

EDUCATIONAL TELEVISION FOR VIET-NAM:  
DEVELOPMENT OF A GUIDE FOR PROGRAMMING IN FUNDAMENTAL EDUCATION

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

Viet-Nam is in transition. A decade and a half ago it was still under the rule of the French colonial power. Today it is undergoing a unique experience -- that of transforming itself from subjugation into a free and independent nation. Like many other developing agrarian societies, Viet-Nam has to encounter many problems that hinder its effort toward progress.

Throughout their recorded history of about 2000 years the Vietnamese have been among the most vigorous people in Asia, predominantly as village-dwelling rice cultivators, or fishermen. Only 20 percent of 17 million Vietnamese live in the cities. The rest live in rural areas where they grow crops and raise animals in almost the same way as their ancestors did hundreds of years ago. The Vietnamese society is in many ways a clannish society. The family unit is the most important and the village comes second. Nothing beyond the village is really important to them.

To the Vietnamese, the family is the strongest motivating force in his life -- stronger than his religion, stronger than allegiance to his country. Anything a man

does, he does out of family consideration rather than for himself as an individual.<sup>1</sup>

This non-individualistic attitude has been strengthened steadily by the practice of Confucianism.

The Vietnamese have a very strong attachment to their native place. Consequently, the Vietnamese society is not mobile. Although the people have traditionally been credited with their respect for knowledge and their eagerness for learning, due to social immobility and a lack of communication with the world beyond the bamboo hedges, the average Vietnamese has little chance at the moment to get well informed.

The average farmer is so superstitious he thinks illness can be caused by a sorcerer who possesses something that belongs to the victim -- a photograph, a piece of clothing, a lock or strand of hair, or even his name. . . Many ailments are thought to be caused by evil spirits rather than germs and people try to protect themselves with charms, sacrifices and prayers to good spirits, asking them to ward off the evil.<sup>2</sup>

Their lack of understanding about hygiene and health and above all, a lack of modern medical facilities, creates many health problems. Of all deaths in one year 46.8 percent were among children under 15 years of age as compared to 9.7 percent of the same age group in the United States.

Economically, Viet-Nam is classified as underdeveloped. Poverty hinders the Vietnamese from education and a lack of education hinders

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<sup>1</sup>Cooke, David C. Viet-Nam: The Country, The People. W. W. Norton and Co., New York 1968, p. 29.

<sup>2</sup>Cooke, David C., Ibid., p. 56.

them from getting economically better. It is indeed a vicious cycle.

In 1965, the gross national income totalled one billion 23 million U. S. dollars. National income per capita was \$U.S. 66. This is quite low compared to other developing countries: In Cambodia it was \$U.S. 110, Kenya \$U.S. 113, Thailand \$U.S. 120, The Philippines \$U.S. 142, and the Congo \$U.S. 140.<sup>3</sup>

Statistics by UNESCO in 1961 showed that from 80 percent to 85 percent of approximately 17 million Vietnamese were illiterate. The Vietnamese Constitution proclaims free education for all children at elementary level. Yet, the existing educational system, first established by the colonial power, has not changed fast enough to meet rising educational needs of the masses. Shortage of trained personnel has been a constant problem. Benjamin Duke revealed insight into the educational situation in South East Asia, which is also typical of Viet-Nam, when he said:

During the colonial period there were two distinct systems of education in most countries. One was established for the colonial administrator which usually included a few selected natives and ranged from elementary to higher education. The second system accommodated a small percentage of natives for elementary school, terminating after three to six years of formal schooling. This means that today the adults of the ago who should be the experienced leaders and teachers are limited in number because their educational opportunities either came during the colonial period and were restricted, or during the war when education was disrupted. As a natural consequence

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<sup>3</sup>The Vietnamese Catholic Students Association in America, Chuong Viet, No. 159. Spring 1969, p. 4.



there is an acute shortage of trained and experienced teachers and educational leaders in many Asian countries.<sup>4</sup>

