppermost in the thought of many college educators throughout the nineteenth century, leading some venturesome spirits along paths at variance with the trodden road of tradition. Those who sought reform were generally the heirs of Jeffersonian liberalism. . . . They were aware of the growing importance of science, the increasing usefulness of modern languages and other branches of learning, and the needs of a rapidly advancing capitalism. Upon the other hand, they were growing skeptical of the claims of the formal classical curriculum as the proper basis of a liberal education.15

More professional departments were established. The nation's western boundaries were extended to the Pacific ocean while immense farm lands were opened up and as railroads and waterways were developed, interdependence of the West and East became an important factor. The industrial revolution was under way bringing profound and complex changes in the economic life of the country. Education continued to respond to the needs of this increasingly technical and professional society. In some

of the states agricultural, engineering and professional schools were established. In agriculture some were: Agricultural Seminary, Derby, Connecticut, 1824; Cream Hill School, West Cornwall, Connecticut, 1845; Farmer's College, College Hill, Ohio, 1833; Fellenberg School, Whitesborough, New York, 1831; Mount Airy Agricultural College, Mount Airy, Pennsylvania, 1847.

To the State of Michigan belongs the honor of having the oldest college of agriculture in North America. This institution is also the first to be established entirely on the basis of State support. The State Constitution adopted in 1850 made provision that the State legislature should establish and maintain a college of agriculture.17

Some schools of engineering were: The United States Military Academy, 1802; and the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, 1818. Perhaps engineering being closely related to


17. Loc. cit.

industrial development had to wait for its rapid growth until forced to do so by the great industrial surge during the second half of the century. Professional education (other than for those professions previously mentioned) was also making advancement prior to the middle of the 19th century. The medical college of Philadelphia, now a part of the University of Pennsylvania, and at Kings College, now Columbia University, as well as the law school at Harvard were in operation prior to 1815. A school of dentistry in Baltimore opened in 1937. Both Yale University and Harvard University had begun their schools of science.

But the greater response of higher education to social needs was yet to come. A significant factor in the modern development of American higher education was the land-grant college system.

In 1862 the first Morrill Act (named for Justin P. Morrill, United States Representative from Vermont)


authorized federal grants of land to each state.

The act provided for the establishment of a college in each state for the benefit of agriculture and the mechanic arts. For the support of these colleges, there was granted to each state an amount of public land equal to 30,000 acres for each senator and representative in Congress. The proceeds of the sale of these lands, according to the act, "Shall constitute a perpetual fund the capital of which shall remain forever undiminished. . . for the endowment, support and maintenance of at least one college in each State."

The purpose of the act was to provide for a college in each state "where the leading object shall be, without excluding other scientific and classical studies and including military tactics, to teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and the mechanic arts, in such manner as the legislatures of the States may respectively prescribe, in order to promote the liberal and practical education of the industrial classes in the several pursuits and professions of life."21

Succeeding legislative acts have increased federal and state support for higher education. According to the Encyclopedia Americana:

Supplementary federal legislation for the support of land-grant colleges includes the following: Second Morrill Act 1890, Nelson Amendment 1907, Adams Act 1906 (Endowment of Experiment

Stations), Smith-Lever Act 1914 (Cooperative Extension Work), Copper-Ketcham Act 1928 (Extension), Bankhead-Jones Act 1935, and Clarke-McNary Act 1924 (Farm Forestry). Under the terms of these acts, colleges or universities have been established in all of the states and three territories. Under the provisions of the Second Morrill Act (1890), separate colleges for colored students have been established in 17 states.22

There are some 70 land-grant colleges and universities receiving benefits under the federal acts.

But the land-grant program has meant more to education and to our American heritage than just the gift of land and the prescription of certain courses of study:

"First, it now clearly established that higher education shall not be limited to the well-to-do and to those entering the learned professions. Secondly, education in the applied sciences-technical and vocational training generally-now has status, now is respectable. Third, the performance of general public services and participation in a multitude of activities designed to serve the immediate needs of society are generally accepted as proper and important functions of higher educational institutions."23

And someone else once said, "That land-grant

22. Ibid.

...that most fully surrenders itself to the state and nation in a spirit of service, that institution shall truly be greatest among us."

The hope was to extend the boundaries of knowledge in all directions. Of course the state universities were now made more directly responsible for public service and for the education of that public outside the campus who supported this education by their taxes.

In the United States institutions of higher education may well be expected to become the primary agents for the education of the general public. Can any other educational institutions do the job as well? Probably not, since no other educational organizations have the human and physical resources.

In the light of the preceding social history of higher education, it comes as no surprise that first radio and now television have been accepted by our universities as proper ways of helping to achieve their society-

oriented ends. That our universities recognize the value of television broadcasting is apparent in their widespread, vigorous and concerted efforts early in television broadcasting development to have channels set aside for non-commercial educational use. A survey of these efforts is in the following chapter. By January, 1957, twenty-four non-commercial educational stations were broadcasting, seven of them being university operated. Three university affiliated stations were operating commercially; two non-commercial university stations were soon to go on the air; and four universities have either applied for a television channel or have construction permits for a station from the Federal Communications Commission. It is with hopeful pride that members of the university academic community and the public can look forward to the benefits of this latest response by our universities to the needs of our times. The tax-paying public has much to gain from the university television station.

Television and Adult Education

It is the responsibility of our colleges and universities to offer further education to all those citizens

who are no longer going to school. It is reasonable to expect this service because the colleges and universities are best equipped with the technical and the human resources to do the job needed in adult education. It is also the responsibility of higher education because it is only by continuing to educate every adult citizen, that higher education can achieve its own special objectives.

Adults, not young people, set the tone of the community. The community outside the schools has a weight and influence the schools cannot possibly have. If life in the community fails to illustrate the teaching of the schools, the individual is more apt to conform to the community more than he is to hold fast to the teaching of his school or college.26

The purposes of adult education may be considered as purposes of higher education as well. Both try to promote and secure individual freedom, both relate their aims to American democratic ideals of social justice, liberty, and equality, both teach skills and vocational competence, develop understandings, aesthetic tastes and interests, and provide information and guidance. The descriptions of adult education below show striking similarities with the purposes of general education in our universities. In the interests of brevity and clarity

for this study, some of the material following the quo¬
tation below has been changed from its original form.

Adult education is an instrument for
facilitating the growth of human per-
sonality and the development of a
better world. It operates by meeting
people's educational wants, supplying
their needs for information and skills,
developing their appreciations, and en-
riching their experiences; and in assist-
ing people in the solutions of their
common problems. These two objectives are
inseparable. Activities of adult educa-
tion take place in a community, the
world of first responsibility of
people.27

The authors proceed to elaborate both general purposes
and what they consider to be the social orientation of
adult education. Some of the purposes, paraphrased here
from the original material are:

1. To develop individual responsibility through active
citizenship in the community, the nation, and the
world.

2. To offer opportunity in democratic methods of
problem solving.

3. To develop, through providing information and oppor-
tunities, the ability and discipline of logical
reasoning.28

27. The Committee on Social Philosophy of the Adult
Education Association, Adult Education. May, 1953.

28. Ibid.
The heritage of our American universities, particularly the land-grant schools, suggests that they consider adult education among their most important tasks. The 1947 President's Commission on Higher Education goes so far as to say:

An expanded program of adult education must be added to the task of the colleges. This is a vital and immediate need because the crucial decisions of our time may have to be made in the near future. The colleges and universities should elevate adult education to a position of equal importance with any other of their functions...

Adult education, along with graduate and undergraduate education, should become the responsibility of every department or college of the university.29

It cannot be stated with enough emphasis that television broadcasting is potentially one of the best possible methods of carrying on much adult education. There are several reasons for this:

First, television is a highly popular mass medium and so is capable of gaining the attention of large numbers of adults—many more than can either on-campus or off-campus classroom courses offered by the colleges. It is in reaching the majority of adults that there is a major problem in adult-education. In the ten states with the strongest adult education programs just

about 5 percent of the adult population is enrolled.\textsuperscript{30}

Second, since two reasons adults seek further education are for aesthetic development (the fine arts, drama, literature, music), and improved citizenship training, the form and methods of television are particularly useful in advancing these kinds of general education among adults. Television is entertaining, personal, warm, informal — a compelling companion, a motivator. The whole broad content of the arts — music, the dance, drama, poetry, literature, the fine arts — can conveniently enter every living room. Furthermore, experiments and experiences in creation in the arts can be implemented by television. Facts and their relationships to men and events, current affairs, the content and the ways of the sciences — much of the information and understanding necessary for contemporary one-world-citizenship can be brought to the television screen.

The third reason why television may be the best possible way of carrying out some of the aims of adult

education lies in the nature of the adult learner himself.

It is common knowledge among adult education specialists that the usual, or conventional, methods of the classroom are seldom as successful with adults as they appear to be with youth. Here is a problem that provides the educational agencies with opportunities for experimenting with teaching methods, for using mass communications as educational tools:

It [the university] must take the university to the people wherever they are to be found and by every available and effective means for the communication of ideas and the stimulation of intellectual curiosity. It must not hold itself above using all the arts of persuasion to attract consumers for the service it offers.

They [adult] students appreciate a much greater degree of informality in atmosphere and method than characterizes most classroom teaching. Vigorous experimentation with new methods, however unorthodox, is called for.31

It would seem, on the basis of the foregoing remarks, that television ought to be an excellent way of bringing education to adults. And, in fact, television has proved itself in this way. Most of the educational stations and many commercial stations have

been broadcasting rather formal instruction-type adult education courses for the past few years — either credit or non-credit courses as the viewer wishes. Their general acceptance by their adult viewers may be assumed from the steady increase in the numbers of courses being offered. A survey conducted by Hideya Kumata showed that from September, 1950 to September, 1955 college credit courses offered over non-commercial and commercial television stations rose from two to more than 80. These figures were based on a 13% reply to a questionnaire mailed to 12 thousand persons. A total of 244 separate courses for college credit on open broadcast (to the public) were reported by 48 different institutions.

An interesting case study can be made of a recent adult education television experiment at KETC, St. Louis in cooperation with the Department of Mathematics of Washington University, St. Louis, and the Emerson Electric Company of that city. A five hour mathematics course was presented over KETC to 121 employees of the

electric company. The experiment proved so successful that, ". . .it is expected that KETC will re-schedule this course and perhaps others in the fall with many more companies participating. . .".

It would appear that adults have a lively taste for the formal education offered them on television. The less formal types of educational programs, are, perhaps, even more desired. Television is informal, intimate, sometimes experimental and unorthodox. Furthermore, the adult comes to educational television as he comes to school on our campuses — motivated to learn. They are there because they want to be there and choose to be there. Adults bring with them the next most important element in learning as well — a long and varied background of experience upon which to build and with which to develop meaningful relationships and concepts. When we educate we have time on our side:

. . .all education [for youth] is in some sense premature. The adult who

rereads his great authors realizes how much he had missed of their meaning when he read them in school or in college. Now his reading is more rewarding because his range of experience is greater.34

Perhaps this is why even the more formal type of television educational programs, "telecourses" or "teleclasses" are having notable success with their viewers. "Telecourses" often seem to be as effective, or in some instances even more effective, than are the same courses offered in the conventional way to students in the classroom on the college campus. A thorough description of the experience and experiments in this kind of education through television is in chapter four of this dissertation.

A Further Community Service by University Television

But it is not only through offering television programs for adult education that the university television station relates its institution's educational aims to the principal of community service. Another important community service of the college or university is that of serving the needs of the elementary and secondary schools in its service area. The schools have long been accustomed to turning to nearby colleges and universities

34. Harvard Committee: op. cit., p. 70.
for educational aid. It is only reasonable to assume that television programs supplementing the curricula of the schools within range of the broadcast signal will be broadcast regularly over the television station. Here again, the university has the facilities and resources, the schools the need to use them. In chapter five this problem will be treated extensively.

Implications for Organization and Programming

A fairly detailed analysis of the implications of this study for the operation and programming of the university television station will be found in chapter six. In this section, and wherever appropriate in chapters to follow, implications will be stated briefly and in only a general way based on the general principles at which we arrived in the chapter.

What are some general implications of the material in this chapter for the operation of the television station?

Organizational Principles

1. The station should be organized along lines appropriate to an American educational institution because this is what the university television station is. The station must be organized as democratically as possible with responsibility for its success being spread throughout the staff not residing only or strictly in the hands of the station manager, or the university president, or any other single chief administrative officer. Its organization should embody the ideals of democratic endeavor and democratic living.

2. The station must be carefully integrated with the total university program so that it may be a true
educational arm of the many areas of interest and activity of the university since it will be necessary to call upon them for help in programming. The faculty need to feel and to actually be an integral part of the television service.

3. Since community service is the main function of the station, representatives of the off-campus community must be included in certain of the plans and procedures, and in program planning and, at times, production.

General Guides for Programming

1. Programs should serve the varied vital interests and needs of the community. This includes the need for creating and maintaining a free society for free men as well as developing aesthetic tastes capable of enjoying and adding to the beauty of life.

2. Programs should be educational, providing a program service usually unavailable or incomplete in the community.

3. Programs for adults should be approached by those who prepare and present them in the spirit of experimentation, and with imagination.

Summary

Television provides higher education with the possibility of significantly increasing its educational service to the community. In America it has long been considered appropriate and necessary that institutions of higher education keep pace with social development and, also, to provide leadership and to aid in social development.

Higher education should provide both general education for enlightened freedom and citizenship, as well as professional training for its students.
Educational television may be considered to be particularly useful in extending university resources to the adult community. Not only is this a university responsibility, but by educating the adult community higher education can achieve its own special objectives since adults set the tone of the community to which the individual is more likely to conform than he is to his formal education. Adult education's aims are mainly those of higher education and so they may go forward closely, side-by-side.

Another reason television is particularly suitable for adult education is that it is a mass medium capable of coping with a mass job in unique, fresh educational ways adults will find generally more attractive than the conventional classroom procedures and atmosphere. Experience so far in adult education by television suggests that this is so.

A further community service by the university television station can be that of offering programs for in-school viewing in the community. The schools have long been accustomed to turn to the universities for aid and may be expected to receive an in-school television program service.

General implications of this chapter for organizing and programming the television station are as follows:
Organization

1. The television station is an educational arm of the university and thus should adhere to organizational principles appropriate to democratic education.

2. The station must be carefully integrated with the total university program to insure willing campus-wide participation in programming.

3. Representatives from the off-campus community must be included in appropriate areas of the administration and programming of the station.

Programming

1. Programs should meet the varied vital needs and interests of a democratic community of free, enlightened men.

2. Programs should be educational, providing a program service usually not available in the community lacking an educational station.

3. Programs for adults should reflect an appropriate spirit of experimentation and imaginativeness suiting the adult citizen's psychological orientation to education.
Chapter Two

THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT AND EDUCATIONAL BROADCASTING

Since the first radio regulation in 1927, the federal government has insisted that the public interest, including education, is the primary responsibility of broadcasters. The Radio Act of 1927, its replacement, the Communications Act of 1934, and subsequent decisions, reports, orders, and publications by the Federal Communications Commission have maintained that the public interest is the major criterion by which applicants for broadcast licenses are to be judged. Section 309 (a) of The Communications Act of 1934 as amended states:

If upon examination of any application provided for in Section 308 the Commission shall find that the public interest, convenience or necessity would be served by the granting thereof, it shall grant such application.1

Section 307 (a) says substantially the same thing, as does Section 303 which states in some detail the general powers of the Commission to insure that the public interest,

convenience, or necessity is served through broad-
casting.

The phrase, "public interest," has taken on specific
meaning over the years since 1927 when the first duty
of the Federal Radio Commission . . . was to give con-
crete meaning to the phrase, 'public interest' by
formulating standards to be applied in granting licen-

2

ses. . . ." Question number two of the renewal forms
preparation by the Federal Radio Commission in 1927 asked
applicants for broadcast licenses:"Why will the operation
of the station be in the public convenience, interest
and necessity?

(a) Average amount of time weekly devoted
to the following services (1) enter-
tainment (2) religious (3) commercial
(4) educational (5) agricultural
(6) fraternal."

In further refinement (although still rather un-
specific) of the meaning of "public interest" in 1929:

. . . .the Commission had formulated its
standard of the program service which
would meet in fair proportion, "the
tastes, needs and desires of all sub-
stantial groups among the listening
public." A well-rounded program ser-
vice, it said, should consist of

2. Federal Communications Commission, Public Service
Responsibility of Broadcast Licenses (Washington, D.C.;
Reprinted by National Association of Broadcasters,
"entertainment, consisting of music of both classical and lighter grades, religion, education, and instruction, important public events, discussion of public questions, weather, market reports, and news and matters of interest to all members of the family."  

Now one can see by the Federal Communications Commission presently used Form 303 on page 39 that the Federal Communications Commission has recently made even more meaningful the phrase, "public interest." Note the types of program content specified in Part I, Section 2 of the form on page 39. One notes that of the program types specifically mentioned and described (both as to past performance of the licensee and/or proposed future performance in programming) six out of seven specifically mentioned program types can be considered to be "public service" or "non-entertainment."

Therefore, it can be said that the Federal Communications Commission is quite specific as to what it means by "public interest," and that it is also clear and specific to the broadcaster from the moment he fills out his first application to broadcast. Education as an

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3. Ibid., pp. 33-35.
2. a. State for the composite week the percentage of time which was devoted to each of the following types of programs (totals to equal 100%):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Program</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religious</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Agricultural</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>News</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discussion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talks</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miscellaneous</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

b. State the percentage of time to be devoted to each of the following types of programs for a proposed typical week of operation under the authorization requested (totals to equal 100%). Attach program schedule for this proposed typical week:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Program</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Religious</td>
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<td>Agricultural</td>
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<td>Educational</td>
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<td>Discussion</td>
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<tr>
<td>Talks</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miscellaneous</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
element of broadcasting in the public interest, has rather broad implications as well as an interesting history and future.

Actually, the real meaning and scope of modern American education outlined in the preceding chapter are suggested on the form shown on page 39. Most of the program types mentioned — Religious, Agricultural, Educational, News, Discussion and Talks — are really educational material in the general sense of the word, "education."

Can it be assumed then, that the Federal Communications Commission is saying in effect that programming for general education in the public interest is the primary business of all broadcasters? It can be said with some certainty this is what the Federal Communications Commission is suggesting. And if the commercial broadcaster feels it impossible to perform this service for economic or other reasons (and apparently he does often feel it impossible or unwise) then there is even more necessity for our educational institutions to go on the air themselves and do this job of education that they can do best.

Actually the Federal Communications Commission recognizes these facts in their reservation of 257 television channels for non-commercial educational television.
As Tyler says regarding the television reservation:

This was a recognition of the fact that the use of broadcasting for educational purposes was of prime importance in the public interest and that the AM radio situation, in which education was largely dependent upon the granting of free time by commercial broadcasters, had not worked out satisfactorily.4

There is another, but similar, reason why under our system of broadcasting the educational station has a critical function to perform in our democratic society: the function of actively promoting the frank and free discussion of important issues—controversial or otherwise. The necessity of an informed public opinion in our free and democratic society demands the broadcasting to all of our citizens of serious points of view on vital issues.

Furthermore, the full dissemination of news and of ideas on vital public issues is the keystone of intelligent, free action arising from free decisions. No statement on this problem and its clear relation to broadcasting has been as direct and as forceful as this one.

by the Federal Communications Commission itself:

It is axiomatic that one of the most vital questions of mass communication in democracy is the development of an informed public opinion through the public dissemination of news and ideas concerning the vital public issues of the day. Basically, it is in recognition of the great contribution which radio can make in the advancement of this purpose that portions of the radio spectrum are allocated to that form of radio communications known as radio-broadcasting. Unquestionably, then, the standard of public interest, convenience and necessity as applied to radio-broadcasting must be interpreted in the light of this basic purpose.

The commercial broadcasters have not always been willing, or felt able to provide time for advocates of all serious points of view on vital public issues.

A further potential danger in this matter of free expression on the air, lies in the fact that since 1949 broadcasters may themselves editorialize on current issues using whatever resources their station has at hand to present their own points of view, while the Federal Communications Commission calls on them only to provide the public with a "reasonable opportunity" to


6. Ibid. Section 21.
hear a "reasonably balanced presentation of all responsible viewpoints on particular issues..." 7

This is all well and good, but what constitutes "reasonable" and "responsible" is apparently left to the discretion of the broadcaster who himself may very likely have a point of view on the issue. In this respect the dissenting views of Commissioner Frieda Hennock are interesting regarding the matter of editorializing by broadcasters:

I agree with the majority that it is imperative that a high standard of impartiality in the presentation of issues of public controversy be maintained by broadcast licensees. I do not believe that the Commission's decision, however, will bring about the desired end. The standard of fairness as delineated in the Report is virtually impossible of enforcement by the Commission with our present lack of policing methods and with the sanctions given us by law. We should not underestimate the difficulties inherent in the discovery of unfair presentation in any particular situation, or the problem presented by the fact that the sole sanction the Commission possesses is total deprivation of broadcast privileges in a renewal or revocation proceeding which may occur long after the violation.

In the absence of some method of policing and enforcing the requirement that the public trust granted a licensee be exercised in an impartial manner, it

7. Ibid.
seems foolhardy to permit editorialization by licensees themselves. I believe that we should have such a prohibition, unless we can substitute for it some more effective method of insuring fairness. There would be no inherent evil in the presentation of a licensee's viewpoint if fairness could be guaranteed. In the present circumstances, prohibiting it is our only instrument for insuring the proper use of radio in the public interest.8

Miss Hennock's concern with the guarantee of fairness in the presentation of viewpoints appears to be well founded. A brief review of certain instances where broadcasters either have not presented issues at all or not presented them fairly is in order at this point.

In the first category the Federal Communications Commission "Bluebook" cites a number of radio stations that, (contrary to representations made in their applications for a broadcast station or representations made

8. Ibid.

9. Federal Communications Commission, Public Service Responsibility of Broadcast Licensees (Washington, D.C.: March, 1946), pp. 3-9. The following cases are cited and described: the KIEV case (8FCC.207); Western Gateway case (9FCC.92); the WTOL case (7FCC.194); the WBAL case (no FCC identifying number); the KHMO case (4FCC.505).
in court) aired none or practically no public issues at all during the three year periods covered by the license. This "testing" period is used by the Federal Communications Commission in considering the application renewals. In one case the Federal Communications Commission felt obliged to say:

The disparity between the proposed service and the programs actually broadcast indicates such a disregard of the representations made as to cast doubt on their sincerity. . .and. . .on the qualifications of the licensee. 10

The television station situation has been, so far, better — on the Federal Communications Commission record, at least. According to a communication from the Commission to the writer there have been no cases where television licensees have appeared before the Commission to answer to the charges of not having satisfied the public interest requirements.