The colonial policy of "division for easy governing" was another unfavorable factor in the development of Viet-Nam as an independent nation. The Colonial ruler divided Viet-Nam into Tonkin, Annam, and Cochinchina. This for almost a century bred suspicion, localism, disunity and a strong clannish attitude among the Vietnamese of the three regions although the country as a whole is basically not different culturally and racially. This situation will, however, be improved with time and education; and Viet-Nam has always been one, in time of national emergency. A newspaperman who has been in Viet Nam a while commented on the Vietnamese:

Through out their long span of existence, the Vietnamese have been among the most vigorous people in Asia, and they still have remarkable drive and energy. . .their recorded history of 2170 years has been one of almost constant war. They have fought against the Chinese, against their other neighbors, against the French, and even among themselves. This small piece of land has probably seen more war, over a longer period of time than any other land of similar size anywhere in the world.<sup>5</sup>

Indeed, he made his statement with some justification. Modern history has seen Viet-Nam constantly at war for the last twenty years. In its emergence as a free and independent nation, its transition is made more difficult by an ideological war raging on since the time Viet-Nam came out from under French domination. Dr. Altleee Beechy who headed the

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<sup>4</sup>Duke, Benjamin C., Survey of Educational Media Research in the Far East, U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Washington, D. C. 1963, p. 2.

<sup>5</sup>Cooke, David C., op. cit., p. 13.

Viet-Nam Christian Service during its initial period recently remarked about the Vietnamese war:

A proud, gentle people, the Vietnamese have suffered from the savagery of war. . . A great weariness has gripped the people. . .and when the war ends,. . .it will take perhaps a decade before they can regain their dignity.<sup>6</sup>

Even if there were no war, poverty-stricken Viet-Nam could hardly afford to allot a great amount of national income for education alone. With the war, national efforts have been diverted from the fight against poverty and ignorance, and from fundamental education which is essential in the process of nation building. The expenditure on the war has strained financial sources which could normally be used to educate Vietnamese citizens to become worthy of a free and independent nation.

In 1967 the National Education Study team consisting of Vietnamese educators and prominent American educational specialists made a survey of the Vietnamese educational systems as a basis for reorganization. In their final proposal they emphasized the importance of fundamental education:

Several governmental units and division of the Ministry of Education as well as other Ministries are conducting adult education programs which can be considered well organized and successful. But the greatest number of these courses are directed toward the improvement of vocational or occupational skills, and again, little attention is given to the development of programs to increase the general cultural level and to develop leadership and civic responsibilities. In a country that is rapidly changing from an agricultural society to an industrial one, technical and vocational skills become highly desirable, but fundamental programs in

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<sup>6</sup>Church World Service Leaflet, Viet-Nam, a People in Agony. New York, 1969.

citizenship and moral and ethical values must be planned. The old cultural values which were the basis for Vietnamese society are changing and new ones must be accepted. Adult education courses and programs for out of school youth can assist people in making the change.<sup>7</sup>

Viet-Nam is unique in its problems. Not only must it make major adjustments, in a transition from a strictly agrarian society into a more or less industrial one, it has also to face problems of building its people's morale in the present state of war, and of bringing about normalization when the war is over. There is not much time to waste in the Vietnamese effort toward development. In order to live prosperously and decently in the world community, Viet-Nam will have to take a giant's step toward development. Yet, there can be little development, particularly economic development, without a corresponding rise in the general standard of education. But when one is attempting to accomplish in a matter of years a work which has been the product of centuries in the older countries, the traditional means of education alone proves inadequate. The National Education Study team foresaw a great promise in the mass media, particularly television and radio, in terms of what they can offer for educational purposes in Viet-Nam. At a minimum level, television and radio can be of great use in uniting the people who have been so greatly uprooted by the war. It can bring to them their cultural heritage to incite in them a sense of national pride and unity:

The government of Viet-Nam should take positive steps now to insure future use of radio and television for educational purposes. This includes both formal and informal instruction.

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<sup>7</sup> National Education Study, Education Viet Nam, A Proposal for Reorganization. Saigon, 1967, p. 207.



A promising start in formal instruction for the elementary grades has been made. It is believed that informal instruction will make a great contribution to national unity. An example would be a television presentation of Hue and its historic shrines, or the organization of the University of Can Tho in the Delta region, or rubber plantation in Tay Ninh. Many Vietnamese have not been able to travel to other parts of their beautiful country. Such television specials and documentaries would have the effect of building national identity.<sup>8</sup>

The role that radio and television play in fundamental education can be of vital importance to national reconstruction and development in Viet-Nam. With a population highly illiterate, the printed word will not be able to spread information as fast and as effectively as the messages carried by air waves. Even in highly developed countries such as the United States, the power of the mass media in influencing human life is evident. Life is bombarded daily by images from television and other media, and people are consciously or unconsciously being strongly affected by them. The advertisers use television images to influence the consumers to buy certain brands, the politician uses television as "edited reality" to create certain reactions. It was reported that the failure of Richard Nixon in the 1960 presidential election was attributed to television.

In Viet-Nam, before 1966 when television was inaugurated, newspapers and radio were the two vital mass media through which the people received information. For the purpose of fundamental education alone, the high rate of illiteracy in Viet-Nam imposes severe limitations on the power of the printed word. Radio has always been under either the

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<sup>8</sup> National Education Study, Ibid., p. 147.



control of the colonial power, or that of the government. Both television and radio today have been used primarily as political tools. The educational potential of these media has not been adequately explored. Radio can cheaply serve as an educational tool as has been proved in India's Radio Forum, a radio broadcasting experiment aiming at rural audience. However, television as a new mass medium has more appeal as it can "bring the world to people's doorsteps" both audibly and visually.

Television can inform the Vietnamese masses. It can present a vivid picture of how Viet Nam is making progress in its fight against ignorance and poverty.

Television can help strengthen the Vietnamese culture of which the Vietnamese people feel so proud and which has been slowly uprooted in years of war and destruction. It will help them build up their dignity which has been jeopardized by unhappy experiences in a war-torn country. It will send the essence of knowledge to millions of Vietnamese who have never had a chance to obtain formal schooling.

Television will enrich the life of the Vietnamese as a whole; it will broaden their horizons in order to make them feel what it is really like to be responsible, active citizens of a free and independent state.

Television is a versatile medium. In the educational context, in order to see to what extent television can contribute to the dissemination of fundamental education, we will need to define the nature and scope of fundamental education.

### What is Fundamental Education?

Fundamental education covers a rather wide area. As the term implies, it includes the most basic necessary education an individual must have to live in harmony in a modern nation in the world community. It does not necessarily mean formal schooling. It usually aims at people who are beyond the school age and who have never had an opportunity to obtain an education due to poverty or other causes. The ultimate result of a fundamental education program will be a society in which new ideas and attitudes obtained by the youth in school will not be stifled by resistance to change on the part of their elders; a society in which each member is able to lead a spiritually rich life and is susceptible to modernization.

A developing nation usually witnesses the conflict between the resistance to change on the part of the older generation and the revolutionary attitude on the part of the youth. The older generation is used to its way of life, and clings to it for security. Meanwhile, the young getting more opportunities for education in school, are gaining more new ideas and skills. They are likely to feel frustrated when they move back into an adult community where they are not understood, and where change is not regarded as a value. As it has been pointed out, the family influence is strong on the Vietnamese. Under his family pressure a Vietnamese may tend to fall back to the old undesirable pattern despite what he has learned in school; or he may get so frustrated as to leave the community. In the latter case, the educated cannot contribute much to community development. Fundamental education should bring about new attitudes concerning citizenship,

progress, and the eradication of ignorance and poverty. It will consequently bring about a favorable environment for change and modernization. Without re-education of the illiterate masses, it will take formal education offered in schools several generations to keep pace with the world's progress. UNESCO experts showed a commendable insight into the problem:

Money spent on schools is largely wasted unless the children move into an adult community where the skills, knowledge, and ideas acquired in school are understood and appreciated by the older generation. Where this condition is not fulfilled, serious frustrations and conflict arise, as in the case of the younger generation to despise or to abandon their own people.<sup>9</sup>

So, fundamental education is aimed at laying the foundation for a fuller life for the whole community so that there is little gap between the well-educated and the less educated -- all can work together toward progress.