This happy situation for the television broadcasters may not last long, however, for indications are that they are devoting very little time (relative to their total program schedules) to the types of programs considered to fulfill public interest requirements.

10. Ibid., p. 4.
The National Association of Educational Broadcasters (NAEB) have made several monitoring studies of television stations' programs in New York city, New Haven, Chicago, and Los Angeles.

The first study made in New York city during the week January 4-10, 1951, showed that less than 2% of the total broadcast time of all seven television stations was devoted to public issues, none to educational broadcasts presented by educational organizations for instruction purposes. The second study in New York in January, 1952 showed a slight (½%) increase in "Public Issues" broadcasting (from 1.4% to 1.9%); a decrease of ½% in "Public

12. Dallas W. Smythe and Angus Campbell, The NAEB Monitoring Studies (Numbers 1-5). National Association of Educational Broadcasters (Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois, 1951-1953). The NAEB is making these studies because of its interest in serving the entire broadcasting industry, the FCC, and the public by increasing the knowledge of current television programming. The Monitoring Studies Committee hopes to answer such questions as: Has the pattern of American television programming already been molded? What is this pattern? What are the changes in American television programming? How does the American television programming relate to and reflect the needs of the community? The Committee wrote in the preface of Study No. 2, "It is often said that television is a window on the world. The purpose of these studies is to show the shape of the world that is there revealed."
Events" (from 0.9% to 0.4%); and decreases (from 3.3 to 2.9%) in "General Information" programs.

The third New York city monitoring study in January of 1953 (also of all programs by all seven television stations) showed further decreases in time on the air devoted to "General Information" (from 2.9% to 2.3%); "Public Events" (from 0.4 to zero); and "Public Issues" (from 1.9 to 1.5%).

In Monitoring Study No. 2, Los Angeles Television, programs about vital issues and background for understanding the world we live in fared no better. "Public Issues" programming filled just 1.05% of the broadcast time; there was .08% of "Public Events" time; 1.59% devoted to "Public Institutional" programs (various aspects of the armed forces, "criminals wanted," Civilian Defense, Red Cross, United Nations Agencies activities, the Mayor's report, and so on); 2.62% of the time was devoted to "General Information" (travelogues, science, child psychology and growth, information about particular industries, and so on); and .54% was devoted to "Children's Informational and Instructive" programs.

In passing, one might note that no time at all was devoted to the fine arts and just .08% of the time to "Serious" music, this lone thirty minute program being
the "Firestone Hour" which can be called "serious" music only by those whose "serious" music tastes are easily satisfied.

The Chicago Study (made during the week of July 30-August 5, 1951) and the New Haven Connecticut Study (made during the week of May 15-21, 1952) show about the same small percentages of time devoted to programs on public issues and events, background and education.

To summarize, briefly, there is ample evidence that most commercial television stations present little programming of vital issues for that all important "informed public opinion" that the Federal Communications Commission mentions regularly in its reports and decisions and that is identified clearly in the very legislative act that created the Federal Communications Commission. Perhaps it is mainly the non-commercial educational television station that must perform this critically important democratic function. On the basis of program content research mentioned above, commercial broadcasters are doing little to fulfill their requirement to broadcast in the public interest.

The other side of the problem of presenting public issues concerns the quality or character of what is presented.
The principle of "fair play" has long been of vital concern to the public and to the Commission. Returning to Commissioner Hennock's dissenting views on the issue of "Editorializing" (pages 43-44 of this chapter) we can find some examples to show that Miss Hennock's doubts were well founded.

There have been a number of important instances of unfair presentations or practice in the programming of vital issues on radio. There is no apparent reason to believe that television station licensees will play the game more fairly in the long run than did radio licensees, particularly since many licensees operate both radio and television stations. The networks own and operate some of their own AM and FM radio stations as well as their own television stations. For example, in 1955:

. . .the Columbia Broadcasting System owns and operates AM and FM radio stations in New York, Chicago, Los Angeles, San Francisco, and Boston. . .It owns VHF television stations in New York, Chicago, and Los Angeles, and a UHF station in Milwaukee.13

One of the best-known cases concerned radio station WAAB, Boston, owned by the Mayflower Broadcasting

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Corporation. Seipmann describes the "Mayflower Decision" this way:

For some years prior to 1941, WAAB had been using its facilities to support various causes and to advance the changes of political candidates whom it happened to favor. Like facilities were not conceded to people of a different persuasion. There were complaints to the FCC. After full investigation, the FCC issued a decision that said, in effect, that a licensee, by virtue of his privileged access to a public domain, was not justified in using it as though it were his private property, only balanced controversy could be held to be in the public interest and therefore, a licensee shall not be an advocate.14

It was the Mayflower Decision that gave rise eight years later to the Federal Communications Commission report previously discussed on pages 42-44 of this chapter "In the Matter of Editorializing by Broadcast Licensees," dated June 1, 1949.

In the WHKC case in 1945, the issue was whether it is in the public interest for a broadcaster arbitrarily to limit certain types of organizations from securing time on the station to express their opinions on vital issues, or to restrict the manner or method in which they present their views.

The Congress of Industrial Organizations petitioned the Commission not to renew the license of WHKC, Columbus, Ohio because the station had censored remarks scheduled to be delivered over the air. Upon request of both parties the Commission dismissed the case but in its order denounced the policy of refusing to air labor discussions when controversial. The Commission reasserted that the public interest requires licensees, as an "affirmative duty," to make reasonable provision for broadcast discussions of controversial issues of public importance in the community serviced by the station.

Another case in which a broadcast licensee was alleged to have abused the principle of "fair play" in dealing with controversial matters involved station KMPC, in Los Angeles, WJR, Detroit, and WGAR, Cleveland. In this instance it was charged that the president of the stations ordered staff members to "slant" the news unfavorably toward issues and persons about whom the


the licensee had adverse opinions. Sworn charges were made by station employees, that they had been directed by the licensee to "slant" news to support his own political and social preferences. Numerous exhibits (1200) such as news stories broadcast, and memoranda to the news staffs by the licensee were placed in evidence during the hearing. The licensee died shortly after the final report on the hearings was submitted to the Commissioners by the Federal Communications Commission General Counsel. As one reporter of the case put it:

Since the charges of slanting the news was aimed at Richards as an individual, the commissioners held that they could not penalize his heirs by refusing to renew the station license. But before transferring control to Mrs. Francis Richards, the Commission demanded, and got, assurances from her that her husband's broadcasting policies regarding news would not be perpetuated. And two of the commissioners formally expressed their disapproval of the alleged news distortion and bias and said they voted to renew the license only upon Mrs. Richards' outright repudiation of those policies.17

Past experience suggests that some broadcasters may or may not pursue the business of broadcasting ideas in the spirit of fair play demanded of them.

On the other hand, the educational broadcaster being an educator primarily (and for the most part this means living the life of a sincere and thoughtful scholar dedicated to the pursuit of truth), and representing the university, may be expected to present current issues with impartiality. This would be in the spirit of fair play demanded by the Federal Communications Commission of all broadcast licensees.

Thus, the educational television station is, under our system of broadcasting, a potential safety-valve helping to insure the free functioning of our society through promoting a free flow of ideas on current events, and on controversial issues.

It is no secret, indeed, it is now generally agreed by experienced educational broadcasters, that education has had a difficult time getting a fair share of time on commercial broadcasting facilities. The experience of educators with radio alerted them early in the history of television to the necessity of reserving channels for non-commercial educational television broadcasting. At this point it may be helpful to review the history of educational institutions with respect to broadcasting. This may help to further clarify the role in our society that non-commercial educational television must play.
The History of Educational Broadcasting

I. Keith Tyler writes:

The most recent development, affecting the public interest in the field of broadcasting, was the action of the Federal Communications Commission in the final television allocation report of April 14, 1952 reserving 242 out of more than 2,000 television channels throughout the United States and possessions for the exclusive use of non-commercial educational television stations. This was a recognition of the fact that the use of broadcasting for educational purposes was of prime importance in the public interest and that the AM radio situation, in which education was largely dependent upon the granting of free time by commercial broadcasters, had not worked out satisfactorily. 

This is a succinct summary of the big issue in the history of educational radio broadcasting and the real significance of the channel reservation for non-commercial educational television stations. As was pointed out earlier, educators learned from past experience that it would be wise early in the American television story to reserve their own domains in the air above us.

This was not an entirely new idea, however. In November, 1925 broadcasters attending the Fourth National Radio Conference in Washington, D. C., adopted a resolution calling for full recognition by the Department of

Commerce (the licensing authority at that time) of the needs of educational broadcast stations and recommending that "adequate, definite and specific provision should be made for these services within the broadcast band of frequencies." In 1930 the Association of College and University Broadcasters requested the state Governors, then in session at Salt Lake City, to present the channel-for-education reservation idea to the U.S. Senators who were leaders in legislative thought about radio. Later in the same year, 1930, the U.S. Commissioner of Education, William J. Cooper, called a Conference on Radio and Education.

It was resolved that, a committee should be established for the purpose of formulating definite plans and recommendations for protecting and promoting broadcasting originating in educational institutions and broadcast by educational institutions, and for presenting the same...to appropriate authorities and interested parties." The proposed committee was to include representatives of the Association of College and University Broadcasting Stations, the Land Grant Colleges Association, the National University Extension.

Association, the National Association of State University Presidents, other similar organizations, and the Payne Fund, a philanthropic organization.20

Another resolution recommended that:

. . . the Congress of the United States enact legislation which will permanently and exclusively assign to educational institutions and government educational agencies a minimum of fifteen percent of all radio broadcasting channels. . .21

Finally, in 1931, through the efforts mainly of the National Committee on Education by Radio, a bill was introduced in Congress by Senator Fess of Ohio for the reservation of 15% of the broadcasting channels for educations' own stations.

However, none of these early attempts to set aside channels for educational broadcasters was successful.

In fact, just the opposite situation was occurring: that is, the educational stations on the air were now rapidly disappearing. In 1925, (five years from the date of the first educational station licensed by the U.S. government), 175 broadcast licenses were issued to educational institutions. By 1936 a total of 202 licenses had

20. Ibid., pp. 8-9.

21. Ibid.
been issued:

Of this number 16\frac{1}{4} were either permitted to expire, transferred to other interests, or revoked by the licensing authority so that on January 1, 1937 only 38 licenses were held by educational institutions, and some of these stations were operated on a commercial rather than an educational basis.22

There are two main reasons for this inability of educational radio stations to stay on the air under the prevailing conditions of the time. First of all, the educational institutions after the first excitement and flurry of the early 1920's, were not willing to support their radio stations financially nor did they, in some instances, fully comprehend the real potential educational value or uses of radio broadcasting:

Seldom have the fruits of apathy and indifference been less surprising. At the end of 1946, 29 standard (AM) broadcasting stations were licensed to educational institutions; of these, 9 were commercial, 5 of them affiliated with networks. Thirteen, 10 of them noncommercial, were permitted to use 5,000 watts or more power; but, of these, only 2 could broadcast between sunset and sunrise, local time. What are the reasons for this amazing mortality rate?23

22. Ibid., p. 2.

Mr. White states the reasons behind the demise of a number of university educational stations: the University of Colorado; the University of California at Berkeley; the University of Michigan, (since revived by an FM non-commercial radio station); Carleton College; Ashland College; Antioch College; the University of Arizona; the University of Arkansas; the University of Rochester; and the Alabama Polytechnic Institute. Mr. White states some of the reasons why these stations failed, such as: not sufficient financial support; interference with commercial broadcast signals; too little administrative and faculty interest; continuous shifting of frequencies and power by the Federal Radio Commission; and sharing air time with commercial interests.

It should be pointed out that while the reasons for these failures were typical at the time, a number of university stations successfully stayed on the air and are still broadcasting over radio. Some of these are affiliated with the state universities in Iowa, Illinois, Ohio, Oklahoma, Wisconsin, Minnesota. It should also be pointed out again that according to the reasons for failure mentioned by Mr. White the educators themselves were sometimes as responsible as were the Federal regulating authority and the commercial broadcasting interests. Without vigorous support from education itself,
educational broadcasting on television can expect to have little more success than did educational radio in its youth. In this case the years to come will stock the files of the Federal Communications Commission with the death certificates of educational television stations as well.

There is another factor to be considered as having played a leading part in the rapid mortality rate of educational radio in the 1920's and 1930's. The federal government failed to see the necessity of setting aside a percentage of secure channels for education. This was nearly fatal because it would seem that the Federal Radio Commission, (predecessor to the present Federal Communications Commission) was not overly sympathetic to educational broadcasters' problems. Educational institutions' frequencies were shifted (as has been noted above on page 58), in some cases several times, to make way for commercial stations. Time on the air was reduced for commercial broadcasters' convenience in some instances until stations could no longer possibly hope to reach or maintain an audience. Where shared time with

24. KUOA, the University of Arkansas; WEMC, Emmanuel Missionary College, Barien Springs, Michigan; KFMX, Carleton College, Northfield, Minnesota, et. al.
commercial interests was the policy the educational broadcaster sometimes came out on the "short end of it," A good example of this was the case of WNYC, the municipal station of New York City where the commercial station sharing WNYC time refused to relinquish a part of its assigned time to allow WNYC to broadcast an important speech by Chief Justice Charles Evans Hughes. Educational stations were, indeed, having a hard time remaining on the air and doing the job they needed to do.

However, the principle of educational reservations came up again in the 1940's, first with reference to FM (frequency modulation) channels, and, after World War II, television channels. Education was allotted a share of both by the Federal Communications Commission after a lengthy hearing.

The FM radio allocation after World War II, insured education of exclusive use of the 88-92 megacycle band. More than 125 FM educational stations are on the air in 1956. Education began late, but not too late, to take advantage of its broadcasting privileges granted by the Federal government.

Education's responsibilities as broadcaster in the public interest and as educator of the whole public had

its best day realized in April, 1952 when the Federal Communications Commission allocated to education 242 channels throughout the United States and its possessions. There have since been 15 additional reservations. This reservation for non-commercial educational television was about 10% of the total television channel allocation.

Actually, this victory for the public provided it, as Tyler says, with the:

- . . right of access . . to programs of information and education which were not available in sufficient quantity or at convenient times on commercial stations and set aside channels upon which non-commercial educational stations might at a later time be built. Thus, in the very structure of television in this country, there is a clear recognition of the priority of education in the public welfare.26

Education's eagerness about, and its commitment to serious development of educational television broadcasting stations was demonstrated many times. Many witnesses (76) appeared before the Federal Communications Commission during the extensive hearings on the proposed educational reservations. A number of educational groups (the American Council on Education, the Association of Land Grant Colleges and Universities, the Association

for Education by Radio and Television, the National Council of Chief State School Officers, the National Education Association, the National Association of Educational Broadcasters, the National Association of State Universities and, later, the American Association of School Administrators) combined as the "Joint Committee on Educational Television" (later changed to "Joint Council on Educational Television" and hereafter referred to as JCET) to represent the special needs of education in television and to assist educators to meet their responsibilities in regard to television. During the fall of 1951, with the help of JCET 838 educational institutions and school systems filed sworn statements and plead education's case before the Commission. Of these organizations 325 were colleges and universities.

The Federal Communications Commission's "Sixth Report and Order,"27 in which television channels for non-commercial educational television were reserved, was a reaffirmation of the right and responsibilities of educational institutions to reserve and use certain television channels because, "the public interest will

clearly be served if these stations are used to contribute significantly to the educational process of the nation. . . " Education's successes in broadcasting over their own stations finally induced the Commission to say in 1952:

We conclude that the record shows the desire and ability of education to make a substantial contribution to the use of television. There is much evidence in the record concerning the activities of educational organizations in AM and FM broadcasting. It is true and was to be expected that education has not utilized these media to the full extent that commercial broadcasters have, in terms of number of stations and number of hours of operation. However, it has also been shown that many of the educational institutions which are engaged in aural broadcasting are doing an outstanding job in the presentation of high quality programming, and have been getting excellent public response. And most important in this connection, it is agreed that the potential of television for education is much greater and more readily apparent than that of aural broadcasting and that the interest of the educational community in the field is much greater than it was in aural broadcasting. Further, the justification for an educational station should not, in our view, turn simply on account of audience size. The public interest will clearly be served if these stations are used to contribute significantly to the educational process of the nation.

28. Ibid.
The type of programs which have been broadcast by educational organizations, and those which the record indicates can and would be televised by educators, will provide a valuable complement to commercial programming.29

In January, 1957, five years after the Federal Communications Commission made the preceding statement, there were 24 non-commercial educational television stations on the air and, with others under construction, the potential audience to be served in the near future by educational television stations will number many millions of American citizens.

The FCC and the Community Concept

The Radio Act of 1927 and the subsequent Communications Act of 1934 creating the Federal Communications Commission, made it quite clear that one of the primary concerns of Congress was that broadcasters should serve the community in which they broadcast.

It is community service that is another main interest of the Federal Communications Commission. The community concept looms even larger when the Commission describes the function and place of the non-commercial educational television station.

29. Ibid.
In the first place, distribution by the Commission of broadcast facilities in the "public interest, convenience and necessity" is based on community need:

In considering applications for licenses, and modifications and renewals thereof... the Commission shall make such distribution of licenses, frequencies, hours of operation, and of power among the several states and communities as to provide a fair, efficient, and equitable distribution of radio service to each of the same.30

The Commission goes further in the "Sixth Report and Order," stating that in the assignment of channels there were priorities established as guides. The first two are: priority number one, "to provide at least one television service to all parts of the United States;" and priority number two, "to provide each community with at least one television broadcast station."31

In the "Sixth Report and Order" there are a number of references to the need for considering community service to be paramount in the allocation of channels, in licensing, and in programming.


31. Ibid., Section 63.
In response to some opposition by certain commercial interests to the adoption of a Table of Assignments the Federal Communications Commission stated that a Table of Assignments:

. . .protects the interests of the public residing in smaller cities and rural areas more adequately than any other system for distribution of service and affords the most effective mechanism for providing for non-commercial educational television.33

In short, the licensing authority insures the widest possible, and the fairest community service through carefully controlling the exact places throughout the country where individual television transmitters may operate. The Commission is mostly interested in the principle of as many individual communities as possible having their own television stations:

In the Commission's view, as many communities as possible should have the

32. Some parties urged the Commission to abandon its policy of a nationwide table of channel assignments and permit applicants from any community to apply for the use of any channels provided certain general engineering criteria were met.

opportunity of enjoying the advantages that derive from having local outlets that will be responsive to local needs.34

Along with this "protection-of-channel-rights" idea comes the other of reserving specific channels since many communities not immediately able to support television stations would eventually be able to do so.

Another aspect of the Federal Communications Commissions concern with community service lies in programming.

The Commission expects all television stations, licensed as they are on a community basis, to reflect in their programs the needs of their own community.

For example, in addition to the last quote above, in the "Sixth Report and Order," the Commission reminds broadcasters of, "...their duty to carry programs which fulfill the educational needs and serve the educational interests of the community in which they operate." 35 This statement applies to all broadcasters; but even more directly and clearly to educational broadcasters. In this respect the following quotation from the "Sixth Report and

34. Ibid., Section 79.
35. Ibid., Section 48.
Order," is repeated for emphasis:

The public interest will clearly be served if these stations educational are used to contribute significantly to the educational process of the nation. The type of programs which have been broadcast by educational organizations, and those which the record indicates can and would be televised by educators, will provide a valuable complement to commercial programming.36

It is this concern about programs that reflect and satisfy individual community needs and interests which makes the Federal Communications Commission an interesting federal agency. It is one of the few federal agencies whose major concern is for local interests.

The United States Congress has from the beginning of its interest in broadcasting, and the Federal Communications Commission has by virtue of its direct responsibilities concerning broadcasting, insisted on the primary importance of community-serving programs. In 1928 the former Federal Radio Commission said:

... In a sense a broadcasting station may be regarded as a sort of mouthpiece on the air for the community it serves, over which its public events of general interest, its political campaigns, its election

36. Ibid., Section 38.
results, its athletic contests, its orchestras and artists, and discussion of its public issues may be broadcast. If . . . the station performs its duty in furnishing a well-rounded program, the rights of the community have been achieved.37

Later, in 1946 in the previously mentioned "Blue-book," the Federal Communications Commission emphasized its concurrence with this attitude of the prior Federal Radio Commission. It stated:

It has been the consistent intention of the Commission to assure that an adequate amount of time during the good listening hours shall be made available to meet the needs of the community in terms of public expression and of local interest.38

The emphasis on the responsibility of broadcasters to serve their communities was made in the Federal Communications Commission report previously discussed elsewhere in this chapter, "In the Matter of Editorializing by Broadcast Licensees." Insisting that Congress


has a basic policy of maintaining radio and television as a medium of free speech for the general public the Commission says:

This requires that licensees devote a reasonable percentage of their broadcasting time to the discussion of public issues of interest in the community served by their stations and that such programs be designed so that the public has a reasonable opportunity to hear different opposing positions on the public issues of interest and importance in the community.39

The third aspect of the Federal Communications Commission's concept of the community may be described as "communal operation." That is, many educational organizations and other non-commercial community groups in a given area may be expected to administer and program the stations together, cooperatively.

Here has appeared a new pattern for broadcasting which reflects the real philosophic meaning of "community" that is so basic a factor in the democratic process: many persons and groups working together to solve mutual, day-to-day problems. Economic necessity is, sometimes, the mother of mutual assistance as well as of competition.

When the Commission reserved the non-commercial,

educational channels in its "Sixth Report and Order" it suggested a pattern for communal operation.

As concerns the costs of operation there is the possibility of cooperative programming and financing among several educational organizations in large communities. The record indicates that educational institutions will unite in the construction and operation of non-commercial educational television stations. Such cooperative effort will, of course, help to make such stations economically feasible.

Through licensing educational television stations the federal government is activating the democratic "communal" process at the local level. As Tyler says:

What is to be noted...is that the special provision by government for educational television is establishing a new pattern of broadcasting and...citizens have become involved to a degree that is unprecedented.

It should also be noted here that the non-commercial educational television station licensed to an institution of higher learning is as are all others, expected to offer its facilities to all legitimate educational groups in its community.

In conclusion, there are three aspects of the

41. Tyler, op. cit., p. 108.
relationship between educational television, the community, and the federal government: 1. Educational television channels are assigned on principles and priorities that help to insure individual or "personalized" community service by these stations. 2. Programs must reflect the individual needs of the individual communities. 3. Educational television stations are expected to be cooperative enterprises.

Implications for Organization and Programming

We can see from the above sections that the organization and administration of the university-licensed television station, as well as its program service, will be significantly affected by the need to satisfy governmental requirements through giving concrete meaning to the democratic philosophy of our federal government, reflected, in this instance, in its agent for regulating the broadcasting industry, the Federal Communications Commission.

Organizational Principles

In view of the relationships described previously between broadcasters and the Federal Communications Commission, the administration of the educational station needs to be in the hands of persons dedicated to the principle of community service. Personnel must, in the interests of the public, be able to provide a program
service not found in commercial stations. Furthermore, the educational station must be staffed with personnel who have a high regard for the inviolability of freedom of thought and expression and the need for the free dissemination of opinion on controversial issues.

The university must give full and resolute support to its television service so that it may have the chance to succeed in its tasks. This support is most needed in the first few years of broadcasting while a quality audience grows for its program service and other members of the academic community come to recognize television's unique educational contributions to both the on-campus and off-campus community.

Since the community plays such a central part in the full discharge of television's public service responsibilities, wide representation in the deliberations on policy and programming from the community is to be expected. It can also be expected that financial and other contributions are desirable and welcome from the other community educational organizations. 

General Guides for Programming

1. The programs should contribute significantly to the educational process of the nation. They should provide a valuable complement to commercial programming.

2. The programs should reflect immediate and long-range community needs and interests of the primary community it serves.
3. The programs should display belief in the democratic spirit of fair play in the handling of controversial issues, providing adequate opportunity for all points of view to be broadcast.

Summary

Serving of the public interest is the major criterion by which the Federal Communications Commission judges the applicants for broadcast licenses. Programs of education, information, opinion, presentation of the arts are considered as serving the public interest.

In the early days of radio and up to World War II, many of America's educational institutions were slow to grasp the educational opportunities offered by broadcasting and, by default, let commercial broadcasters monopolize the air waves. There is now new hope for educational broadcasting since the allocation in 1952 of more than 250 non-commercial educational television stations, some of which are now on the air with others in the construction or planning stages.

Federal bodies responsible for regulating broadcasting have nearly always believed in the principle of community service by broadcast licensees. Distribution is based on community need, as is the reservation of channels.
for future use. Programs, too, are expected to reflect the needs of the community.

The educational stations may be considered community enterprises in two senses: one, in their organization and operation numerous educational organizations in an area can be expected to cooperate; and two, programs will serve the needs of the community.
Chapter Three

SOCIAL IMPERATIVES AND EDUCATIONAL TELEVISION

The non-commercial educational television station licensed to an institution of higher learning should serve the following purposes:

1. Contribute significantly to the education of the community it serves. This would include the general and vocational education of youth and adults off-campus and the in-school education of elementary and secondary school students.

2. Contribute to the professional education of those university students who are preparing for employment in the broadcasting industry.

3. Provide opportunities for research in television broadcasting.

4. Contribute to the vocational and general education of other college students on-campus. This would be the equivalent of class-room courses for credit taught by a teacher.

In achieving these purposes, the university educational television station would be fulfilling the aims of education in America and keeping faith with the federal government that has granted it the fresh opportunity
through reserving television channels, of broadcasting in the public interest.

An appropriate type of organization, administration, and program service of the non-commercial educational television station will derive largely from the principles suggested in the two previous chapters and from a more specific description of the educational needs of our school youth and our out-of-school adults. The reason for this is simply that any organization should be run in accordance with the job it is trying to do. It derives, or should derive, its structure and methods from the principles and purposes that guide it.

In this chapter, we will turn our attention once again and in more detail to our adult audience, to those who are no longer attending schools, to those who are mostly responsible for the day-to-day welfare of the nation. In the next chapter our on-campus community will be emphasized.

It is in the group of about 100 million adult Americans over twenty that our colleges and universities and

their spokesmen as well as the adult education specialists are vitally interested. They aim to assure continued education to adults in the art of living democratically in today's world.

It is the job of the educational broadcaster to discover, or somehow ascertain and be sensitive to the needs of adults so that programs may be developed which will attempt to fulfill those needs.

Such useful programs will be developed only if the educational television station is organized and administered toward the end of broadcasting these worthwhile, needed programs for adult viewers. In short, the organization and administration of a station should grow primarily from the nature of the job to be done, for that is what efficient, effective organization is—an appropriate means to achieve a worthwhile end.

The next step in this dissertation, then, will be to attempt to state in some further detail the nature of the needs of the audiences to whom the university licensed educational television station will broadcast. We will begin in this chapter with an evaluation of the needs and interests of the adult community.
Adult Needs and Interests

In chapter one it was pointed out that the purposes of adult education are the purposes of higher education as well because the main end of higher education and the main end of adult education are the same—free men in a free society. It is only by continuing to educate every adult citizen that higher education can achieve its specialized objectives since youth are apt to respond more readily to the demands of society than to the demands of higher education.

On the other hand, adults have particular and special problems, interests, and needs by virtue of just being adults. The need is, also, for educational techniques that particularly apply to the circumstances and the nature of these adult learners.

From the earliest days of this country's history, its leaders generally recognized continuing education as a necessary element in the preservation of democratic institutions.2

As examples of America's leaders recognizing that continuing education is essential to democracy the

following quotations are presented:

In proportion as the structure of a government gives force to public opinion, it is essential that public opinion should be enlightened.

— George Washington

The whole purpose of democracy is that we may hold counsel with one another so as not to depend upon the understanding of one man but to depend upon the common counsel of all.

— Woodrow Wilson

...the only way in which that representative form of government can persist is through an educated electorate. We need to have meeting places for the discussion of public questions in the cities, hamlets and on the farms throughout the length and breadth of the land.

— Franklin D. Roosevelt

These quotations point up the main social or group need of adults. That is, the need for the free discussion and debate of vital public issues. This need was rather clearly emphasized in the preceding chapter particularly

3. Ibid., p. 4.
4. Ibid.
5. Ibid.
as the federal government (the Congress and the Federal Communications Commission) foresaw the usefulness of broadcasting for purposes of building an informed public opinion.

John Dewey once wrote:

The essential need... is the improvement of the methods and conditions of debate, discussion and persuasion. That is the problem of the public. We have asserted that this improvement depends essentially upon freeing and perfecting the processes of inquiry and of dissemination of their conclusions.6

This perfection of the "methods and conditions of debate, discussion and persuasion" is necessary to the successful solution of our social problems. It is necessary because it is democratic and educative, in that the use and perfection of the method widens and strengthens the democratic community since we learn best by being involved in the process. The difficulty lies largely in applying the methods of science to human social problems and in effectively communicating what is learned to everyone else.

Solving these problems will help to:

- enable adults to deal intelligently, democratically and peacefully with the problems posed for individuals and communities by the pervasive fact of change.\footnote{7}

The previous quotation is a succinct statement by the Adult Education Association of the basic goal of adult education. But what, specifically, are the problems posed by the "pervasive fact of change?"

First, it should be stated that problems differ both in type and intensity from community to community so there is no way available of discovering or listing all or even most of the problems adults face in the United States. Still, the culture does present certain problems all of which, or at least most of which are universal to our American landscape. All or some of them will be found in every community. These are the basic problems upon which enlightened adults around the nation would agree. These are the social facts of our culture about which there is no doubt. These universal problems are those with which our educational institutions, including the educational television station, have to cope, to try

\footnote{7. Adult Education Association, statement on the cover, \textit{Adult Education}, II, Number 2 (December, 1951).}
and help adults to solve. These problems are what Sheats, Jayne and Spence call "Social Imperatives."

To mark out the proper directions in which adult education ought to proceed, Sheats, Jayne and Spence start with an analysis of our culture and list four characteristics that have major implications for adult education programs:

1. The growth of interdependence.
2. The growth of knowledge.
3. The declining importance of the primary, face-to-face group in American community life.
4. The changing role of the individual.

Paul Essert writing on adult education in his book, Creative Leadership of Adult Education, discusses five adult education goals: (1) occupational achievement; (2) understanding — the search for truth and beauty; (3) intermittent solitude; (4) self government; (5) close fellowships.

9. Ibid., pp. 16-17.
A third group of aims was developed by the Adult Education Committee on Social Philosophy and Direction Finding. Their list is similar to Mr. Essert's with some additions, and seems to relate to the characteristics of our society described by Sheats, Jayne and Spence. The Committee recognizes the importance of face-to-face community relations, the growing interdependence of men, and the need for self government but adds these goals: (1) adult education should be the exemplification of democratic goals and methods; (2) it should be guided by the truth seeking disciplines of scientific methods.

An analysis and interpretation of the meaning of Sheats, Jayne and Spence's "Social Imperatives" in terms of the other goals above, cited by Essert and the Adult Education Committee on Social Philosophy and Direction Finding, will give us some idea of the needs, and guiding principles of adult education in America.

Social Imperatives and Adult Education

The social imperatives discussed below are those

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basic cultural conditions which create difficult and complex problems. They are stated here not as problems but as social situations demanding solution.

The Growth of Interdependence:

Interdependence creates feelings of friendliness on the one hand and, on the other, interdependence creates or intensifies points of friction. For example: during World War II the Soviet Union and the United States developed, from plain necessity, a high degree of interdependence, economically, spiritually, militarily, and a new mutual friendliness developed simultaneously. However, as both nations drew closer and, in a sense, came to understand each other better, points of friction developed. The United States became aware of certain Soviet aims and methods which seemed threatening and, likewise, the Soviets seemed to recognize certain threats to their way of life from the U.S. There is a certain cynical truth to the maxim of Publilius Syrus the ancient Latin writer — "Familiarity breeds contempt."

Science has shrunk the world by technology and invention so that the world's population sits on one another's doorsteps, so to speak. Because of modern aircraft there is now no place on earth more than one day away from any other. Through telephony, telegraphy and
radio broadcasting, instant, world-wide verbal communication has been possible for a number of years. International television broadcasting will add an even more effective instantaneous communicative device.

Certain types of problems arise where interdependence has created or intensified friction between individuals and groups. These problems may be on so personal a scale as the family and local community or on a more remote scale as between nations.

Socially, politically, and economically we are interrelated; even on what appears to be the most remote level — the international.

Prejudice against minority groups in the United States is no longer a purely local problem. It is now a bad example set before the rest of the world who use it as propaganda against us to suit their own purposes.

Freedom threatened in Asia is freedom threatened at home since totalitarian governments must, of necessity, aim for world domination because any relatively free society constitutes their major threat. Besides, the Western democracies are treaty bound to help one another stay free so there is the further moral obligation involved in international politics.

The economic conditions of individuals, communities
and nations are, also, closely interdependent. In *America's Role in the World Economy*, Alvin Hansen wrote:

> This title underscores the fact that world prosperity and world stability depend in no small measure upon (a) the achievement of full employment within the United States, and (b) the active and wholehearted cooperation of the United States in the formation and development of international economic organizations designed to insure the workability of a new world order.12

There was obviously an acceptance of these economic facts of life by most nations so that such organizations as the International Monetary Fund, the International Bank, the International Trade Organizations, the International Labor Organization and the Food and Agricultural Organization, developed after World War II.

At a more local level one can use the illustration of the critical industry on strike or shut down. The resulting economic, social and political repercussions and tensions at all levels of our society are well known.

There are remaining on the international level complex, close internal relationships and problems of interdependence among the social, political and economic areas.

This is made clear by the creation of and by the experience of the United Nations specialized agencies such as the World Health Organization, UNESCO, the Food and Agricultural Organization. The problems of health and preventive medicine are closely linked with the problems of adequate nutrition and better education. These things in turn, have an important bearing on agricultural and industrial production, on political ends and forms, and vice versa.

This same complex and interlocked system of cause and effect prevails at every level of interdependent contemporary life: nation, state, local, in the family. It demands of us a cosmopolitan view of life, and a true acceptance of the fact that our actions have consequences all along the line. It is an interesting phenomenon that an expanding life results in a contracting world. Orlie A. H. Pell writes:

*Citizenship in the modern world is... incomplete and fractional unless the participating citizen realizes that he lives in an expanding environment, and that he cannot cope successfully with his local problems unless these are viewed in the light of regional, national and world perspectives.*

We have become increasingly responsible for one another's welfare in ratio to our growing interdependence. The task would seem to be to convert the fact of interdependence to pertinent moral behavior at all levels from the international to the home.

The Growth of Knowledge:

The authors of, Adult Education: the Community Approach think that the second condition creating social imperatives is the increasingly rapid growth of knowledge. There are two main problems that result from this growth: (1) the problem of "cultural lag" — that is, human behavior and institutions not keeping pace with man's control of the physical world, and (2), the problem of effectively and efficiently distributing new knowledge.

These two problems may need some further clarification.

1. The Problem of "Cultural Lag:" Men are more advanced in the development of the physical sciences than they are in the sciences of social relations. Our human relations, our understandings, attitudes, beliefs, our social, political and economic institutions frequently do not adapt quickly enough to changes brought on by science and by technological advances. A few major examples may help clarify this idea.
In the face of almost certain annihilation of civilization in another war because science has now made it possible, nations still cannot adapt their international political habits to cope with this major fact so that they may insure continuous peace.

In a more closely-related, "shrinking" world there exist, side by side, the "haves" and the "have nots." We live in a potential world of plenty but most of the earth's population is undernourished, ill, poorly housed and uneducated—in general, living substandardly. The "haves" now know about the "have nots" and have the skill to help them. The "have nots" also know about the "haves" and want to shift to the latter category as quickly as possible.

In our own political democracy we find strong racial, religious and social prejudices. Prejudice has become a truly dangerous luxury in a technically close knit society where the welfare of individuals and groups depends on mutual respect, cooperation, and intergroup activity.

To repeat, the reasons why our human outlook must change are technical and scientific. As Bertrand Russell
said:

...we have not adapted our mentality to our technique. We still allow ourselves ways of thinking and feeling that were appropriate in a technically simpler age. If we are to live happily with a modern technique — and it is possible for modern technique to bring a far higher level of happiness than was formerly possible — we must banish certain ideas and substitute certain others. For love of domination we must substitute equality; for love of victory we must substitute justice; for brutality we must substitute intelligence; for competition we must substitute cooperation. We must learn to think of the human race as one family, and further our common interests by the intelligent use of natural resources, marching together towards prosperity, not separately towards death and destruction.14

Robert S. Lynd points up the critical disparity between knowledge and action this way.

The knowledge which the sophisticated experts possess in our culture is growing at a rate far more rapid than the rate at which it is being institutionalized in the habits of thought and action of the mass or our population. This increasing disparity arises from our heavy reliance upon casual adjustment, assumed to occur automatically wherever it is rationally relevant; from our over-exclusive

reliance upon commercial exploitation to diffuse any new knowledge throughout the population.15

Thus, the problem of "cultural lag" is one of the two major human problems that result from the increasing growth of knowledge.

2. The Problem of the Distribution of Knowledge: This second problem resulting from our growth of knowledge has two facets, suggested by the adjectives, "effective" and "efficient."

"Effective" distribution of knowledge has to do with the quantity and quality of learning, and "efficient" distribution of knowledge has to do with the rapidity, and the economy of distribution. Sheats, Jayne and Spence write:

The speed of accumulation of knowledge seems to be racing ever faster; but the speed of distribution seems slow in comparison. New instructional methods and techniques are continually being developed, but such development does not always result in widespread use. Certainly much of this new information needs to be given to the citizenry in time for them to use it.16


It is perhaps not necessary to point out here (since it will be covered later) the obvious significant role television could play in the rapid, mass distribution of new knowledge. The word "mass" is important because a serious part of the cultural lag resulting from the growth of knowledge lies (and this is a part of the problem of economical distribution) in the restriction of knowledge to favored groups or, at least, not making new knowledge available to everyone equally.

To quote Lynd again:

Every gain in knowledge and efficiency and every outworn symbol or causal explanation displaced by more realistic analysis is potentially a gain in ease and richness of living. But when this new knowledge is not put to work in the service of all the people, when it is only partially applied to those able to "pay for it" or bright enough to learn it unaided, or when it is used by those with power in order to exploit others, this knowledge may be either largely barren or, worse, it tends to become a disruptive factor. Only as a culture sedulously builds its gains into the balanced system of the whole of its people's lives can the net heightening of strain through social change be avoided.17

To further clarify and amplify the importance of effectively distributing and assimilating knowledge John Dewey once pointed out that nothing is fully known until "...it is published, shared, socially acceptable."

The Declining Importance of the Primary Face-to-Face Group:

This "social imperative" according to Sheats, Jayne and Spence, results from the fact that much more human intercourse used to be carried on in a primary face-to-face relationship. The authors feel that in generations past, ideas, values, attitudes, skills were personally and individually learned in a face-to-face situation with the teaching agent — teacher, family members, friends in an informal, intimate gathering.

What is the cause of this decline in neighborly living and what imperative social problems does it pose?

The authors previously mentioned propose that first of all the mass media of communication (radio, television, motion pictures) and secondly, increasing urbanization are the reasons for this decline in interpersonal living. A third reason needs to be added — increasing vocational specialization. For example, as men become

increasingly specialized they have less and less common ground to meet on professionally, are less able to understand one another's vocational problems, apparently less drawn together by their jobs.

But the main point is, that apparently real democracy fares best when the social organization is a small unit, a local community, because democratic learning is mostly a matter of mutual exchange of ideas and experiences face-to-face. Learning takes place best when groups are working out a common problem together side-by-side. Any institution, geographic barrier, individual or group that acts as a "middleman" between individuals is often a barrier to communication.

In its deepest and richest sense a community must always remain a matter of face-to-face intercourse. This is why the family and neighborhood, with all their deficiencies, have always been the chief agencies of nurture, the means by which dispositions are stably formed and ideas acquired which laid hold on the roots of character. 19

And the authors of Adult Education: the Community Approach, write that we must:

...discover or establish new face-to-face community relationships that

19. Ibid., p. 211.
will supplement and counter the tendencies toward centralization, and through which the ordinary citizen can keep in touch with the major problems of a larger community and at the same time take an active part in developing his immediate environment. In brief, we need to discover or form new communities in which adults can experience self-government and close fellowship.20

The reestablishment then of the small, communal, face-to-face, personal human relationship or the establishment of some equivalent is one of the four major social problems facing adults.

Essert suggests that the method of adult education can itself provide opportunities for close fellowship. He proposes that education ought to be taken to the day-by-day cultural setting of the adult students — where they work and gather, eat and sleep.

And the Committee on Social Philosophy writes:

The focus of adult education is the local community. Adult citizens meeting together in face-to-face groups for the purpose of exchanging knowledge and experience constitutes the sociological nexus of adult education.22

The Changing Role of the Individual:

The dignity and worth of the individual is the touchstone of our democratic tradition and faith and of Christian-Judaic ethics. Anything that affects the part the individual plays in society is a serious problem both for society at large and the development of the individual himself. There is no truly good society without good individuals nor truly good individuals without a good society. Each depends entirely upon the other.

As to the proper functioning of the individual in a democratic society Dewey writes:

From the stand point of the individual, it consists in having a responsible share according to capacity in forming and directing the activities of the groups to which one belongs and in participating according to need in the values which the group sustain. From the stand point of the groups, it demands liberation of the potential ties of members of a group in harmony with the interests and goods which are common.23

While individual participation in groups and activities that affect one's life and the life of the community seems to have become the major need, there seems to have developed something of the opposite trend in America.

About citizenship it has been said:

Few observers deny that both the quantity and quality of citizen participation in decision-making have deteriorated. . . opinion and information polls demonstrate repeatedly not only a lack of knowledge about contemporary affairs but a deliberate withdrawal from activities that influence the making of policy decisions. Sixty-seven percent of adults surveyed express no ideas on how they as individuals can help to prevent a third world war. Only one in ten adults participates in organizations that have even a peripheral interest in world affairs.24

The authors then say that deteriorating citizenship has resulted in adults feeling "frustration," anxiety, introversion and sheer loneliness.25

Surely one of the reasons for the unhealthy feelings of frustration, anxiety, introversion and loneliness is that adults are more aware of the problems that exist (at least aware of their presence) because of mass communications and wider educational opportunities; but adults have less opportunity for solving the problems in any concrete, direct, immediate way. Our social and political institutions, our governments often seem distant. Life becomes more complex as institutional arrangements


25. Ibid., pp. 35-36.
become more complex. The increasing size of cities and villages, military services, the schools, universities and colleges, industries call for more and more individually complicated and thus more remote relationships with one another. We speak now mostly through an "agent" we sometimes elect even though we often do not know him personally. And yet we all feel that we are responsible for running our own agencies. Thus, at a period of history when more democracy is needed individuals are personally involved less in the operation of their institutions and agencies.

Another main way in which the role of the individual has changed has been noted by John Dewey and by Bertrand Russell. Dewey wrote that a recent change has been:

...the identification of the individual with the forces that make freely for variation and change, to the exclusion of those forces in his structure that are habitual and conservative.26

Dewey then suggests the causes and forces behind this change of role. He thought that the relatively recent methods of natural science and their technological

application to certain areas of life—industrial production, commercial exchange of goods and services—promotes individualism, but that initiative, invention, enterprise, and *laissez faire* in economics, does not necessarily promote true individual freedom to many citizens:

"Instead of bringing freedom to those who lacked material possessions, it has imposed upon them further subjection to the owners of the agencies of material production and distribution."27

And Bertrand Russell in a chapter called "Ideas Which Have Become Obsolete" notes that the beneficient revolution of scientific production, and the scientific habit of mind has, in some nations, very nearly wiped out extreme poverty, famine, plagues and other large-scale illnesses, and obtained a high level of prosperity—relative to most Eastern and tropical nations. On the other hand the competition that has become a mark of private enterprise is often brutal and anti-social.

Briefly, then, it would seem that the role of the modern American adult is changing in this further important


way: while being released somewhat from older forms of organized authority (mainly the Church and the State) so that individual freedom, inventiveness, enterprise can evoke changes in the culture, no entirely satisfactory social organizations have arisen to nourish this individual freedom and simultaneously maintain a cooperative, shared freedom on behalf of every individual in the society. The values and aims of living have shifted from domination by Church and State to domination by the principles of individualistic economic enterprise.