Fundamental education is closely related to adult education. In fact, it is a part of adult education. In order to understand the role of fundamental education in the total education of adults, it is important to define what adult education is.

In an effort to define adult education, the International Directory of Adult Education had to admit that "what is meant by adult education is by no means uniformly or consistently defined throughout the world."<sup>10</sup>

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<sup>9</sup>UNESCO, Fundamental Education, Definition and Program, 1949, reproduced by U. S. Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, Bulletin 1948, No. 13, p. 5.

<sup>10</sup>UNESCO, The International Directory of Adult Education, Unesco, Paris, 1952, p. 20.



It is indeed difficult to come up with a universal definition of adult education, as it is so closely related to the social, political and cultural conditions of each country. What makes it so difficult is the number of activities which it embraces is almost innumerable, and its potential student body is the entire adult population. F. W. Reeves in his inquiry into the field of adult education defined adult education as follows:

Adult education can be defined as any purposeful effort toward self-development carried on by an individual without direct legal compulsion and without such effort becoming his major field of activity. It may be concerned with any or all of the three aspects of his life: his work life, his personal life, and his life as a citizen.<sup>11</sup>

Adult education is thus distinguished from formal schooling by the following characteristics: ". . .first voluntary attendance; and second, education as an activity secondary to that of earning a living."<sup>12</sup>

In its broadest sense, anything can be educational for an adult. It can range from elementary skills to advanced work on the college level, or professional level. It also includes random participation in cultural activities such as concerts, exhibitions, and social gatherings.

Traditionally, adult education in Viet-Nam as in many other countries has been associated with the teaching of literacy and with such remedial courses as the night school for adults who have missed the opportunity of formal schooling. In Viet-Nam, adult education operates under the name of Popular Education and consists mainly of night classes

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<sup>11</sup>Reeves, F. W., Adult Education, The Regent's Inquiry, The McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York-London, 1938, p. 3.

<sup>12</sup>Reeves, F. W., Ibid., p. 5.

for adult drop-outs and illiterates as well as including vocational training.

It has been pointed out earlier that as Viet-Nam is in its developing stage, the need to educate the masses for a better and more meaningful life is essential. UNESCO experts in adult education in developing countries also have strongly urged educators in education-starved societies to broaden the scope of adult education so as to cover "the activities of a wide range of institutions or agencies and to include a contents as wide as life itself." They recommended:

Adult education must concern itself with improvement in economic status, health, and social living, with the resultant emphasis on literacy teaching. Adult education in such circumstances must bring to its assistance all agencies of social improvement, including the local schools, where these exist.<sup>13</sup>

Adult education is, therefore, an on-going process that pervades the entire life of an adult to enrich his life. Reeves defined the range of adult education:

As a process, adult education may be thought of as that activity which enables a person more efficiently to meet his personal needs, problems, or desires; more effectively to participate as an intelligent functioning member of society; and more understandingly to approach the appreciation and realization of ultimate values.<sup>14</sup>

Here is where adult education branches out to cover fundamental education. It is, therefore, of vital importance for Viet-Nam to expand the activities of adult education to include fundamental education in order to help the Vietnamese masses live a fuller life.

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<sup>13</sup>UNESCO, International Directory of Adult Education, op. cit., p. 20.

<sup>14</sup>Reeves, F. W., op. cit., p. 5.

The content of fundamental education varies with circumstances, but in the long run it should include these basic things as defined in the UNESCO Monographs on Fundamental Education:

1. Skills of thinking and communicating (reading and writing, speaking, listening and calculation.)
2. Vocational skills (such as agriculture and husbandry, building and weaving and other useful crafts and simple technical and commercial skills necessary for economic progress.)
3. Domestic skills (such as the preparation of food and the care of children and of the sick.)
4. Skills used in self-expression and the arts and crafts, education for health through personal and community hygiene.
5. Knowledge and understanding of the physical environment and of natural processes (for example, simple and practical science.)
6. Knowledge and understanding of the human environment, economic and social organization, law and government, knowledge of other parts of the world and the people who live in them.
7. The development of qualities to fit men to live in the modern world such as personal judgment, and initiative, freedom from fear and superstition, sympathy and understanding for different points of view.
8. Spiritual and moral development, belief in ethical ideals and the habit of acting upon them with the duty to examine traditional standards of behavior and to modify them to suit new condition.