Perhaps our values and aims for living may get some direction by incorporating in our daily lives one of the needs Essert describes: the need for "intermittent solitude." This idea is a particularly interesting one because it is not often thought of as educational, except perhaps, by artists and scholars.

It would seem that Essert is demanding a kind of educational experience that will permit adults to reflect on their experiences and try to integrate them into some individual meaningful whole. He apparently feels that we

all need to retire from social activities from time to time to consolidate experience and to reflect on ends. The need, perhaps, is that every adult should be a philosopher, at least to the degree that he desires to ask himself, "What do I believe?" A man needs a certain amount of solitude to try and answer this question.

Essert also presents us with another aim of effective adult education which may be considered to be a fifth social imperative.

The Existence of Beauty and Artistic Enjoyment:

Mr. Essert writes, "man is provided with a variety of opportunities for enjoying the beauties of his existence."

The world is full of natural and man made creations — some are beautiful and some are not. Both the pleasure of perceiving art and of creating it are important and worthwhile experiences; to many human beings it is the heart of their very existence. But all men, everywhere, have some capacity to both enjoy through perceiving artistic creations and through creating on their own. The importance of art for all is suggested by Herbert Read who

writes:

The work of art is in some sense a liberation of the personality; normally our feelings are inhibited and repressed. We contemplate a work of art, and immediately there is a release; and not only a release—sympathy is a release of feelings—but also a heightening, a tautening, a sublimation.31

Everyone should have not only unlimited opportunities for aesthetic enjoyment but everyone should also have unlimited opportunities to personally create in some aesthetic form: to write, to dance, to paint, to carve, to sing, to read. It is good in itself and an excellent road toward self realization through self expression.

John Dewey reminds us:

We live in a world in which there is an immense amount of organization, but it is an external organization, not one of the ordering of a growing experience, one that involves, moreover, the whole of the live creature, toward a fulfilling conclusion. Works of art that are not remote from common life, that are widely enjoyed in a community, are signs of a unified collective life. But they are also marvelous aids in the creation of such a life.

The remaking of the material of experience in the act of expression is not an isolated event confined to the artist and to a person here and there who happens to enjoy the work. In the degree in which art exercises its office, it is also a remaking of the experience of the community in the direction of greater order and unity.32

Perhaps it is at this point that the full capacity to enjoy art relates most closely to the needs of the adult community.

Implications for Organization and Programming

There are a number of implications for organizing and programming the television station that may be drawn from this chapter. These implications are particularly valuable because they are what help to give the station its community-centered character, its additional opportunity to relate itself directly to the needs of the society it serves.

Organizational Principles

Here are several of the main goals of adult education suggested previously in this chapter: (1) to improve the quality, quantity and techniques of discussion; (2) to develop an awareness of frictions resulting

from interdependence, and to less these frictions;
(3) to close the gap between what man knows and the ways he acts; (4) to promote face-to-face "neighborly" community group relationships; (5) to provide a responsible share for the individual in the direction of his group activities; (6) to provide opportunities for aesthetic experiences.

For the organization and administration of the university television station the following implications may be drawn:

1. In order to be in touch with the true vital issues of the adult off-campus community the television station must put representatives of the community at the center of the operation. This may be done by including them in deliberations on policy matters.

2. Administrative and other key personnel must be in sympathy with and have knowledge of the special problems and techniques of adult education. They must, also, have the integrity, the courage and the wisdom to insure the free discussion of vital issues.

3. The station personnel should have a background in the kinds of learnings that develop mostly from the social sciences so that they understand the forces working on contemporary society. They should be able to feel their own sensitive interdependent roles that must be played with the community.

4. The station must be financially able and have the facilities and staff to take its cameras to the community in order to show the nature of adult needs and ways of coping with them.

**General Guides for Programming**

Each of the six goals mentioned in the preceding
sub-section will be stated and general remarks regard-
ing program practices will follow.

1. To increase the quantity and quality of, and to
improve the techniques of discussion and debate about
current and/or vital issues.

Adequate programming will include attention to vital,
current issues of the community. It should also display
for adults worthwhile techniques and practices of dis-
cussion, debate and persuasion.

2. To develop an intelligent awareness of the frictions
resulting from the interdependence of the human race, and to
ameliorate these frictions.

Programs should clearly show the causes and results
of frictions arising from complex societies. Programs
should also aim at neutralizing prejudices and un-
critically accepted beliefs. Methods for arriving at in-
telligent conclusions, of gathering and weighing evidence,
should be presented.

3. To close the distance between what is known and
what is done. This is the problem called, "cultural lag."

Programs must distribute effectively and immediately,
the latest knowledge from human experience, imaginatively
interpret possible meanings, suggest possible solutions
for potential problems.

4. To promote neighborly living by providing oppor-
tunities and motivation for face-to-face exchange of ideas
and experiences.
The main program function here is to make evident the facts, the causes and effects of secondary human relationships, and to motivate audiences to participation in small, face-to-face group endeavors.

5. To provide a responsible share for each individual in the forming and directing of the activities of the groups to which he belongs.

Programs are needed which forcefully demonstrate the bad results of non-participation in group activities. Programs should also try to provide techniques for developing leadership skills.

6. To provide a variety of opportunities for adults to enjoy the beauty of the world and to add to it through developing their own creative possibilities.

Programs should be designed in all of the arts to promote appreciation as well as to motivate the audience to create and to participate in the many art forms.

Summary

The university television station serves as an important educative device for adults. While the needs of adults are similar to the needs of college students they nevertheless have particular areas of need that seem to be more critical. They also have need of special types of educational techniques more in tune with their adult experience.
Perhaps the most critical problem facing mankind today is the essential need of improving the quality and quantity of discussion, debate and persuasion. But there are additional basic problems practically all adults face, which result from the social facts of our contemporary culture: (1) the growth of interdependence; (2) the growth of knowledge; (3) the declining importance in America of the primary face-to-face group; (4) the changing role of the individual including his need to participate actively in sharing in the decisions of the groups to which he belongs; (5) the nature of man's world and his need for aesthetic and creative expression. All of these "social imperatives" have concrete, day-to-day meaning for adults and for those who are charged with the responsibility for carrying out adult education.

The university television station has an important job to perform on behalf of adult education. Both organization and programming must reflect the needs of the adults in the community.
Chapter Four

TELEVISION SERVING THE ON-CAMPUS COMMUNITY

An educational television station on the university campus should perform certain functions of a very specialized nature for the on-campus community. The following four functions are listed not necessarily in order of most importance: (1) the station ought to be a training facility for students who wish to prepare for television careers; (2) the station should contribute significantly to furthering the ends of various other interests and activities at the institution; (3) television might be used to help solve the increasingly critical shortage of teachers and facilities on our college campuses while improving both the quality of teaching and the educational process; (4) the station should provide opportunities for research concerned with television broadcasting.

In this chapter these on-campus functions of the television station will be examined in some detail.

1. Using the Station for Television Training

It would appear to be the clear duty of the television station to act as a realistic laboratory for training those students interested in pursuing careers in the television industry.
The main reason for this has been mentioned in chapter one: broadcasting is an industry of significant influence on our society and it is an important business economically. If television is to function nobly in serving the needs of a democratic society the professional personnel in the industry must be enabled to perform the task. Sidney W. Head says:

If colleges and universities can indirectly influence the programming of commercial stations by educating the people who make the program decisions so that they will make those decisions wisely and conscientiously in terms of social needs, education will have accomplished a very great service to society.1

The most realistic laboratory to use for training students is the television station itself in those institutions of higher education fortunate enough to have the facility available. Such training is going on in some of those institutions with television stations. One study shows that the seven institutions of higher learning surveyed regarding the use of students in station operation

are all using students. One respondent wrote:

We do use students as part of our operation. The lab work for their courses of study is tied directly into our program production and station operation. . . I believe that a student training program can be an opportunity to work in an actual broadcast situation.3

Another respondent replied:

We certainly do plan to use students in the operation. . . I believe the chief interest of the university in a station at this time is that it may be used in connection with courses in television for the training of students.4

In the same study the specific question was asked, "Will your institution be engaged (cooperate) in a student training program in television? If so, please describe your present or proposed program of training."

Answers were as follows:

University of Miami (Coral Gables, Florida)

The University of Miami started regular televiscasting back in April, 1949. Recognizing the

2. Television Operations Committee Report No. 6, Students and Staff Training in Educational Television Stations, National Association of Educational Broadcasters (Urbana, Ill.: University of Illinois, 1953), October.

3. Ibid., p. 4.

4. Ibid., p. 5.
growing importance of the medium, Miami combined in one department responsibility both for producing all the University's programs and for training students. And because television is so closely linked with radio and motion pictures, these media are incorporated in a Radio-Tv-Film department. This means that at Miami a student can major directly in the Radio-Tv-Film area. He need not major in some other field and take television, radio, or film courses "on the side." It means, too, an active schedule of production in each of these media. Programs are produced regularly each week, ranging through most of the typical formats.5

Syracuse University (Syracuse, New York)

Programs telecast from the University studio on the Campus fall into two categories:

a. Educational programs planned and produced by the University staff and graduate students.

b. Commercial programs presented by WSYR-TV for its sponsors.

Students in the Graduate Sequence serve as crew members in both types of programs handling all the equipment such as cameras, film chain, mikes, switching, shading, lighting and control boards. On the University's educational programs the students also handle much of the writing, producing, directing, set designing and performance. Members of the Graduate Sequence are divided into "crews" of about ten students each. A "crew" will then operate as a unit taking complete responsibility for certain programs each week. Crew members are rotated in the various studio jobs. This procedure is based on the philosophy that whether or not

5. Ibid.
the student will later be working in a studio, he should know all of the problems involved as well as the potentialities and limitations of standard studios and equipment. Thus, the student upon graduation is sufficiently equipped to assume a job of responsibility in commercial or educational television.6

Michigan State University (East Lansing, Michigan)

As a television student at Michigan State you are trained to be a director — a director who is familiar with each detail and working unit on the television production team. You are trained to operate television cameras, to work with the boom microphone, to use motion picture and slide projectors, and to select television pictures from studio monitors. Following this, you learn the techniques of control room directing in which capacity you rehearse talent, perfect the presentation of the show, and actually direct television programs.7

University of Washington (Seattle, Washington)

...we certainly do plan a student training program in television. We have no such program at present, though we have been able to experiment with a laboratory situation made available by a local commercial applicant, and found that we could do a successful training job. While we are not sure, we believe that we will restrict the training program to advanced students (though probably not graduates) with some background in radio, drama, film or art.

6. Ibid., p. 9.
7. Ibid., p. 10.
We expect to train at least in TV writing, production, acting, directing and news.8

The good sense of using students in important capacities in the television station is clearly shown in the previous quotations.

Along with the realistic experiences assured by such student participation, a sound curriculum must be developed in television. Of what would such a curriculum consist?

Curriculum for Television Training

A college curriculum (including related "co" or "extra" curricular activities) must satisfy at least two interests: first, the interests, or goals of the institution and second, the interests or needs of the profession for which the student is preparing himself.

The question here is, of what should education for broadcasting consist? Again we must refer to general principles for our answers.

To begin with, college television training must do what all higher education must do: develop free and responsible citizens. This subject has been explored in chapter one. However, it may be of value to be more specific as to the types of curriculum that ought to be

8. Ibid., p. 11.
designed to prepare them to be free, responsible citizens in and for the television industry as well.

First of all, students preparing for positions in broadcasting need primarily the general education described previously in chapter one: the education that provides them with the possibilities of developing values, attitudes, insights, understandings and skills that will equip them to live as free men in a free society. They need the kind of education that develops their self-realization as well as the kind of education that provides them with scientific techniques of problem solving.

But this liberalizing education for television trainees ought to arise, whenever possible, quite naturally out of the professional courses and the other realistic curricular experiences in television training. The humanities, the sciences, and the social sciences curricula should not alone be charged with providing our television majors with liberal education. On the other hand, realistic vocational preparation for a television career should be an expected result of the television curriculum. The point is only, that in good conscience television training at a college or university should not be wholly vocational nor wholly academic. The emphasis must, however, be placed on the general education of the students, in part achieved
by liberalizing, as much as possible, the skill or technical courses in broadcasting.

An educational association made up of educators and professional broadcasting personnel called the "Association for Professional Broadcasting Education" has adopted certain "Recommended Standards" for the type of training students need who plan to enter broadcasting. The standards are here reproduced:

"ASSOCIATION FOR PROFESSIONAL BROADCASTING EDUCATION

RECOMMENDED STANDARDS FOR

PROFESSIONAL BROADCASTING EDUCATION

The Association takes the view that it is unrealistic to pre-determine the "best" or "right" method or organizing and conducting an educational program in broadcasting. It recognizes that each institution must have latitude in developing its own facilities and services according to its particular needs and resources. It is recommended, however, that the following are considered to be essential for a comprehensive professional training in radio and/or television broadcasting. These are set forth as follows:

CURRICULUM

1. A four-year college or university program in a regionally accredited institution leading to the bachelor's degree. The Association recognizes the primacy of a broad cultural education. It believes that professional education in broadcasting should be based upon the intellectual concepts and attitudes of study and research which are fundamental to college education.

2. A sequence of courses representing a sufficient concentration in broadcasting to constitute a "major" sequence, as generally recognized in
college curricula. The Association believes that a sound professional educational program involves mastery of certain specialized skills and content area so that the graduate of the program is qualified to function effectively as an employee with minimum on-the-job training at the entering level of employment, as well as being prepared to make progress in his profession.

3. Particular subject areas necessary for all majors. The Association believes that the broadcast major should have a comprehensive experience and background in the whole field as well as in particular areas of competency or concentration. Background and/or experience in each of the following areas is considered to be essential:

I. General Background. This area should include some attention to the following sub-topics:

(1) The history, organization and development of broadcasting as a medium of communication, with due consideration to its relationships to other forms of mass communication.

(2) The social, political, economic and cultural significance of broadcasting.

(3) Comparative broadcasting systems, with particular attention to the philosophy underlying the American system of broadcasting as exemplified in its history and evolution, including its licensing and regulation by the federal government.

(4) The development of critical discrimination in the evaluation of programs.

II. Program-Production areas, including

(1) Programming

(2) Performance skills

(3) Writing

(4) Production skills
III. The area of broadcasting economics. This area includes the study of the practical business aspects of the medium, including

(1) Its relationship to other media
(2) Sales
(3) Advertising and promotion
(4) Market Research
(5) Financial organization of stations.

It is emphasized that these three groups are considered to have relatively equal importance.9

The Association's suggestions for a broadcasting curriculum are general enough to give guidance while not prescribing. On the other hand, there is a recognition by the Association in section 1, of the prime importance of developing "intellectual concepts" and attitudes in students and also some emphasis, (in section 3, subsection II) on activity in the creative aspects of broadcasting.

Operating within the usual university curricular pattern, it would probably be necessary to prescribe certain courses for television students. Courses in aesthetics so that students can have a sound, enlightened basis for arriving at the artistic values of programs and for producing genuinely creative and artful programs; courses in

the fine arts, particularly in design and stagecraft, so that they can create tasteful and functional sets and properties; courses in appreciation and criticism of drama (including television and motion pictures), of art, of music, of literature to give breadth to their lives and further experience in arriving at their own intelligent standards for both high quality content and performance; courses in acting, and in oral communication to develop a sense and skill suitable for performance and a serious respect for the significant cultural functions of language; courses in writing for further creative experiences, for developing the skill of writing clear, simple exposition in order to help them put their ideas in working order, and because most of what is heard on the air is written in advance; courses in the principles of use and in the production of audio-visual materials including the various kinds of photography.

For the student whose main interest lies in educational television broadcasting, courses and experiences are necessary beyond those described in the preceding paragraph. He needs a background in the principles and practices of adult, higher, secondary, elementary and pre-school education. He must have developed the unique talent of transferring educational theory into concrete
meaning through broadcasts.

The emphasis on the formal curricular experiences suggested in the two preceding paragraphs is "creativity."

For myself, I believe courses and experiences in television activity at the university ought to be, above all else, creative. Television work should offer students further opportunities to discover or create their own values by forcing them to state what they feel and believe, to come to conclusions; to impose upon themselves the stringent disciplines of the trained, professional broadcasters; to comprehend fully the television medium as an increasingly important social institution. What is needed by way of specific vocational training in skills can often arise naturally from the creative job confronting each student participating in the planning and creation of a program for an audience. To do this job well, certain specific (almost, but not quite, wholly mechanical) abilities in the fundamentals of camera operation, control-room and studio procedures, scenery construction, makeup, lighting, and the forms of television scripts need to be learned. These skills are the tools-of-the-trade without which little or nothing of value can be produced. But even they ought to be learned and to be approached creatively and imaginatively. After all,
there are good, mediocre, and poor ways of performing even the fundamental skills. The good ways are invariably creative.

But the learning of these skills should arise from the actual need of producing important, creative programs from the station. When the television student has to clearly present his ideas, find out what he really thinks is of value, interrelate his college learning in order to communicate it to others artistically, his education has become responsible and realistic, personal and individual.

From this it can be stated that the television curriculum should be closely tied to station programming and operation. It can be inferred that the curriculum ought to include many creative experiences in writing, directing, scenic design, lighting, the dance, acting, music, and the other arts. Since television programming deals with the broadest kinds of interest and human experience the student must bring to his television work, background and earlier significant experiences in the social sciences and the physical sciences. The experimental methods of the sciences are needed perpetually in testing ideas and results of television programming and in the closely related special areas of audience research.

It is in the nature of this kind of creative television curriculum to also bring home to the student
first-hand, the responsibilities of creative programming: the rigid, severe, adult self-discipline of learning all there is to know about the successful performance of one's immediate task and about one's chosen profession, to meet deadlines, to work democratically and cooperatively with one's colleagues and fellow artisans.

In this section there has been a real effort made to avoid describing in great detail curriculum "subjects." The emphasis has been throughout this thesis mainly on the student personality itself in relation to his society. The belief has been expressed that in the creative arts, including this newest medium of expression — television — lie the most vital possibilities for students to come to grips with their own personal values and to relate their own learning to the world they live in.

Here is an opportunity for our students to say new things in new ways in a new medium of communication. Is this not what we want most from higher education today?

2. Furthering Intra-Institutional Relationships

Another function of the university television station may be that of providing many areas of interest with opportunities for the achievement of common educational goals.

By the varied nature of the content covered in a
single broadcast day it is plain that many interests, specialties and university activities do meet at the station's studios before the cameras.

An additional, and probably as important, facet of this situation is that in the presentation of a single program the skills and interest of several areas may be utilized.

Cooperative endeavors on any campus are golden opportunities to be eagerly grasped and made the most of. Almost all educators would agree that integration of effort and interest on a campus-wide scale is of the utmost educative value for student, teacher, and administrator alike. It is through such combined effort that subject-matter lines are crossed over and wider learnings and sympathies developed, new ways of solving problems are tried, the logical relationships between areas of learning are sharply brought into focus, enthusiasm is generated between participants who challenge and stimulate one another mentally. An example of this is when a series of dramatic presentations are planned, written and produced calling on the Drama department, the English department, the Art and Music departments, perhaps the Social Sciences as well. A further example is the need for cooperative efforts of the Social Sciences, Speech and Journalism in
a series of programs on current affairs. In productions for in-school viewing for secondary and elementary schools the Education department will have almost limitless opportunities to work with many other areas of interest. Here are only three examples of ways in which the station can provide many opportunities for intra-institutional cooperation and cohesion. Any brief inquiry will suggest many further possibilities for healthful intra-campus relations.

3. Campus Television as an Instructional Tool

The use of television on the campus as a tool for direct instruction has received considerable attention in the past few years. This interest results mainly from the critical shortage of facilities and teachers for certain subjects.

A number of educators have seen classroom instruction by television as a possible way of helping to meet this increasing shortage in higher education. Others, looking beyond this clear possibility, see classroom instruction by television as not just substituting for teachers and classrooms on either a temporary or long term basis, but as an enrichment of the curriculum, an intensification of the learning process and an upgrading of classroom instruction. And there has been research undertaken that demonstrates television's capabilities in the classrooms of
our colleges and universities.

That there is a rapidly increasing, nation-wide shortage of teachers, and facilities on our campuses has become an issues of paramount importance to this country. The simple arithmetic of increasing enrollment forewarns of another mounting crisis in which higher education finds itself.

The population of the United States has doubled in the past fifty years. The number of births each year has almost doubled in the last twenty years, reaching nearly four million in 1953 while the percentage of births inexorably increases year after year:

The burden of educating this unprecedented tidal wave of students when it strikes our colleges and universities will be far greater than anything we have been called upon to bear thus far.12


11. Ibid., p. 305.

In the state of California for example, where the author now resides, there is an increase of births (almost 300% in the past twenty years) that will tax every single resource the state can tap in meeting the educational needs through finances, physical facilities and teachers. In the State Colleges alone the student enrollment is expected to double in the next five years (by 1961) from about 25 thousand in 1956 to about 70 thousand.

Throughout the United States somewhat similar growth patterns exist in enrollments in higher education. The U.S. Office of Education predicts that by 1972 at least half of our youth of college age will be enrolled in our colleges as compared to the present one-third. This would bring the number of students to nearly seven million in 1972 as compared to two-and-a-half million in 1955. At the present time neither facilities nor teacher availability is anywhere near keeping pace with the increase in student enrollment. If half the students of college

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13. The State Colleges, of which there are eleven, are to be distinguished from the University of California, which has 9 units. The State Colleges operate under the administration of the State Department of Education, the University of California under a Board of Regents.
age are in attendance in 1972, 555 thousand college teachers will be needed. The problem is made even more troublesome by the facts that at the college and university level additional years of teacher training are necessary, the cost is greater than in the training of elementary and secondary teachers, and such training is available only in the graduate centers of our large universities. It is claimed by some educators that the universities simply cannot meet this need for teachers and facilities regardless of what finances are available. Most educational institutions today suffering the pangs of growth can not bring facilities and personnel in line with enrollment. Dr. David Henry, President of the University of Illinois once said:

. . . the deficits in dollars, teachers, classrooms, and services, in meeting our load without considering the new numbers of tomorrow, mark out a national concern

14. This figure is based on a 12 students to one teacher ratio which is considered a normal, workable ratio at the college level by most responsible educators.

15. Interview with Fredric Heimberger, Vice President, the Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, June, 1955.
as serious as how to defend ourselves in a world of international tension. For we shall not be able to defend ourselves effectively unless we depend upon brain power as well as manpower, upon new ideas as well as upon arsenals, upon the morale of the people as well as upon regimentation, upon economic strength as well as diplomacy. . . . even if an increased proportion of college graduates enter the teaching profession (a premise, incidentally, that is not too well supported) there is no way of preserving present methods and present organizations without lowering the standards of teacher personnel. 16

Later in this same speech Dr. Henry makes the appeal to educators to try and meet the rapidly increasing enrollments by moving the, "audio-visual instruments of education from the periphery to the center of current practice." Dr. Henry's remarks are timely and to the point. This problem was recognized by the Committee for the White House Conference on Education, which stated in its report of April, 1956:

. . . . the services of the teacher might be extended and made more effective by appropriate reorganization of classes and use of audio-visual and other techniques and materials.

16. In a speech, The Institute for Education by Radio and Television, Columbus, Ohio, April 14, 1955.
Many proposals have been made, and some research and experimentation is underway, to explore these avenues more fully. Such efforts are to be commended and encouraged, with appropriate safeguards to assure interpretation of the results in terms of their effect upon the educational process itself. To date it has not been shown that such steps can justify a meaningful reduction in the number of competent teachers needed; there is encouraging evidence, however, that the teacher's effectiveness may be improved, that the status of teaching as a profession can be enhanced, and that the loss of teachers may thus be reduced.17

Experimenting with television in our college classrooms and using it where research shows its use feasible, is an efficient and effective way of helping to solve the teacher shortage.

Educators have had some success in the use of televised education for resident instruction. A review of some of the experiments of this kind will demonstrate this point.

The University of Houston, Texas and KUHT-TV: One of the earliest evaluations of the effectiveness of instruction by television was carried on by three University of

Houston psychologists in 1953, 1954 and 1955. Evaluating both elementary psychology and biology courses it was found that a comparison of the final examination scores of students enrolled in campus lecture sections with the scores of students enrolled in "television-lecture-only" and "television plus-campus discussion" sections only, demonstrated "no significant differences in the average scores of these three groups, although the TV-only group scored slightly higher than the non-TV group, and the TV-plus-discussion group scored still higher.

The Pennsylvania State University Studies: Perhaps the most comprehensive and intense study of the classroom uses of closed-circuit television has been carried on at Pennsylvania State University over a period of a few years. To summarize the objectives and general conclusions of the study:

Objective One: To compare the relative effectiveness of conventional instruction

with the same instruction presented over closed-circuit television for a full academic semester.

Relevant Finding: The overall comparative measurements did not yield significant differences in informational learning by students in two different courses of psychology and the lecture-demonstrations part of general chemistry.

Objective Two: To study the acceptability of unmodified courses presented to students over closed-circuit television.

Relevant Findings:
(a) Instructional television was acceptable to students for the courses as taught in the context of the experiment.
(b) Students' general attitudes towards televised instruction as compared with direct instruction was mainly neutral or slightly negative.

Objective Three: To investigate trends in effectiveness and acceptance during a full semester of regular instruction.

Relevant Finding: No statistically significant trends in effectiveness or acceptance were found over the course of a full academic semester of televised instruction.

Objective Four: To study the feasibility of using "moderate cost" closed-circuit television for teaching selected university courses.

Relevant Finding: It was found to be practical to use vidicon closed-circuit television equipment under the conditions of the experiment, but there are many problems of feasibility and costs which need further study preparatory for full scale operations.

Objective Five: To study the acceptance of instructional television by administrators and faculty members.
Relevant Findings:
(a) University administrators accept and see promise in closed-circuit television as one means of solving difficult problems related to increased student enrollment, shortages of instructors and limitations of academic space and facilities.
(b) Experienced instructors generally do not prefer instructional television, as used in this experiment, to their accustomed teaching procedures.
(c) Faculty members are willing to accept closed-circuit television on an experimental basis.

Objective Six: To explore the possibilities of using closed-circuit television to extend the power and influences of good and superior instruction to large numbers of students.

Relevant Finding: Practical use of two systems suggests that the potentialities are very great for using single or multiple systems of closed-circuit videcon television for channeling excellent instruction from a single source or sources to a very large number of university students. 19

The Stephens College Experiment: In an effort at achieving integration in the college curriculum,

through helping students to see the inherent inter­
relationships in their educational experiences, a closed-
circuit television course at Stephens College was broad­
cast dealing directly with ideas and concepts common to
our western heritage. The course was called, "Ideas and
Living Today." The proposed method of teaching the course
was described this way:

Some combination of the lecture and dis­
cussion method suggests itself as a most
plausible method of teaching a course
dealing in concepts. Considering the
fundamental role of such a course in the
curriculum, it would be more desirable
for the students enrolled in the course
to hear the same lecture, given by the
same lecturer, simultaneously, because
these conditions would increase the sense
of a common enterprise and provide a con­
tinuum of common experience, while per­
mitting the greatest possibility for
carry-over and informal continuation of
discussion outside the classroom. The
medium of closed-circuit television would
make possible the large-scale dissemina­
tion of the course to a large number of
students at the same time. Such a medium
would also permit the students to be
placed in many classrooms and gathered in
groups of a size small enough to permit
adequate discussion. The lecture would be
followed by a discussion led by two mem­
bers of the faculty, present in each dis­
cussion group. The involvement of a large
number of faculty members, drawn from
many areas, would permit the bringing to­
gether of a variety of points of view and
specializations: this would also permit
a carry-over (or more properly, a carry-back) by these faculty members from the lecture and discussion to the other courses they, individually, teach. 20

While there has been no complete published evaluation of this experiment as yet (October, 1956), James G. Rice, the Dean of Instruction at Stephens College, wrote in a letter to the author dated August 1, 1956, "We have been very well pleased with our course, 'Ideas and Living Today.'"

Armed Forces Experiments with Televised Instruction:
The earliest experiments with television as a method of direct classroom instruction were carried out by the Army and the Navy. 21

Several studies for the Navy were done by Fordham University psychologists for the Navy Special Devices Center, Port Washington, New York. In one experiment 700 Naval Air Reservists at nine


centers throughout the country were taught the same material. At three centers in the east the courses were taught by live television. At three centers between Chicago and Dallas, the courses were given by video recordings. At three places in the Great Lakes region, the courses were given by resident instructors. While the same instructors did not present both the television and the face-to-face courses, the lesson plans for the resident instructors were used as a basis for the television programs as well. Students were tested at the end of the course. In from 75% to 84% of the cases television or television recordings proved as effective "or more effective" than local face-to-face instruction.

In another Navy study of television by the same psychologists the main problem of investigation was whether television could be used effectively to teach Army reservists, and whether students taught by television could remember what they learned. More than 3000 officers and enlisted reservists in ten centers throughout the Northeast were shown eight telecasts entitled, "Command Post." Pre-tests were given before the course, and scores on those tests were compared with test results when the course had been completed. Results were reported as follows: (1) all grades of officers and enlisted men made significantly
higher scores after the telecasts; (2) students remembered a substantial amount of the material when tested again one to six weeks after the course; (3) the reservists compared the television course very favorably with other reserve training, and a majority thought it was better than the average training film; (4) the majority said that, given an opportunity to choose between similar instruction in the classroom or by television they would choose television.

In a study done by the Army Quartermaster School, Fort Lee, Virginia in cooperation with the University of Houston and station KUHT-TV an attempt was made to discover whether a short program of instruction through television would be as effective with and as acceptable to Quartermaster ROTC students as is classroom teaching. 107 students were used: 47 in the television group, 60 in the classroom. No pre-tests were given, but all students were tested at the conclusion of the four-weeks course. It was reported that: (1) the television teaching resulted in approximately as high examination scores with the television as with the classroom group. The groups were not exactly matched; (2) the majority of students felt that television instruction was at least equal to classroom instruction, and they would prefer the television.
instruction.

Another Army television study was carried out in 1954 with the cooperation of the Human Resources Research Office of the George Washington University. This was a study to determine whether television could be used effectively to replace some of the face-to-face teaching in Army basic training. Fourteen hours of basic training materials were selected, and parallel television instruction was prepared. The same instructors were used for television and regular instruction. About 12,000 basic trainees were tested. Achievement tests were given immediately after, and again one month after, the instruction. The results, under matched conditions: (1) television instruction proved at least as effective as regular instruction; (2) television instruction was more effective than regular instruction for lower-aptitude groups; (3) television instruction was remembered at least as well as regular instruction. The conclusion of the study:

...should conditions require the Army to adopt a mass medium of instruction such as television, instruction of the types used in this study could be presented by television with the strong assurance that there would be no loss in learning effectiveness.22

This summary review of experiments on the effectiveness of classroom instruction by television, demonstrates clearly that television may be used successfully to help alleviate the increasingly critical shortages of good teachers and adequate facilities. Numerous other studies of the educational effectiveness of television teaching shows, at least, that a good teacher can cause learning in a great number of viewers.

So far nothing has been mentioned here of whether or not, philosophically or theoretically, televised teaching should ever substitute for "live" teaching. There is the feeling, shared to a degree by the writer, among some college teachers and administrators that such televised teaching represents a threat to what they feel is the best teaching situation in a college classroom — the face-to-face relationship of student and teacher. They feel that television will be a barrier placed between teacher and student or will become a potential weapon in the hands of a centralized, pedagogical "politburo." There may also be, lurking in the background, an understandable fear of technological unemployment or else one's subservience to the mechanics of a "gadget."

There is probably not any clear cut, acceptable answer for those who fear or doubt the advisability of
televised resident education. Whether or not television is an educational barrier interfering with communication and the educative process between teacher and student in the classroom is purely a relative or an individual matter. No general statement can be made about it.

Nevertheless, on the basis of recent research noted above one can say that there are specific courses that can be presented as well or better by television than by the teacher in the classroom. To be more exact: courses usually taught by straight lectures (with or without a text-book) in which one-way communication from the teacher to the student is the primary method lend themselves as well to their televising. In such a course it is hard to see what the educational loss is when substituting the image of a lecturer for the actual human being. On the contrary, one may readily see that there might be advantages in televising the lecture: increased visualization of abstract ideas and concepts, a more careful editing of material, the extension of the skills and knowledge of the best lecturers to all the students.

It is surely obvious that when good teachers and facilities are critically scarce on a campus, that linking any number of classrooms, or other facilities that can substitute for classrooms, putting one or more
television sets in each and having one good professor lecture on television is an entirely feasible stopgap for teaching some courses—at least until the number of good teachers and facilities catch up with enrollments.

There are, perhaps, other particular courses that might legitimately be taught effectively by television even though they are not as a rule, exclusively, or even mostly, straight lecture courses. Even in courses where some student participation and interaction between student and teacher is considered desirable, and this is true of most college courses, there are certain procedures that might permit such participation or an acceptable variation of it. Some of these have been described by Charles J. McIntyre and Leslie P. Greenhill. They suggest these four possibilities: (1) "Lecture plus recitation." With this arrangement one professor would lecture "n" times per week to multiple sections receiving the lecture by television. For the remainder of the class hours television would not be used but, instead, they

would be conducted with a regular instructor in each class and in "whatever way seemed best in terms of satisfying students' needs to participate. This arrangement assumes the availability of instructors. . .for conducting the recitation sections." (2) "Lecture plus discussion panel." The professor presents, say, two lectures per week by television and devotes the third session to a televised discussion. The panel would be composed of students who watch the televised lectures, who would raise and discuss questions related to the preceding lectures. The personnel of the panel could be rotated each week to spread participation among as many students as possible. (3) "Rotation of students from TV originating rooms to television receiving rooms." In courses where all students must participate some of the time but no students must participate all of the time small classes may be rotated from session to session. Thus all students would have the opportunity to participate while in the television originating room, and to see and hear other students while they were in the television receiving rooms. The authors proceed to say:

Variations on these patterns will come quickly to mind and there is no doubt

24. Ibid.
that other patterns could be developed to meet specific needs. All of them have in common the use of TV as a partial solution to problems of extending the influence of the good instructor to larger numbers of students. They represent a compromise which we, as teachers, may have to accept, just as we have already accepted an increase in class size.25

Beyond this "stop-gap" use of television for resident instruction to try and meet in some degree the challenge to higher education of rapidly increasing enrollments, is the possibility that television instruction might even improve the quality of "live," face-to-face instruction, and be worthy of a permanent place in the classrooms of our campuses even though the quality and quantity of teachers and facilities should become adequate. In what respects might this obtain?

Improving the Educational Process by Using Television: In appraising television as an educational arm of a college one naturally inquires about what unique or special functions the television camera can perform more effectively or efficiently than other educational devices. This is a fair and necessary inquiry because there is no particular advantage in using television in any capacity duplicated

25. Ibid., p. 599.
or surpassed by other devices. In the interests of improved education we must always use whatever devices seem most promising. There are a number of ways in which resident instruction can be improved by exploiting the special qualities of television as a teaching device in the service of the classroom teacher:

1. Television can bring before all of the students in residence outstanding personalities in the many areas of the curriculum. This may be done simultaneously in many classrooms and other meeting places or the broadcast may be filmed and presented at other convenient times as well.

2. Television can bring the resident students on-the-spot and current events in those curricular areas and activities where immediacy, and reality are essential or desirable.

3. Television can be used to motivate and encourage students to further activity. There are few curricular areas or educational aims that could not profit from television in this way. Using the most talented teachers, lectures, demonstrators, and artists of all kinds to bring first hand to the students carefully planned and artfully executed programs containing unusual and interesting materials beyond the scope of the classroom teacher alone, will enrich the daily lesson in invaluable ways. The enthusiasm for learning stimulated by such television presentations is a benefit most instructors will eagerly approve and want.

    In passing it should be noted that through the use of top-flight television instructors the classroom teacher may observe many imaginative and successful teaching techniques. Such indirect improvement of classroom instruction should be of great benefit.

4. In much education it is essential that students clearly see demonstrations and objects that are an integral part of the learning situation. In too many instances in our classrooms (particularly the larger ones designed to house increasing numbers) students beyond the first few rows can not clearly observe these demonstrations
and objects. The television camera can fill up a screen with an object no bigger than a dime and can show the most minute and deft motions. This magnification of images puts every student in the room at the elbow of the instructor, their eyes serving as magnifying lenses.

The preceding four ways of improving college instruction by using television might well insure the television screen a permanent and necessary place in our college classrooms and laboratories. It would become an aid to the teacher as essential as the chalkboard on the wall.

But these are only the most obvious ways in which television can help improve resident college instruction. Enough careful thought about possible further advantages accompanied by continuing experimentation will produce additional possibilities and techniques in most curricular areas and activities. In time it is altogether possible that television might be found to be most worthwhile in effecting positive changes in curriculum and method. For example, one might expect that certain teachers would be trained to be skilled television instructors and others trained to perform different classroom roles more suited to their talents and training.

4. Television, Higher Education, and Research

One of the central functions of a university, and, for that matter, a college, is research. For it is through the careful, patient, systematic investigation of
educational problems that we can establish the facts and principles which open the paths and direct us on our way to improved education. There is, also, research of a service nature that primarily aids "outside" or allied institutions (industry, medicine, mass communications, are examples) in the solution of their problems and trains university and college students to perform research jobs after their graduation.

In effect, then, research in higher education serves education by self-examination for purposes of self improvement. University research is also done on behalf of outside institutions or interests both for the immediate application of the results (service to the wide community) and, more indirectly, by training research experts who will later go to work for the outside agencies or interests.

The centers of research, though, are our institutions of higher education. And higher education must add its own flavor to research problems and techniques. This flavor can be understood only by examining the main purposes of higher education. Since this has been done in some detail previously in this thesis a brief statement should suffice here: basically, colleges and universities are trying to develop free men to live productively in a free society, by developing the most vital ability of all —
creative thinking. A lucid statement of the situation has been made by L. A. Du Bridge, President of the California Institute of Technology, who once said:

To me the central, the indispensable, the necessary and sufficient, and the all important function of any university is that it be a center of creative thinking. . . Creative thinking means more than absorbing and repeating the thoughts of others. It means knowing and using the thoughts of others, but adding something to them, reinterpreting them, illuminating them, extending them, conveying them in a meaningful way to others, using them to stimulate new thoughts, new ideas.

Finally, creative thought by its nature cannot be self-contained. Ideas, to be meaningful, to be useful, to be productive, must be conveyed to others. The exchange of ideas, the communication to others, is the culmination of creative thought. . .

A university which is a center of creative thought is one which seeks out and seeks to understand the great thinking of the past in every field; it will attract to its campus a group of the great thinkers of the present — men with knowledge and understanding, men with ideas and with imagination. These men will be furnished with the atmosphere and the opportunity which will most stimulate their scholarly activities, and the outward flux of new ideas will grow to a swelling flow. To this center will come young men and women who themselves wish contact with this flow of thinking, this whirlpool of ideas. And these men and women, or at least some of them, will
leave the campus knowing at last that
the great things of this world are not
autos and radios, not money or gadgets,
not even prosperity or peace — but ideas
and ideals.26

In passing, it is felt to be necessary to remark
that it would be difficult to have worthwhile ideas
and ideals without prosperity or peace. Still, Mr.
Du Bridge's attitude toward the ends of scholarly in-
vestigation has considerable meaning for the research
carried on in conjunction with the university television
station. Research in mass communications probably needs
as much creative thinking about it as any research in any
area today. Qualitative measurements of what kinds of pro-
grams result in what kinds of behavior in audiences are
difficult to develop. And yet it is in this program area
of television broadcasting that the main challenge lies
for the broadcaster. Only the most imaginatively scholarly
experimentation in research will produce worthwhile re-
sults.

Research about the television programs ought to be a
primary function of the station or of the university itself.
Constant evaluation everywhere along the chain of mass

26. Higher Education for American Society (Madison,
Wisconsin: The University of Wisconsin Press, 1949),
pp. 172-173.
communications ("who says what to whom through what medium, with what effect," to restate Professor Harold Lasswell's classic description) must be carried out.

The quality of education and the enlightenment of the viewing public depends considerably upon what the research persons discover to be true about how best to perform the task of education over the educational television station. In the doing, research specialists may also become technically trained for the television industry.

Of course, numerous other special interests at our colleges and universities may be served by carrying out research through the television station.

If the humanities, the social sciences, the physical sciences, the arts, education, or practically any other area, desires, they can benefit from carefully controlled research in television carried on through the university television station. Some of the ways by which they may benefit from television research have been delineated in section two of this chapter regarding closed-circuit.

Research can make still a more fundamental contribution to education. Bringing all our social science research to bear on what our communities' needs and interests are is basic to worthwhile educational broadcasting by further helping to relate the university to its society.

Implications for Organization and Programming

There are a number of implications contained in this chapter for both organizing and programming the university television station. They will be listed chronologically as they appear in the chapter not necessarily in order of their importance.

Organizational Principles

1. To facilitate the use of the station for training those students who plan to pursue their careers in television, interested departments in the university (Speech and Drama, Art, Photography, Education, Business Administration, Agriculture and Home Economics, Engineering, Physical Education, Journalism, for examples) must have close liaison with the station administration and operation, representation on policy making committees, and liaison with programming and production departments in order to make certain that the students are learning what they need to know, and are having station experiences that relate closely to formal course work. The other side of this situation demands that station personnel be heard as to the kinds of specific and general training students need at the station to enhance their professional preparation.

2. To satisfy the needs and interests of other departments and activities they also need representation on
policy making groups. These various departmental or divisional representatives need also to be in close liaison with station personnel in the programming department to insure that appropriate content is included in the programs. They are to be considered the experts in their own specialized areas of knowledge and interest. In return they must be made aware of programming and production problems and techniques. Workshops in production and programming techniques and problems should, at no expense to the university, be a regular activity at the station. Television staff work load should reflect an appreciation by the administration of the time necessary for this important function.

3. The use of the station for on-campus instruction by other areas of interest would make imperative their representation on policy and programming groups. Research personnel, also, need to be included in many deliberations including instructional programming. The reason for this is that research on instructional television problems often seems to come after the programs are decided upon by the non-research staff. This obviously puts the research team at a disadvantage if they have not carefully set up their own objectives around which the programs should be just as carefully constructed. A full-time research expert should be attached to the station staff.

Guides for Programming

1. Programs should be presented that offer student television trainees (a) experience in many different kinds of creative program production, and (b) the experience of programming conscientiously in terms of social needs and public interests.

2. As many programs as possible should be produced that call on numerous areas of interest from the university. This would accomplish these ends: (a) offer the viewers the benefits of the varied and rich resources on our campuses; (b) make intra-institutional relationships necessary and fruitful; and (c) help the student television trainees and station staff see the integral relationships of university education.
3. Some programs of a highly specialized character and of limited interest with regard to audiences will need to be presented. These programs would include some of those carefully planned around research being carried on in conjunction with them or those programs aimed at special minority interests who have expressed the need for them. In short, over a period of time programs may be expected to range from Art to Zoology.

Summary

The university television station should perform certain specialized functions for the on-campus community: (1) in acting as a training facility for student television apprentices; (2) in significantly contributing toward furthering the ends of various interests on campus; (3) in helping to solve the educational problems resulting in rapidly expanding enrollments; (4) in improving both the quality of teaching and the educational process; (5) in providing opportunities for broadcasting research.

The curriculum for future television professionals should include both specific technical training in television techniques and problems and education especially in its aesthetic and creative aspects. The television trainee needs, as well, a broad background of general education. His classroom training should be closely related to activities at the station.

In furthering intra-institutional university relationships cooperative programming possibilities should be
searched out and considered to be worthwhile integrative experiences for everyone involved.

While there are academic and technical problems connected with the use of television in direct resident instruction, experience with this medium and past research indicates that it may be useful educationally both as a way to help solve the critical shortage of instructors and facilities and as a supplement to regular classroom instruction.

Research in the educational uses of television should be in close partnership with performance. Careful research is so necessary and basic to its intelligent use that trained research personnel should be on the staff of the station.
Chapter Five

THE TELEVISION STATION AND THE SCHOOLS

What is the relationship of the university operated, non-commercial educational television station and the schools within the range of its broadcast signal? What the relationship is will depend mainly on what the schools and the university want it to be. That is, first of all the schools must want to make use of this newest educative device. And the university must be willing to offer its television services, because it is but a normal outcome of the community-centered university in partnership with the schools in its service area.

When the schools have grasped the opportunity to benefit from television's unique curricular materials and methods, then the schools will more likely accept the responsibilities of actively sharing in the administration, the programming, and the evaluation of that area of station effort affecting them.

There is good reason to believe that the schools in any given area will use whatever classroom programs may be available. Practically all of the non-commercial educational television stations now broadcasting offer series of programs for in-school viewing, which are
beneficially used. Schools throughout the country have for years experienced the benefits of educational radio. There are at least 140 educational radio stations operated by school systems. Many others use programs from other educationally operated facilities or from commercial stations. In some instances, the public schools have, also, rather readily grasped the opportunities provided by television. Four non-commercial television stations (WTHS-TV, Miami, Florida; KRMA-TV, Denver, Colorado; WETV, Atlanta, Georgia; and KLSE, Monroe, Louisiana) are either on the air or soon will be. These stations are operated by and licensed to boards of education or public school systems. In January, 1957 about 15 other applications for television stations from boards of education and school systems, were on file with the Federal Communications Commission. In the majority of areas where present educational television stations exist or are in advanced planning stages the schools are closely allied with the station in planning and procedural problems. In a number of instances


the school budget includes expenses for helping to op­
erate or program the station.

It can be said with some certainty that under the right circumstances the schools can benefit significantly from a schedule of television programs for in-school view­ing. What are the circumstances out of which would emerge maximum, worthwhile utilization of in-school programs broadcast by the university station?

It is suggested that favorable circumstances would exist if: (1) the programs from the television station are planned and produced in close cooperation with those re­ponsible for curriculum development in the schools — students, teachers, supervisors and administrators; (2) the programs are providing the students and teachers with those curricular experiences most suitable to the tele­vision medium, and those experiences not as readily avail­able from other sources; (3) the university is actively and continuously carrying on activities in cooperation with the schools toward the end of improving the class­room use of the programs. Such related activities will include cooperative television workshops and conferences in which school teachers and administrators will learn the problems and techniques of educational television production (program planning, writing, directing, acting,
and allied arts and crafts), as well as learning creative methods and skills in classroom utilization. Another activity which will promote good use of in-school programming will be research concerned with improving this educational service. Here is suggested a fairly extensive program of activity to be carried out cooperatively between the schools and our universities.

A more careful examination of the possibilities will provide us with a program and plan for in-school use of educational television that could add significantly to the effectiveness of those fortunate schools which have the television facility at hand.

Cooperative Planning With the Schools

Any educational planning is sensible that includes in it the participation of all those likely to be affected by the plans. And the wider the participation the more sensible. This is especially true of our schools and colleges where the democratic principle of wide individual participation is high on the list of our social values. Only too often the students particularly are left out of serious deliberations about curriculum matters; about the selection, production and use of them in their classrooms.

The school is the student's immediate community, potentially his immediate democratic, free society. The
school can afford the students many opportunities for vitally important experiences that reside, potentially, in that school community.

In helping to plan with their teachers and fellow students and with the television station staff, the nature of the programs they will be viewing in school, they have the very good fortune of learning to work with those who are both older and younger than themselves, and to develop insights and understandings of problems faced by the "educational family" of the community.

It is hard to understand how television programs which students really help to plan, and perhaps participate in, can fail to have real educational value for the students themselves. The idea of pupil participation in the planning of in-school television broadcasts is emphasized here because it might well be synonymous with the long-range success of in-school broadcasts. The television station staff needs to be aware of this important democratic principle.

At this point another factor needs emphasizing: the more technically trained, older, professionally oriented television station staff (both the college students we described in the previous chapter and the station employees) may, from time to time, need to be oriented to the
educative ideal of the non-commercial university television station that uses its facilities to do particular educational jobs for quite specific and special audiences. This type of television broadcasting often does not have wide audience appeal. Indeed, it probably won't have. If it does, it is probably either quite coincidental, or the programs are not really serving the ends of their particular audience — in this instance, children and youth in the schools.

Programs of value to children in school will be very special and, if intelligently conceived and artfully executed, will be closely integrated with the educational aims of the classes watching. Materials and equipment facilitate curriculum development and should be selected and used only in terms of their suitability to the curriculum.

If this careful control of content limits the viewing audience quantitatively, it most certainly increases it qualitatively and this is precisely what the non-commercial station may be used for — free of the classic problems of producing programs of widest audience appeal common to the commercial broadcasters. Educational television stations will be broadcasting to the minority audiences which need special services not available over
commercial television channels. In the following section there is a description of general program types and content suggested for in-school viewing.

The idea of wide participation in deliberations and decisions regarding curricula is a relatively modern idea; one which has gained in popularity among educators during the past generation. It is based, fundamentally, on this concept of curriculum development: that it must derive from what we know of the nature of the child himself, the nature of our society, and the nature of democratic living in a free society.

When the curriculum implications of the "best we know" about our learners and of the society in which children and youth are growing up are seen in relationship, with full recognition being given to each factor, the characteristics of the curriculum needed for learners in our times begin to emerge.3

What are the educationally significant things we know about the basic nature of children and youth, about our American and our world society, and about democratic living? Some of these answers have been suggested in

previous chapters and may serve for both children and adults. On the other hand, for purposes of curriculum development, it is necessary to pattern the approach to suit the school situation. From this discussion of approach the implications for the relationship of the non-commercial educational television station to the schools, may be made more functionally clear. Furthermore, the description later in this chapter of kinds of television programs best suited for in-school use, will be more readily understood in the light of the section which follows.

The Nature of Children as a Curriculum Guide

All school children differ from one another. They have had different experiences, they have different interests, they have different needs, they have different mental, physical and emotional characteristics. The school must do its best to cope with this underlying fact.

The children and youth in our schools range on a continuum from individuals who have rich backgrounds of experience from which numerous meaningful concepts have developed, to those who have a poverty of experience and are barren of ideas; children who are in excellent mental and physical health free of defects to children who are ill, suffering from malnutrition, emotionally disturbed,
physical defectives; from children who have great artistic
talent to those for whom the arts are anathema; from stu-
dents who have the inherent mental capacity of genius to
those who are mentally retarded.

And in America our public schools must cope with all
40 million students.

And yet, each of these children, ideally, ought to be
helped by his teachers according to his individuality.
The temptation to set general standards of achievement for
all to "match up to," to prescribe subject matters the
same for each, to, in short "teach" classes instead of
individuals must be resisted in the face of increasing en-
rollments, and all of the other resulting educational
pressures. Children need to be understood and treated as
the individuals they are; each with his unique potentiali-
ties and rate of growth, each with his own background,
personal problems, habits, interests, and curiosities to
be excited, satisfied, modified or solved. And curricula
must reflect these differences among students.

On the other hand, every age group has certain common
needs and interests (intellectual, physical, emotional,
social) and these may act as general guides for the alert
educator.

One guiding principle in curriculum development is
that the normal child has both the capacity and the desire to learn. Both this inherited ability and appetite drive most children in directions that they feel will yield satisfaction. The school's job is to help surround children with the outlets for this optimum development, at the time they are seeking the outlets.

The curriculum must be examined in the light of the learner's total environment with a view to providing opportunities for the individual to make full use of his developing powers — his developing motor skills, social adjustments, intellectual powers, emotional reactions. Those who are concerned with rounded and balanced growth, with the development of maximum potential abilities, must build a curriculum which gives opportunities for rich and varied activities in every area of development.4

There is inherent in this approach to curricular problems the idea that children and youth themselves, from their natural interests and understood needs, must help to plan their educational experiences cooperatively in their groups. The teacher, then, becomes primarily a mature and experienced guide and creative leader, the administrators and others smooth the path, and help, when asked, to provide the facilities and materials for satisfactory experiences.

4. Ibid., p. 61.
But much of the progress that has been made in our schools toward this kind of education has been made in spite of the fact that there has often been a lack of materials that would have suited the immediate purpose.

Miss Laura Zirbes once wrote:

There is need for cooperative concern and experimentation to foster the production and improvement of more materials which are designed to serve flexibly in developing units of learning experience . . . Where a new medium seems to have great potentialities for the experience curriculum its possibilities should be explored and developed by persons interested in curriculum reconstruction and educational advance.4

It seems clear that the educational television station is a "new medium" that may provide numerous useful programs for children in schools, providing the programs are initiated mainly by the students and teachers themselves, based on student interest and need, cooperatively planned by students, teachers, television staff, and other resource persons in the community.

Society as the Guide for Curriculum Development

While it is only common sense to consider the nature of children themselves (their needs and interests, their

psychology and physiology) as one source for curriculum planning and development, it is equally good, common sense to examine as another source the nature of the world the child is growing up in. For he must function in this society with others in such a way as to leave it better than he found it. In that last sentence there are implied two points: first, human life is social and hence one's own optimum development may be achieved only in harmony with the optimum development of others; second, there is an ultimate standard of value assumed—in this case, Democracy.

To begin with, it will be recalled from chapter three that a number of social, economic and political conditions exist that demand the constant attention of educators—these are the "present fires," that need to be "put out" as soon as possible, so to speak. These are the problems that are inhumane—problems which apparently act upon the human race in ways that, to some degree, inhibit critical thought, hurt the body, the mind and the spirit, and so prohibit men from arranging that kind of democratic way of life their free intelligence would show them to be the right arrangement of society. The kind of good society we are after is one which surrounds all men with the climate of freedom (from fear, from coercion, from poverty
and disease, from anger and hate) in which all men may learn to think freely for themselves and exist together in true brotherhood.

Economic problems, for instance, are critical problems because they inhibit the freedom men need for their personal development which, in turn, permits more freedom for solving continuing problems that arise from the dynamics of social growth. Poverty (and its attendant inhumanities) fear of depression and depressions themselves, monopolies, economic, industrial, social or political dictatorships, all inhibit the ability and the opportunity of men to think freely and to act on the basis of free, intelligent thought. The growing problems of increased industrialization and scientific discovery (problems that concern leisure time, human relations, family and other social life) may be satisfactorily coped with only as long as all men are free to work these problems out together with their own critical intelligence. Until men are free to do this they are not really free to do anything.

The newer developments in both the natural sciences and the social order point to the conclusion that standards of value and conduct are flexible and changing products of everyday experience and are to be judged by no other test than the enrichment of human life here and now. This is the wider meaning
of the term democracy, a meaning which transforms it from a political concept into a whole way of life. This conception of values and conduct has never prevailed in the past. It cannot prevail now except at the price of extensive reconstruction in our beliefs and attitudes and institutions.  

Until men can be free to act intelligently in all areas of human experience they have no strength to hold out against the torrent of unintelligent, selfish public opinion which sweeps them downstream. Harold Taylor writes:

... In contemporary American life, there are so many public pressures which bear down on the individual American citizen that it requires a serious and sustained effort of will to think, and even to feel, independently. It requires a deep sense of personal confidence to express independent conclusions once they have been reached.  

And how is such "personal confidence" developed? Taylor goes on to say:

It is often forgotten that all truth is private and all convictions are personal. Truths are known by individuals, one at a time, who believe one idea to


be true and another one false. It is forgotten too that learning is a private affair taking place within the individual consciousness.

The teacher must therefore reach the individual consciousness of his students, penetrate beneath the surface of the slogans which cover the public mind, and set in motion those spontaneous and fresh insights which lead toward personal truth and personal value. This is the beginning of philosophy and of true education. We in America reject the idea of giving to our students a single pattern of truth which everyone must accept. When we succeed in moving the private consciousness into a condition of honest inquiry, we have begun the process toward a philosophy and an education which the student himself will complete.7

And so the curriculum of the schools must derive from the nature of society and the belief in democracy as well as from the nature of the student himself. Bode wrote:

The task of the democratic school is to develop individual capacity with a specific reference. This reference is to the issue of democracy as a whole way of life. This reference to democracy is of a twofold kind. A democratic school may be expected both to give actual experience in democratic living and to foster intellectual insight, or understanding of the principle on which democracy is based and which gives it a distinctive character.

When translated into practice, this conception of democracy requires, first

7. Ibid., p. 35.
of all, that the life of the school be made as perfect an embodiment of the democratic ideal as we are able to achieve. 8

An excellent statement of curricular content deriving from social analysis and student growth may be found in Developing a Curriculum for Modern Living. 9 It will be somewhat paraphrased, rearranged and edited here for the sake of simplicity and for the appearance of these pages of the thesis. The authors write:

We are committed to a belief in the worth and dignity of the individual. We are committed to freedom and equality, to economic as well as social and political rights. The welfare of the individual is of primary importance in our society. Each individual is considered to be of essential worth. Each individual is believed to have within him resources for creative expression which he has a right and responsibility to develop... This means a curriculum designed to give to children and youth a respected and vital part in society in keeping with their maturity and in terms of the problems and situations which they face. It means a curriculum through which children and youth grow to respect the unique worth of each individual including themselves. 10

10. Ibid., p. 44.
Here are three of the purposes the authors feel the modern school curriculum will attempt to serve:

1. To develop children and youth who are able to make reasoned decisions based on the democratic values they hold.

   We believe that decision and action should be based on the scientific approach to the study of problems. We believe in the use of reason, of untrammeled investigation, of encouragement of all creative ability. . . . As a method of work the scientific approach implies the habit of seeking reliable information, of distinguishing between fact and fiction, of coming to reasoned conclusions on the basis of careful study of all available data, of evaluating conclusions in the light of new evidence, of judging the effectiveness of each decision and forming a basis for more satisfactory future decisions.11

2. To help children learn to live together cooperatively in order to improve men and their institutions.

   We have confidence in the collective wisdom of the people. We believe that better solutions to social problems will come when each individual shares with others the results of his efforts, discoveries, and thinking. We recognize the true freedom in a closely-knit world is attained only as men use their intelligence collectively and creatively to gain increasing control over their problems of daily living.12

11. Ibid., pp. 44-45.
12. Ibid., p. 45.
3. To help children and youth translate democratic goals into action.

"Equal men," "thinking men," "cooperative men" — this can be a fighting faith. With it as our national and individual commitment, the most serious problems can be approached with confidence. . . This can only be done by helping children in their day-by-day activities decide when to subordinate individual desires to social goals; by helping them to see the true worth of each individual; by teaching them to appraise their work with honesty and integrity; by showing them the satisfaction that can come from unselfish living. Schools must be places where children can learn how to bring scientific methods to bear in adjusting to change and where they can develop that flexibility of mind imperative to successful living in the twentieth century.13

It is necessary to add at least two other basic goals to this list before it could be sufficiently complete to act as a general guide for curriculum development:

4. To provide students with wide opportunities for aesthetic enjoyment and creative expression in the arts.

5. To develop and promote good physical and mental health.

The university television station can join the schools to help in the achievement of their goals. But it should be remembered that television programs for in-school use will be of greatest value when, as was stated earlier, they derive from the realized needs and interests of the

13. Ibid., p. 46.
students themselves, and when they offer the teacher and students materials best suited to the medium and which they cannot attain as easily in other media.

Implications for Organization and Programming

An analysis of the curricular experiences described above gives us certain clues about the kinds of television programs that would be most suitable for presentation for children and youth in our schools.

Education for democratic citizenship is both personal and social, with clear, continuing reference to the ethical values of Democracy. This kind of education is interested in: (a) helping students to realize their own potential as free human beings by giving them techniques and practice in problem solving; (b) affording them creative experiences in which they may, also, learn to develop their own personal ethical values appropriate to democratic living; and, (c) showing them the true nature of society as it actually functions.

The television camera is especially useful in helping to achieve these general, over-all aims of democratic education.

Organizational Principles

1. As in every other case where the station relates itself to off-campus groups, the station must be in close liaison with the schools in the area. Representatives from the schools should participate when their interests are
involved in deliberations on policy and programming.

2. Station staff should be encouraged to observe their programs in the schools with the students who watch the programs. The staff also needs to help the schools, if they are requested to do so, utilize the broadcasts effectively and to learn production techniques. Time for this needs to be set aside in staff members' schedules.

3. Much of the usefulness of in-school broadcasts depends on how cleverly the teachers utilize the broadcasts. The university should provide leadership in carrying on activities designed to improve the school use of the television programs. Some of these activities might be the development of workshops, area conferences on production and utilization, on and off-campus courses, and the like.

4. The research department of the station should be expected to work closely with curriculum evaluators from the schools.

5. Staff should be appointed who are aware of and sympathetic to the needs and characteristics of children and youth so that they may work intelligently and cooperatively with them.

General Guides for Programming

1. To develop children and youth who are able to make reasoned decisions based on democratic values.

Programs appropriate to the students' age levels and experiences should be designed that will show students the techniques of problem solving, and the methods and daily results of scientific inquiry. Other programs should attempt to motivate them to apply intelligent problem-solving techniques to their own everyday experiences. For example, common problems resulting from poor problem-solving techniques can be shown in rather dramatic
ways. The ideas for content can be supplied by the students themselves who have numerous problems, by their teachers, and by their guidance or school counselling services.

2. To help children live together cooperatively in order to improve mankind and his institutions.

Our privileges, or our rights go hand in hand with responsibilities and must be considered in the light of the general welfare. Mostly the need appears to be the personal obligation of being sensitive and reasoned. The television and motion picture cameras are well adapted for dramatizing the problems arising daily when one's own interests and needs come into conflict with the needs and interests of others or of institutions. Programs need to be designed that will help students understand these facts of life and that will display some methods by which the democratic citizen satisfactorily adjusts (for himself and society) his interests in reference to others. To illustrate, at every age level and every level of schooling there are the vital personal problems that result from adjusting the need for one's own personal interests to the welfare of the equally important group. This is the very core of drama, of struggle and conflict, of personal and social growth.
3. To help children and youth translate democratic goals into action.

Television programs can dramatically bring to life the meaning of democratic living for the individual's daily life. They need to be introduced to society, when appropriate to age and background, as it really exists. Television, able to span space and time, select and edit, focus on the informal aspects of life, is admirably suited to an examination of society. It can be present at important events, ask questions of leading public figures (sometimes the "trailing" public figure can also be useful for our purpose), probe into group situations, and institutional matters that may be either the worst or best examples of democracy in the community.

4. To provide students with wide opportunities for aesthetic enjoyment and creative expression in the arts.

Television programs may be used in the schools to foster in the students an appreciation for creative living, for beauty, and to help them develop the capacity for participating in many forms of creative art. Through this newest graphic mass medium students may have become acquainted with the creations and performances of talented artists. The students should see artists at work—to actually see how and why music is made, a head modeled, an emotion painted, a play written or acted, a poem
written. Moreover, the students should be able to do these things themselves — to participate in the arts, questioning the artist, handling the materials and tools, making music, and so on.

Young people who sincerely and deeply appreciate the arts, both as active creators and as observers, may well become adult citizens with heightened senses, interesting ways of looking at life, displaying desirable ways of expressing themselves.

5. To develop and promote good physical and mental health.

Programs in this area particularly, are educational challenges in a society where, according to most accounts, mental health problems increase steadily and physical health is a perpetual problem among youth. It is certainly public knowledge that to a considerable degree, juvenile delinquency is closely related to emotional instability. And the youngster who is physically ill cannot be expected to react normally toward others nor accept life's terms gracefully and intelligently.

Programs probably can be produced to help alleviate some of the human misery resulting from poor physical and mental health.
Summary

A partnership between the schools and the station is a normal outcome of the university in contact with the community. This partnership includes the schools' responsibilities in sharing in administration and programming.

There is good reason to believe that the schools in most areas where a station exists, will be eager to cooperate and to receive programs for in-school use. One is led to believe this in view of their interest and long experience using educational radio. Furthermore, a number of school systems either now operate, or will in the near future, their own television stations. Many others are using programs from other stations.

To be of maximum use television programs for in-school use must be planned and produced cooperatively between university and school representatives; they must provide educational experiences appropriate to television, and which are not readily available from other sources; and they must undergo continuous evaluation with regard to their effectiveness.

Students should, whenever possible, be brought into the planning and production of the programs broadcast to them. This attention to the students who hear the
programs will provide them with further opportunities for democratic sharing and more likely insure program interest.

General guides for programming must derive from the needs and interests of children and youth. This is the principle upon which the modern curriculum is based. Children are different from one another in capacity and interest, but the normal child has both the capacity and desire to learn.

While the child's personal interests are important, his ability to reconcile them with the interests of others is equally important. The child must work toward freedom and be guided to it through the exercising of his own intelligence in cooperation with society. He must, also, learn how to act democratically in his daily life. The student also needs aesthetic and creative experiences in order to enrich living. The child must be helped toward good physical and mental health.

Programs should be presented to help in most areas of the child's needs and interests described in this chapter.

The station policy must include, in some appropriate manner, representation from the schools.

Station staff should be encouraged to observe their
programs in the classrooms whenever possible. Appropriate staff members need, also, to help teachers and students utilize programs effectively and to teach them necessary production techniques. The work schedules of these station staff members should reflect these responsibilities by leaving them time to perform these functions. Workshops in utilization and production techniques should be developed. 

The research staff at the station should work closely with school curriculum evaluators.

Staff members should be appointed who are aware of and sympathetic to the needs and characteristics of youth.
Chapter Six
ORGANIZING AND PROGRAMMING THE TELEVISION STATION

It is now necessary to consolidate and try to implement the substance of this study to this point. The university non-commercial educational television station is the newest instrument for carrying out the aims and for fulfilling the hopes of American higher education. It may be considered a contemporary symbol of the imagination with which higher education's monumental tasks in the United States may be undertaken. The television effort at our universities must, therefore, be as large, as complex, as manifold, as strong and as steadfast as the general effort with which our educational institutions are trying to create a better world for men to live in.

In this nation higher education strives for the attainment of several main goals: to develop free individuals and a free society; to train our citizens for vocational competence; to contribute to the advancement of knowledge through research. While individual universities may stress particular aspects of these main goals, nevertheless, these are the generally accepted aims, the framework and structure within which American higher education is
It is of interest that the newest electronic mass medium of communication can symbolically stand for the mass character of the task that lies before higher education in America — that of effectively educating increasing numbers of students on campus and the growing citizenry off-campus that has come through the years to expect their universities and colleges to extend their resources to them as well.

The television station can also be a center of on-campus activity perpetuating the traditions of our universities which attempt to create liberal minds, develop professional competence, and investigate the frontiers of knowledge through original research.

The television station is, in fact, but an educational tool that can reach its maximum potential use only within the structure of the university or college that applies vision and imagination to the attainment of its goals in the kind of atmosphere and spirit that releases and promotes creative leadership among its staff and student body. What kind of institution of higher learning would this be? How, specifically, would the television station fit into this structure? There are certain requirements.

The "ideal" university may be most simply, perhaps
naively, described by one who, like the writer, has never been directly responsible for its administration. On the other hand, perhaps it takes the somewhat innocent and detached consideration of a faculty member, or a student or even an intelligent layman either to take on the formidable task of describing the "ideal" university or of trying to organize it on paper.

One way this might be accomplished is to review and amplify what the proper aims ought to be of a university and to suggest certain ideals for its administration as well as a plan for its organization. When we have arrived at that point the relationship of the television station to the university may be logically understood and arranged.

Thus, in this chapter the television station will be seen in its total relationship to the university, and to the society which it serves. First, a review and a statement of purposes seems to be in order.

Purposes of American Higher Education

Primarily, higher education must serve these ends: (1) to develop students who are intellectually free in order to create a progressively free and creative society; (2) to develop students with wide and rich aesthetic tastes and creative talents; (3) to train potentially capable students for certain vocational competencies; (4)
to make available the resources of the university to a maximum number of citizens beyond the campus boundaries; (5) through research to extend the frontiers of knowledge and to recreate imaginatively new aspects of established facts and old truths; (6) to maintain a center of intellectual and spiritual freedom, artistic excellence, of democratic organization and administration that will stand as a cherished model for the rest of society to emulate.

The underlying and pervasive theme running through all six of the above purposes is this: if the universities are to help improve the condition of mankind today they must relate themselves directly to the society in which they exist. And it is primarily to the universities that society has given the duty of advancing human welfare. This means that higher education must be sensitively aware of and directly attack the moral and social problems and the issues of the day as these issues arise.

Referring briefly to chapter three, social, economic, political and moral problems arise mainly from five characteristics of contemporary civilization: (1) the growth of interdependence; (2) the growth of knowledge; (3) the decline of primary face-to-face human relationships; (4) the changing role of the individual; (5) the
existence of beauty and the need to reorganize experience creatively.

Some of the specific problems that result are:
achieving sympathetic understanding of differing needs and interests; the fair and free development of international trade; the development of effective world political organizations; the strengthening of human freedom, of human and civil rights at home and abroad; improving the agricultural and industrial situations of all nations; improving world-wide health and education; the destruction of group and national prejudices; the development of improved distribution and the implementation of continuously advancing knowledge to close the gap between what is known and what is done; maintaining and strengthening the practice of small groups working together intimately to solve their mutual problems; to increase the quantity and quality of individual participation in all areas of living while simultaneously maintaining a cooperative, shared life on behalf of each individual; to insure individual freedom of religion; to fulfill the desires of every person to perform tasks that give them self respect and the respect of their fellow men; to provide mankind with a variety of opportunities to share in the beauty and the aesthetic creations of the world.
It is through such immediate issues and their day-to-day manifestations as listed in the preceding paragraph, that the American university identifies itself with the society in which it exists. And to deal properly with real human issues the university must be free to do so. How well a university exercises its moral leadership in our society depends entirely on the freedom with which it operates. It is upon the bedrock of freedom that all other purposes of the university stand, and it is an essential element of the atmosphere within which a truly good university operates.

The kind of freedom meant here is that which permits every person to reach his maximum human potential while he desires to secure the same for everyone else. It is a way of life based on freedom of thought and expression, dependent upon the right of each person to make up his own mind about the truth of an idea, "on the basis of the best evidence he can find, and...he must retain the right to choose his own ideas and his own course of action within the limits of an accepted social framework." Beyond this state of being there must be those social

1. Taylor, _op. cit._, p. 119.
institutions and human arrangements that nurture the ideal and process. Additionally, each free person must have an understanding of and the courage to accept the responsibilities of the free mind in a free society.

It is this free way of life that a university must embody. Its basic aims and beliefs, its organization and administration, its various activities (including the television station) must be carried out in a way descriptive of freedom as a living concept.

The touchstone of such a university being society itself, there is in this thesis an emphasis upon serving the largest possible community through adult education; through joining in the huge task of the public schools; through sharing ideas, teachers, research, television and radio programs, works of art and music with other educational institutions on both the national and international level; through (in particular) using the portion of the broadcast spectrum offered to and reserved for education by the Federal Communications Commission on behalf of the American public; through using television to further the ends of the on-campus community particularly as they may relate to society's needs.

What needs to be shown now is the structure of a university that can best fulfill its purposes. The next
step will be to describe the organizational relations­
ships of the television station to the university adminis­
tration, to the several colleges or divisions within the 
university, to the community, and to the public schools. 
Finally, specific guides will be erected to govern the 
television programming so that it may meet the needs 
discussed throughout this dissertation.

The Organization and Administration of a University

If higher education's primary aim is the development 
and maintainance of free democratic individuals and a 
free democratic society, then higher education demands a 
free, democratic organization and administration — one in 
which the individuals who are concerned with educational 
decisions exercise a free, uncoerced share in making these 
decisions. This principle of active participation in pol­
icy making by those who are affected is one of the essences 
of a democratic group. As Mr. R. Freeman Butts says:

...the public welfare in a democracy 
will be served most effectively by 
higher education when the maximum amount 
of participation in policy formation is 
achieved by those who are concerned in 
those policies. If higher education is 
genuinely and effectively to serve a 
democratic America, higher education it­
self must be truly democratic. If our 
students are to be educated for democratic 
living, our institutions should function
democratically. In order for higher education to become democratic as well as efficient, the persons or representatives of groups involved in the policies of higher education should participate appropriately in the formation of those policies that concern them.2

The organization and administration of a university is a partnership of laymen, administrators, faculty and students each participating appropriately. Each directly related group needs to be represented in the policy making and curriculum development of the college. The whole university community can then be interlocked by joint committees of faculty and students, laymen and administrators as need demands.

The television station ought to fit into this kind of organization with comparative ease. It must be self governing to the extent of being primarily responsible for the development of a program service to carry out, and to provide special kinds of creative leadership in achieving, the over-all educational objectives of the university, the expectations, (vis-à-vis the programming service) of the Federal Communications Commission, and to meet the needs

and carry out specific objectives of the on-campus and off-campus community.

What kind of university organization would give rise to an organic relationship with the university television station? Mainly an organization that spreads authority whenever possible, with responsibility, throughout the community. One that implements and considers the station not as an appendage attached to the organization but as an organic part of its total educational effort.

Perhaps it does not matter so much how the university organization looks on paper. What does matter is the general state of mind about what higher education is supposed to be doing coupled with the honest desire to have all interested parties who will be directly affected by policy and administration, represented and participating appropriately in deliberations that bring about decisions. The university president can act as chairman of the group and help maintain liaison between them. He must make decisions when colliding points of view appear to be irreconcilable, about action that must be taken.

But mostly, top administrators should play the role of chairmen more than the role of judges. Perhaps the president's most important function is to give encouragement and support to ideas mutually developed who, when necessary,
makes decisions not on the basis of his authority but by choosing those courses of action among the alternatives that in the opinion of his associates—students, Board members, faculty, other directly concerned representatives from the lay community—show the most promise.

It may be that one of the necessary elements of truly democratic organization is to bring responsibility more into line with authority. That is, authority needs to stem from responsibility. Where responsibility is distributed among those who will be most affected by decisions, there must be shared authority for helping to make these decisions. There is time enough for Presidents or Chairmen of Boards to step into deliberations and decide the issue that needs resolving from among alternative possibilities suggested by the group. It is seldom (if ever) however, that in a democratic educational organization arbitrary decisions by Chief Administrators or Board members is really necessary. However, when authority is usurped by a President, let us say, and an arbitrary decision is made by him then it may be expected that more arbitrary decisions will follow the first since he has now taken a position from which he finds it difficult to retreat.

The operational atmosphere and the ends of this kind
of wide representation and individual responsibility should be most beneficial to education. What ought to result? Most importantly, some of the responsibility for their education would be where it mainly belongs — in the hands of the students, be they students at the university, in the schools, or adults at home. Given the opportunity, they will be likely to seriously set about developing with the faculty, administrators, and others who are sharing responsibilities with them, the kind of education that will be most beneficial to them.

The question raised at this point is: are students capable of deciding curricular and other matters? Some are and some are not. But most are able to help in deciding them with other members of the academic community. As Harold Taylor says:

The...illusion is that students are irresponsible, and that since they are still in the process of learning, they do not know how to conduct their own education or to assess the value of the one provided for them. This is the worst illusion of all. Students do know about their university. They can tell anyone who is interested which are the bad teachers, which are soft-hearted, which are left- or right-wing, which are dull, which ones care about students, and which ones they consider useless. The students do this best when they talk among themselves. They advise one another capably and well. In every student group
there is a body of knowledge and wisdom about the whole educational system. 3

A shared partnership in learning ought to keep to a minimum the intellectual and the emotional distance between the participants in university education. Under the necessity for sharing thought and experience in organic university organization, intellectual freedom would be its very essence. The ideas and the opinions of the Board, the President and other administrators would have to be accepted on the basis of their intrinsic merit in the free market of all other opinion.

An effective university organization depends, also, upon the quality of personnel in the organization, which can, after all, be only as good as the individuals responsible for its welfare. A few words only, in passing, may be said here about the training and qualities needed by university administrators.

It would seem that the president, vice presidents, deans, and so on should be educators primarily. The day-to-day problems that arise in a university are mostly educational, if the main function of the university administration is the maintenance and the advancement of learning. This is an important issue today when in the

face of rapidly growing state institutions of higher learning, huge in size and numbers, and the desperate need for adequate financing of all universities, the president is likely to be considered mainly as a money raiser and public relations expert. This idea has taken such strong hold on the lay citizenry and sometimes on even some faculty and students at a few institutions that politicians, military officers and successful businessmen have been appointed as presidents or to other high administrative positions. Indeed, it has become a legitimate idea even among those educational professionals who speak and write on university administration and organization. Schiller Scroggs, Dean of the School of Arts and Sciences, Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College writes:

The president of the university symbolizes the institution to most people, both student and general public, and through his office flow sooner or later all major matters pertaining to present operations or future plans. For the president not only is the educational specialist of the Board of Control and the spokesman of the college before the public, he is the chief executive of the institution and usually the principal fund-raiser for it. More and more the primary qualifications of a college or university president are coming to be political acumen and shrewd, aggressive promotional talent in public relations and fund raising. (This is true for endowed and tax-supported institutions
alike, although the kind of politics varies with the different types of clientele that must be dealt with.) Hence comes the danger of an emphasis upon institutional survival values too often at the expense of the conservation and advancement of learning.4

While Mr. Scroggs mentions the danger of the emphasis on fund raising and politics for the university president, he nevertheless accepts as normal the new role. He even suggests that the president ought to appoint someone else to act for him (he clearly seems to have no time left for the university) on internal university problems.

But I think there is little long run advantage in this kind of presidential arrangement. In the larger schools, especially, the president, even with the best of intentions, is able to spend too little time with his faculty, students and a true cross section of the public. His energies and time are limited as are those of everyone else. Given the additional responsibility of raising funds and playing politics, he will have little time to share in the main responsibility of the university—education.

There is a tendency today to liken the structure of

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a university to the structure of a business corporation. But they are not alike in purpose and so should not be alike in organization. In America, business corporations are set up primarily to make profits and to compete successfully with other like businesses. Universities are not operating to seek profits and when they begin to do so the question is properly and usually raised as to whether they are satisfactorily performing their function of education and wide public service. Examples might be cited here of universities indulging in high-powered athletic teams, profit-making drama departments, and musical organizations, and so on. When business ends come into the educational picture business methods usually follow. The director of athletics or the coaches, drama and music faculty, are apt to be confused between their educational responsibilities and their money-making activities. The educational value of the activity suffers accordingly. Surely, it is clear that some athletic organizations in institutions of higher learning reveal the confusion that results when education is mixed with commercialism.

The personnel selected to direct such profit making university activities may be selected (like the president may be himself) less for their scholarship than for their commercial value. The important fact is that an institution
of higher education is a community of scholars, teachers, and students acting together for the general welfare of the public. There is no real reason to believe otherwise than that if the total public understands what the vital educational and social role of higher education is, what its all-important purposes are, and if the students who go to our universities have experienced such education, and the public experienced the results under these conditions, money to run our universities will be given, and given eagerly and conscientiously. This should, also, be the key idea to guide us in selecting the kinds of personnel needed to carry out the responsibilities of the university television station.

Organizational Plan for the Television Station

The scheme of organization for the television station ought to begin with those whom it serves: the viewers. The viewer may be the student on campus, the public off campus, children in the classrooms of the schools in the area. The further task of training students for the television industry and for offering opportunities for allied research are but facets of the program service and ought to arise from it.

Since the program is what television is really all about in the long run the question becomes: who decides
what the programs will contain, and how can these decisions be most effectively administered?

Within the democratic university organization described in the preceding section the primary responsibility and authority for initiating programs and conferences, and for producing the programs, already resides mainly with the personnel at the station who, in turn, have brought the viewer to the center of the operation to help decide what shall be programmed.

The director of the station acts as chairman of a representative committee the same way as the university president acts for the total university. But the basic responsibility for program content, and at times even production, lies with the viewers being served.

There are two factors to be considered in station organization and administration: (1) the organization as it relates to other interests and groups; and (2) the internal organization of the station. Let us explore the problems of each of these in turn.

1. Relating the Station to the University and Community

Representatives of various segments of the community need to be included in deliberations on policy and programming. Which representatives should be included? Those who represent particular audiences for various kinds of
programs or who have expert and specialized knowledge and who are thinking and speaking on behalf of their particular interest group. To illustrate: where in-school programs are being discussed a representative (a teacher, or supervisor most likely) from the area who has been in close touch with area schools and has been elected to speak for them will be a liaison person with the station administrators. In another case, having to do with training the university student apprentices, for example, one might expect the Academic Dean (or his equivalent), the appropriate departmental chairman, appropriate faculty and student representatives discussing matters pertaining to their special interests. Illustrating further, and in the most difficult situation of all—adult lay representation—some relatively convenient way must be invented to satisfy their various interests. This is a particularly hard problem to solve because of their comparatively un-specific nature. Since it is clearly impossible to have a representative for each special interest group because this would run into hundreds of persons, some method for distilling ideas and ascertaining community-wide needs probably will have to take place in the community itself.

If, for example, viewers councils representing a cross-section of the public were set up in the area served
by the station a few representatives from these groups, or even just one elected by all the councils, could sit in on station policy and programming conferences. This would seem to be a sensible possibility at least. There is another possibility, however. Boards of Trustees, (Regents, Advisors) are supposed to be the independent third element between the public and the university — equally responsible to both for carrying out policy and, usually, in making basic policy. It might be a good idea for them to represent the public, on the one hand, the television station on the other, if there were some way for them to be in close touch with a true cross section of the public. They are busy men and women as a rule and so would probably need to appoint (or have appointed by the appointive body) an assistant who would be responsible for acting as a liaison person between the station and the public, hard at work ascertaining needs and participating in policy deliberations at the station. This would also help the Board keep in close contact with the university at large and a wide segment of the public.

It is clear that the television station is in a rather unique situation at a university. Its services and interests both on and off campus are areas as wide and varied as society itself. As a public service agency it
must try to satisfy the needs of that public. Relating the station to the public and to the rest of the university is no simple task, but every effort must be made to do so. It is essential to the successful functioning of the television station.

The special characteristics of "general involvement" that creates special problems of organization and programming for the station, may be seen in its relationships to other areas of interest on the campus. Since, as has been pointed out in chapter four, these interests are apt to be fairly numerous, wide representation is important when policy is formed or changed or under consideration. Surely one representative from every major division should be included and special interests as well when the subject under discussion requires.

Again, this can become awkward and unwieldy in a very large university with many departments. But in any university there are but a few major divisions or Colleges and a representative from each would seem workable and worthwhile.

To summarize briefly: true participation in decisions that affect individuals or groups demand that the individuals or groups be represented in policy deliberations. The television station's policies affect the nature of the
programs and so the public that the programs are supposed to serve must be represented. This public is both on and off campus. Some kind of "Television Committee on Policy and Programming" is needed which reflects the opinions of the various audience interests.

**Special Relationships**

Certain off-campus organizations and university departments may be particularly involved with station operation and they must especially participate in policy formation through representation on the "Television Committee on Policy and Programming."

Some of these off-campus organizations may be other educational institutions, the public schools (discussed previously), other universities in the area and various state departments, particularly the State Department of Education. Each may need to use the station facilities for educational ends and each should be asked to participate. Where much use is being made of the station by private colleges and schools or other private educational agencies they should share production costs. The public schools and state organizations might be asked to do this as well if the services demand financial aid. There is this to be said for sharing in financing station operation: organizations are inclined to take considerable interest
in where their money is spent. It is doubtful that the churches should be asked to share production costs unless they have very special needs. Of course, in the state university, such financial aid from religious organizations might raise questions about the proper relationship of church and state.

A number of on-campus departments will probably have critical and intimate roles to play in station organization. It is expected that some of these might be Education (particularly the areas of television and radio, audio-visual, and elementary, secondary, higher and adult education), Speech and Theatre Arts and/or Radio-Television if a department by itself, Photography, Engineering, Agriculture and the radio station if there is one at the university. A representative from each (or other) of these closely allied areas needs to be a member of the "Television Committee on Policy and Programming." The station cannot be dominated by any one of these areas but it must depend on them for help as they must depend on the station for help. Various research interests will also be concerned and should be included in station deliberations where research is an important function in making specific decisions on policy and programming.

In conclusion it should be said that this lengthy list of representatives will not always meet together on all
matters of policy and programming. But all should reserve their right to discuss and debate issues that arise, and for purposes of keeping communications clear and unobstructed, so that each knows what is going on, they should meet as a total group at fairly regular intervals of time, and receive minutes of all deliberations and decisions.

Subcommittees appointed by the chairman from the whole committee can be made responsible for exploring ideas and problems and for making recommendations for the whole committee to act upon.

It can be suggested that the chairman would normally be the television station director or his equivalent; one who can act on behalf of the university president and the station staff as well. One well versed in the problems of television and administration and the problems of education as well. A more detailed description of characteristics needed by station personnel will come later in this chapter.

Internal Organization of the Television Station

The basic principles behind the internal organization and administration of the television station should be the same as those underlying the organization and administration of the university. Namely: (1) the wide distribution of responsibility and authority for making educational
decisions among those who will be most directly affected by policy decisions; (2) the station operation should be considered to be a partnership between audience and station staff — each contributing appropriately according to his ability and interests; (3) organized education should be primarily in the hands of the academic community and staff should be selected who are educators dedicated to the principles of education.

The director of the station ought to be responsible for and have the authority to carry out decisions on policy and programming that have come from the general "Committee on Television Policy and Programming" described in the preceding section.

He needs them, in turn, to give responsibility and authority for initiating and carrying on the activities required for the successful discharge of the responsibilities to appropriate members of the staff. Ideally the appropriate staff member has been included in the primary deliberations of the general committee. In any event, other staff members need to understand the situation thoroughly. General staff meetings should occur regularly where ideas and problems may be thoroughly discussed.

This line of responsibility and authority based on shared ideas should run throughout the organization of the
station.

On paper, as a chart, the station organization might look something like the illustration on the following page.

A word now about station staff. The chief administrator of the television station ought to have the kind of broad and general education and cultivated interests, like the university president, which give him an enthusiasm for and interest in all areas of human knowledge. The reason for this is that television broadcasting cuts across and draws upon so many areas of knowledge — social sciences, physical sciences, the arts and humanities. The chief administrator must work effectively with people of many interests and specializations. He must be trained as well to release the leadership capacities of his colleagues and others with whom he works. He should, perhaps, also have enough graduate degrees and enough successful teaching experience to earn the respect of the academic community of which he is a member.

Specific knowledge of television broadcasting problems and techniques is essential so that he will have a sympathetic understanding of, and, when appropriate or necessary, the ability to suggest useful solutions for the planning, writing, production and engineering problems
FIGURE II
CHART OF ORGANIZATION FOR A UNIVERSITY EDUCATIONAL TELEVISION STATION
of those immediately responsible for programs.

All other staff members, including the engineering and technical staff, should be college trained, broadly educated, creative, sensitive individuals. The university television station is going to be producing creative, imaginative, educational programs. It is essential that all personnel responsible for programs have the kinds of knowledge and aesthetic tastes and interests appropriate to any educational institution and which comes, ordinarily, from college training if it comes from anything.

There is, it seems to me, a further need based on what has been dealt with at various places throughout this thesis: the station staff must have a lively sense of, and a dedication to, the ideals of freedom and democratic living. It must have a sincere and abiding belief in democratic processes, a vision of what man can be, and the firm conviction that the television station where they work is an important instrument for furthering their belief in democracy and for helping to make real their vision.

The programs that would be created in this climate, and from such personnel would find and, more important, would create an audience in tune with the aims of higher education and receptive to those aims.
It is obvious that these television personnel need the kind of training in our universities described previously in this dissertation, particularly in chapter four. This is education that will provide them with a liberal background arising from the democratic principles of social justice, freedom, and equality; highly developed aesthetic tastes and understanding; creative ability; and those special television skills necessary to operating a television station efficiently.

Obviously staff of the calibre described will have to be paid salaries at least equal to faculty and administrative salaries. Some of these persons will be the director, the chief engineer, the program director, the production director, and the continuity director (if he writes as well). Whether station staff should have faculty rank might be a matter of opinion. For myself, I think they should have faculty rank so that they may truly join the academic family. They should, then, also have tenure and enjoy other faculty privileges.

Programming the Television Station

The guides that would be followed in programming the television station have been laid down throughout this thesis. But perhaps they need to be detailed and laid out in summary fashion for clarity.
Programs, like good education, should arise from the needs and the interests of those to whom they are being offered. In the preceding chapters a number of these interests and needs have been noted and described more or less in detail. These needs and interests are those which have been generally recognized by alert and sensitive educators and others in close contact with students on campuses and in the schools and with responsible adults in the community.

It is in the light of this present information that the television programs should be prepared, even though more specific needs and interests vary from place to place, and from time to time. In this dissertation it is appropriate in the interests of brevity, that only the over-all needs which programs should try to fulfill will be suggested.

Programs for General Education

Using the eleven purposes of general education listed on pages eight and nine of this dissertation as the guides, programs will be suggested that ought to help achieve those purposes. While other specific kinds of purposes have been listed throughout this study for special groups, adult and children particularly, they are adequately covered by the eleven purposes that follow. One cannot
foresee special program needs in advance.

1. "To develop, for the regulation of one's personal and civic life, a code of behavior based on ethical principles consistent with democratic ideals."

Ethical principles consistent with democratic ideals are: sensitivity to and sympathy for the needs of other people and other nations; willingness to help others get what they need to achieve their own freedom; honesty in dealing with others; fairness in human relations; cooperation and verbal persuasion as substitutes for force and for war; eagerness to hear criticism of one's own views and to listen sympathetically to all other points of view; and courage to search for the truth and stand by it in the face of its enemies. These principles of human behavior are based on the ideals of social justice, equality and freedom.

Television programs ought both to explain and to clarify the real true-to-life meaning in our daily lives of these principles of personal behavior on behalf of democracy, and to show examples of how they have worked to mankind's benefit in the past and what has happened when these ethical principles have been absent or violated in human affairs. In a sense the whole history of man has been this struggle against those ideas, and actions, and other environmental situations which have stood as
obstacles in his way to the realization of himself through democratic living.

Through programs of this kind the university will be understood and cherished by the community as being a center of enlightenment, humanity and integrity.

2. "To participate actively as an informed and responsible citizen in solving the social, economic and political problems of one's community, state, nation."

One of the requirements for informed citizenship is information and understanding of the social, economic, and political problems of one's society. In our complex contemporary world there is so much continually to be learned as to require the efforts of every medium of communication to be put to work to acquaint the public with the problems confronting it. But mere acquaintance is not enough. True awareness entails depth of comprehension. Vital issues of the day are complex, often hard to grasp easily. In California in the past year the author was asked, as were all other enfranchised citizens, to vote not only for public officials but also to vote on state, county, and municipal issues of an extremely complex nature. These matters involved large sums of money and potential political power by various interest groups — an oil conservation act, numerous bond issues. Intelligent voting required a background of facts and
explanation on the part of the public. For the most part local broadcasters did little or nothing to make these matters clear. Presumably most voters either did not vote on these matters or voted without real understanding of the issues. It is only too clear that effective democracy depends on intelligent, informed citizenship, not solely on the right to vote.

The educational television station has a fundamental continuing mandate to inform the citizen on vital issues so that he may act responsibly when he acts at all.

There is another feature of the citizen's role — in civic problem solving — the desire to participate actively. The unmotivated citizen is one of society's biggest problems. Television programs designed specifically to move these human mountains to participation are necessary. Somehow efforts must be made to change their basic attitude of indifference to one of eager participation.

3. "To recognize the interdependence of the different peoples of the world and one's personal responsibility for fostering international understanding and peace."

Television programs need to develop an awareness of two things here: first, that men depend on one another and that if one suffers needlessly we all suffer; and second, that we are our brother's keeper.
Programs are needed showing the true culture of other peoples, places and times including their similarity and dissimilarity, pointing out, if necessary, the need for differences in order to learn from one another.

Programs are needed to explain and promote the work of the United Nations and its affiliated agencies. The wonderful and dramatic successes of these organizations in their day-to-day work need to be shown regularly and continuously on our educational television stations.

4. "To understand the common phenomena in one's physical environment, to apply habits of scientific thought to both personal and civic problems, and to appreciate the implications of scientific discoveries for human welfare."

Methods of problem solving — at least in personal and civic affairs — are probably among the least explored areas of human knowledge. A study of most curricula from elementary school through college, or visits to classrooms would tend to confirm that too little of this kind of activity is being undertaken. Habits and techniques of scientific thinking throughout our daily lives need to be developed. Programs are needed that are designed to show the application of such thought to daily living.

Further programs need to be broadcast which describe and make real the human implications of scientific discovery, technological advancement and invention. In a very
real sense, numbers two and three above and eight through eleven below are tied closely to this need, for it is science that dominates the stage in the human drama today.

5. "To understand the ideas of others and to express one's own effectively."

I think that this is one of the areas where programs can be of most value — primarily because it is a part of living to which little attention is paid, or to which attention is paid superficially.

To begin with, stating the obvious, before we can understand the ideas of others we must first hear them. The free flow of ideas has already been identified throughout this study as one of the primary needs of mankind. It is the ideas men have that move them, that give them their personalities, that make them different from one another. And we can begin to understand one another only after we have offered one another our ideas for examination. The television station should, like the classroom and laboratory, foster ideas, present ideas, talk about ideas, describe ideas in action — all ideas posed by intelligent, sincere persons.

There is, however, a part of this general education purpose that is difficult to achieve by television: "to understand the ideas of others." The word "try" should
probably have been inserted before the word "understand," because this is the most we can expect of ourselves and others. There are many ideas I cannot understand. They may be too complex, in areas of knowledge beyond mine, out of different cultures, times and places. I think what we need is a sincere, sympathetic effort to understand the ideas of others. And this has further implications for programming the university television station. Ideas do not have to be understood before they are worthy of broadcast. There is a human relations value in simply showing that ideas are not always understandable to us because persons have their own highly individual ones in different places and different times. What is needed is the ability to live respectfully with others' ideas that are yet incomprehensible.

There are other implications for programming in attempting to achieve this educational purpose: the functions, the complexities of communicating ideas need careful explaining. The equal roles played by listener and communicator, the unique symbolic behavior of man, the social and psychological implications of communication and how to use it toward the ends of human freedom are essential to reaching our goal. The ethics or morals of communication are important. I believe that programs
need to be created dealing with the whole area of man's uniqueness through his ability to invent and use symbols. What problems does this ability create for men? What might men do in communication to solve these problems?

6. "To attain a satisfactory emotional and social adjustment."

The implications for programming toward gaining this end of general education are best identified in the other ten purposes explored in this section and from a discussion of the others later in this chapter based on chapters three, four and five. Number seven immediately below is directly related. If we achieve a degree of success with the others then a like degree of attainment of a "satisfactory emotional and social adjustment" ought to follow.

7. "To maintain and improve his own health and to cooperate actively and intelligently in solving community health problems."

Surely a reasonable number of programs, regularly scheduled, ought to be broadcast for all ages to help attain this end. I think that specialists, including doctors from the university and the community could be put to excellent use here.

Programs helping to motivate the audience toward participating in healthful sports and helping to teach the fundamentals would be of value.
Good citizenship is called for here as well. Community health problems need to be aired courageously and actively with a full explanation of their implications. Citizens can be brought into active cooperation only if they are supplied with the facts in the issues. Television programs are capable of being produced which would imaginatively recreate the facts of public and personal health and welfare. Health is closely linked to the complexity of the times, apparently, as well as to economic and social conditions of various groups within the community. This kind of background and relationship is essential for public understanding and the programs need to be done even if faced with attack by pressure groups, or by those who do not want delicate subjects dealt with.

The critical problems of mental health need to be shown and their solutions discussed, also. The station should do its utmost to help achieve the end of the World Health Organization which defines health this way, "Health is a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity." 5

Television programs ought to serve the community by dealing with matters of public concern using television's ability to reach mass audiences. Achieving health is closely related to the adequacy of public information.

8. "To understand and enjoy literature, art, music, and other cultural activities as expressions of personal and social experience, and to participate to some extent in some form of creative activity."

Television can help here to a great degree. The best in the arts, in drama, in the dance, in the fine arts, in literature, in music can be made available for the television audience. Our university campuses are centers of the arts.

Programs should be designed to develop aesthetic appreciations and understandings, to motivate audiences into creating on their own, to show that the artist's way of seeing, thinking, feeling, working is an effective and satisfying way of living.

I think programs attempting to show how the artist works, and how he handles his materials (be they paint, clay, musical notes, words or the human body) to tell his story, would increase both understanding and appreciation of the arts and motivate viewers to create their own. Modern man needs more opportunities to experience basic sensual perceptions from which comes his true knowledge of the natural environment; and to illustrate the forms
he sees, the objects he touches, and the sounds he hears. The arts can give him this sensitivity to the particular and unique aspects of his individual world — giving his life a certain degree of security through the aesthetic reordering of his experiences.

9. "To acquire the knowledge and attitudes basic to a satisfying family life."

Probably no resource is more important to conserve than the families of the nation. It is by now well known and generally accepted that no influence is more effective and persistent in the life of an individual than his home and family life. It is at home where children first learn their personal and social values.

Good families are made by the members working together conscientiously and effectively. Attitudes that promote mutual respect, willingness to cooperate, and those others which develop a democratic atmosphere in the home (honesty, integrity, kindness, sympathy, love, eagerness to share opinion and experience, fairly distributing responsibility among the family members) are learned one way or another in the home. Programs should be presented that aim at developing realistic attitudes about family living.

Knowledge of child care and growth, home management and planning, and the numerous skills connected with this
knowledge may be taught not only in our schools but by television programs as well. Most girls are not trained "Home Economics" specialists. Most girls never go to college and only a few ever complete their higher education.

There is new knowledge, new opinion, always arising about this area of life. The educational television station is in a unique position among the educative media for doing an effective, first-rate job of enlightening all members of the family about how best to participate in that human relationship.

10. "To choose a socially useful and personally satisfying vocation that will permit one to use to the full his particular interests and abilities."

To help citizens choose a socially useful and personally satisfying vocation is a worthy aim, perhaps more efficiently done by counselling agencies and on our campuses and in the schools than by anything television can do. On the other hand programs could help youth decide upon vocations and show alternatives for adults who need guidance. Programs done by expert counsellors could serve a very useful purpose by showing the training, education, skills, personality, and so on needed for the many vocations.

11. "To acquire and use the skills and habits
involved in critical and constructive thinking."

The need and methods for this have been shown to some degree under numbers four and five above. Programs designed to show the need for critical thought, and explaining and dramatizing its results should prove of real value.

An understanding of the methods of problem-solving and motivation to practice them; an understanding of the problems of communication including techniques of discussion; and understanding of the various logical methods of thinking could all be contributed to through imaginative programs.

Programs should also give listeners experiences in critical listening, and seeing or reading. One of the most critical issues facing the American today is his perpetual bombardment with information, proaganda, statistics, opinions, ideas—all aimed to force him to make up his mind about something at the earliest possible moment. The men and women who make a living selling products and selling ideas in contemporary America are, for the most part, skilled, clever, intelligent. They have successfully learned the tricks of propaganda and are able to present it most attractively for the untrained, or inattentive eye or ear—the eye or ear not trained to separate fact from fiction, opinion and prejudice from reality, the symbols
of truth and virtue from the true and virtuous.

Another factor has entered the picture in recent years. It is the machine, such as "Univac," that can "think" through certain problems, and, under certain conditions, perhaps save the human race from taking any action at all, say, in major political elections. In the Presidential election of 1956 "Univac" had foretold quite accurately the margin of victory early on election eve well before the polls had closed in the western states. "Univac," operating over television from the east coast accurately told the writer, and thousands of others who were residing in California, the election winners one and one-half hours before some of us went to the polls to cast our ballots. If such machines become able to predict local elections and primary elections as well, the great majority of elections will become but academic exercises in voting. The professional pollsters have also created a problem for us: they, too, can rather accurately forecast public opinion and mass action. The problem here seems to be that danger lurks for mankind in this seemingly useful business of forecasting and computing, because if the experts and machines are right in advance, what, then, do we do in our individual actions? Nothing? Stay home on election day, or, at best, take a token stroll to the
community poll? What might happen to political democracy at the time when on election day before the voter casts his ballot, he first asks, "What did Univac say?"

It should not be so easy to forecast what men will do in matters of opinion. Is it, perhaps, because it is relatively easy today to tell men what to think, and then sell them on it through the dramatic effect of modern mass communications media? I would suggest that perhaps our very powers of critical analysis are being weakened, the sharp edges blunted. If educational television programs can be put to use in revitalizing our habits and skills of critical and constructive thinking, developing our eyes and ears for the pursuit of truth, the station will be put to very good use indeed.

Summary

The non-commercial educational television station operated by a university should help in the fundamental tasks of higher education in America: to develop free individuals and a free society; to train the citizenry for vocational competence; to contribute to extending the frontiers of knowledge.

The educational television station can function best at our "ideal" university. An ideal American university relates itself directly to the society in which it exists
and of which it is a part by directly attacking the moral and social problems and issues of the day as they arise. The university must be free itself to identify closely with society. It must embody the democratic principles of liberty, social justice, and equality. Its organization and administration must, also, be carried out in a free atmosphere so that freedom becomes a living concept for student, faculty, and public alike. A free atmosphere and organization demands that the individuals who are concerned with educational decisions exercise a free, uncoerced share in making those decisions.

The television station, too, should embody the principles, organization and methods of the free university. The audience should share with the station staff in helping to plan and produce programs. The head station administrator ought to act as the chairman of a general television policy and programming committee sharing responsibility with those who have the main concern with receiving and producing programs.

The television station personnel need to be educators with broad interests and special training who are a part of the academic community.

The programs may be governed by eleven principles of general education which describe needs and educational
purposes that cut across education at all ages and levels: (1) to develop a personal creed based on the ethics of democratic ideals; (2) to promote informed participation in citizenship; (3) to recognize human interdependence and foster international peace and understanding; (4) to understand one's physical environment and the implications of science while applying habits of scientific thought to personal and social problems; (5) to understand other's ideas and to communicate effectively; (6) to attain a satisfactory emotional and social adjustment; (7) to improve personal and public health and welfare; (8) to understand and enjoy and participate in the arts and other aesthetic experiences; (9) to acquire the knowledge and attitudes basic to a satisfying family life; (10) to choose a useful, satisfying vocation; (11) to acquire and use the skills and habits of critical thinking.
Chapter Seven
SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The problem in this dissertation was to ascertain and then set forth on paper, appropriate relationships of the university operated non-commercial educational television station to the university and to the community at large.

Preliminary thought, reading and discussion on the problem suggested that the focus probably ought to be on the purposes and methods of higher education primarily. Relating the particular nature and problems of television broadcasting to higher education was the next step.

The literature of higher education and on educational television was surveyed first. This led into further reading about other areas of education, adult and public school, and additional readings more closely related to television followed—government documents, and research studies for the most part. Some interviews were held with both university administrators and professional television broadcasters to ascertain their feelings and ideas about certain specific subjects. Throughout the thesis the author called for guidance on his own experiences.
both as a university instructor and as a practicing educational broadcaster over a period of several years to the present time.

From this method of approach were drawn the substance and conclusions of the study.

Conclusions of the Study

First, the specific conclusions derived in sequence chapter by chapter will be listed. Finally, the main general conclusions will be stated.

Specific Conclusions of the Study

1. In America it has long been considered appropriate and necessary for institutions of higher education to offer their resources to the community at large.

2. Based on established precedent and present need, our institutions of higher education must keep pace with social development and provide leadership in helping to solve the problems resulting from social development.

3. Higher education should provide both general education for enlightened freedom and citizenship and expert professional training for its students.

4. The non-commercial educational television station can be especially useful for extending university resources on a large scale to the whole community—adults, children and youth and other special interest groups.

5. The basic requirement for obtaining a broadcast license from the Federal Communications Commission is that licensees must serve in the public interest.

6. For two reasons non-commercial educational broadcast licensees are in a most encouraging position from which they may serve the public interest: (a) they do not have to compete for commercial profit by maintaining the largest possible available audience; and (b) education's
primary purposes are closely related to the meaning of public service as defined over the years by the Federal Communications Commission.

7. The federal government's allocation of television channels is mainly on an individual community service basis. This, also, is in the natural pattern of higher education. Broadcasting which serves community interests must be a cooperative enterprise between citizen and broadcaster.

8. Since the educational community in America has, by quite valiant efforts, persuaded the government to reserve more than 250 television channels for education, it has the clear responsibility of putting these channels to use at the earliest possible moment.

9. By continuing to educate adult citizens higher education can better achieve its own special objectives. The reason for this is that it is mainly adults which give a community its direction and its character.

10. Certain social situations exist that give rise to many adult problems, the solution of which demand continued and resolute efforts. These social situations are: (1) the growth of interdependence; (2) the growth of knowledge, which in turn results in (a) a critical gap between what man knows and how he acts; and (b) the need for more effective distribution of knowledge; (3) the declining importance of the primary face-to-face group in human relations; (4) the changing role of the individual; (5) the existence of beauty and the need for aesthetic enjoyment and artistic creation.

11. Some of the major purposes of adult education that can help to solve the problems resulting from the situations listed in the above paragraph are: (1) to increase the quantity and quality of discussion, debate and persuasion; (2) to develop an intelligent awareness of the frictions resulting from interdependence and to ameliorate these frictions; (3) to close the distance between what is known and what is done; (4) to provide opportunities and motivation for face-to-face exchange of human experience; (5) to provide a responsible share for each individual in the forming and directing of the activities of the groups to which he belongs; (6) to provide a variety of opportunities for adults to enjoy
the beauty of the world and to add to it by developing their own creative potential.

12. The university television station, both in its programming and in its organization, can reflect the above stated needs of adults in the community and help to realize them imaginatively.

13. On the university campus a television station should perform at least four functions: (1) act as a training facility for students who wish to prepare for a career in television; (2) contribute significantly to furthering the ends of various other university interests and activities; (3) wherever possible help to solve the problems resulting from expanding enrollments and teacher shortages; (4) provide opportunities for research concerned with television broadcasting.

14. The university curriculum for future television professionals should include both specific technical training in television techniques and problems and education—especially in its aesthetic and creative aspects. The television trainee needs, as well, a broad background of general education. His classroom training should be closely related to activities at the station.

15. In furthering intra-institutional university relationships cooperative programming possibilities should be searched out and considered to be worthwhile integrative experiences for everyone involved.

16. Experience with television as a method of direct resident instruction indicates that it can be educationally useful both as a way to help solve critical teacher and facility shortages and as a supplement to regular classroom instruction.

17. Research in the educational uses of television should be in close partnership with performance. Careful research is so necessary and basic to its intelligent use that trained research personnel should be on the staff of the station.

18. On the basis of demonstrated interest in and experience with the uses of broadcasting for in-school benefits, it can be expected that the public schools will want to receive television programs from the university station for in-school use.
19. The contemporary curriculum in our schools should: (1) develop children and youth who are able to make reasoned decisions based on democratic values; (2) help children live together cooperatively; (3) help children and youth translate democratic goals into daily action; (4) provide students with wide opportunities for aesthetic enjoyment and creative expression through the arts; (5) develop and promote good mental and physical health.

20. The conditions which would help to insure maximum effective utilization of in-school broadcasts for achieving the above ends are: (1) the programs should be planned and produced in close cooperation with those who are responsible for curriculum development in the schools; (2) the programs should provide curricular experiences most readily adapted to the television medium and not readily available from other sources; (3) the university should carry on cooperative activities with the schools toward improving the classroom use of the programs. Such activities would include cooperative workshops, conferences and courses for teachers and supervisors in television production and utilization; and research concerned with improving in-school broadcasts.

21. The university television station must reflect in its organization, administration and programming the main purposes of American higher education. These are: (1) to develop students who are intellectually free in order to recreate a progressively free society; (2) to develop students with wide, enriched aesthetic tastes and creative talents; (3) to train potentially capable students for certain vocational competencies; (4) to make available to the whole community the resources of the university; (5) to extend the frontiers of knowledge by research, and to recreate imaginatively new aspects of established facts and old truths; (6) to maintain a center of intellectual and spiritual freedom, artistic excellence, of democratic organization and administration that will stand as a model for the rest of society.

22. The television station will function best at a university that relates itself directly to the society in which it exists, by directly attacking the moral and social problems and issues of that society as they arise.

23. The free, democratic atmosphere and organization
demands that the individuals who are affected by educational decisions must exercise a free, uncoerced share in making those decisions.

24. The university itself must be free to identify itself closely with society, while its administration and organization is carried out in a free atmosphere that becomes a living concept for student, faculty, and public.

25. Since the television station is but an educative arm of the university it must embody the same ends and principles as the university.

26. The head station administrator ought to act as chairman of a general television policy and programming committee with representatives of all those groups who will receive the benefits of the programs, and with representatives of the president and Board of the university.

27. The internal organization of the station should reflect the principles of democratic organization previously stated.

28. Station personnel need to be primarily educators with broad, cultivated interests and tastes with special television training. They should be an integral part of the university academic community, while some of them should hold faculty rank, and tenure and other faculty privileges. They should receive salaries commensurate with their faculty status.

29. Cooperative financing of the station by almost all participating groups is to be expected, and within the pattern of non-commercial educational television organization foreseen by the Federal Communications Commission when it reserved the channels for education in 1952.

30. The programs from the station can, in general, be governed by the eleven purposes of general education described in chapter one. These eleven educational goals appear to underly the main goals of adult education and public school education as well.

While there are these 30 specific conclusions about television in higher education which have been derived
from this study, there is a general conclusion to be added.

**General Conclusion**

It is possible for the university operated non-commercial educational television station to raise the level of education, enlightenment and aesthetic taste of the American public to a remarkable degree. Because of television it can be said that never before in the history of education has the potential power for achieving higher education's aims been generated with more imagination.
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ENCYCLOPEDIA ARTICLES


AUTOBIOGRAPHY

I, Hubert Morehead, was born in Columbus, Ohio, November 7, 1918. I received my secondary school education in the Columbus, Ohio, public schools, and my undergraduate training at the Ohio State University, where I received the Bachelor of Science degree in 1940. I received the Master of Arts degree from the Ohio State University in 1946. While in residence there I was assistant in drama in the Speech Department in 1946, and Script Supervisor for the Ohio School of the Air, WOSU, the Ohio State University in 1946-1947. I was a part-time instructor in radio at Ohio Wesleyan University, Delaware, Ohio, in 1947-1948. I was on the staff of the Atlanta Area Teacher Education Service, Emory University, Atlanta, Georgia, as a Kappa Phi Kappa Fellow and Consultant in Radio. I was the coordinator of the radio workshop at the Emory University Summer Workshops in 1949 and 1950. In 1951 I went to the State University of New York Teachers College at Fredonia as an Assistant Professor of Speech and Director of Radio and Television. While there I developed the Radio Schoolhouse of Western New York, which broadcast programs for in-school listening over several commercial stations in the area. I also produced educational television
programs from WICU-TV, Erie, Pennsylvania. In 1955 I came to my present position at Long Beach State College, Long Beach, California, as an Assistant Professor of Speech-Drama, where I have the responsibility for developing the television and radio area.