In the paper issued by the UNESCO Advisory Committee on Educational Broadcasting (June 1949), another aspect of fundamental education was added:

. . .The ability to enjoy the finest of all the arts --



the art of living -- through active and vicarious participation in recreational activities and avocation, music, dancing, arts, and crafts.<sup>15</sup>

In short, fundamental education is concerned primarily with "bringing greater happiness to people and making them aware of the means by which they may live a fuller life." In this context, the Vietnamese have rarely had the chance to enjoy the happiness of a fuller life due to constant struggle and suffering. They have not had enough time to develop themselves into mature citizenship. Fundamental education will help them to understand and to develop their own culture, their songs, their music, and their dances, and to appreciate the culture of other people, to see things around them with fresh eyes, even to learn to play. And most pressing need of all is to help them get well-adjusted in the role of responsible citizens in an independent nation.

The urgent needs Viet-Nam has to meet in the process of development can justify the use of television in fundamental education. The fact that television is expensive should not prevent the use of the educational potential of the medium, especially when the medium is already available in the country. There are limitations and advantages accompanying the use of television as an educational tool. However, in order to avoid wasteful mistakes Viet Nam will be able to gain much from the experiences in other developing countries, where television has been put into service for educational purposes.

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<sup>15</sup>Williams Grenfell J., Radio in Fundamental Education in Under-developed Areas. UNESCO, Paris 1950, pp. 12-13.

In the following chapters, the role of television in fundamental education and its application in selected developing countries will be discussed, and the case for television in fundamental education in Vietnam will be presented.



## CHAPTER II

### TELEVISION IN FUNDAMENTAL EDUCATION

Television made its dramatic entrance into the technological world more than two decades ago. Since the inauguration of the world's first public television broadcasting service in Britain on November 2, 1936, no mass medium has ever spread so fast as television has within such a short time. It has found a well-established place in the western world and in Japan. It is slowly entering the less developed scene, and once there it is sure to stay. Television stations in over 90 countries today serve an audience of over 750 million persons. By the early 1970's this audience will have doubled in size as national networks expand to cover all but the most isolated areas.<sup>16</sup>

As early as 1945, Richard Hubbell in his book, "Television Programming and Production" predicted the great potential of television in education. He defined the nature of television through five aspects:

Scientifically, television is an electronic method of transmitting visual and aural images over a considerable distance. In this instance,

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<sup>16</sup>Dizard, Wilson P., Television A World View. Syracuse University Press, 1966, p. 1.

television is instantaneous. Psychologically, television is an extension of our seeing and hearing over great distances. As vision and hearing are our two most important senses through which we acquire approximately 98 percent of all our knowledge, television as a combination of both will contribute a great deal to our learning process.

Historically, television is the only invention of modern times which fills a basic human desire never fulfilled before: "you can be in two places at one time." Marshall McLuhan also looks at TV as the realization of the western dream called synesthesia:

Synesthesia, or unified sense and imaginative life, had long seemed an unattainable dream to Western poets, painters, and artists in general. They had looked with sorrow and dismay on the fragmented and impoverished imaginative life of Western literate man in the eighteenth century and later. Such was the message of Blake and Pater, Yeats and D. H. Lawrence, and a host of other great figures. They were not prepared to have their dreams realized in everyday life by the esthetic action of radio and television. Yet these massive extensions of our central nervous systems have enveloped Western man in a daily session of synesthesia.<sup>17</sup>

The power of television in unifying sense and imaginative life "has created a taste for all experience in depth" that affects the learning process. More than 25 years ago Hubbel foresaw TV as a potential educational tool:

Television should be our most potent medium of education and propaganda. . . Its powers of persuasion. . . may be roughly equal to the combined impact of aural radio, motion picture and the press.<sup>18</sup>

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<sup>17</sup> McLuhan, Marshall, Understanding Media. McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1964, p. 315.

<sup>18</sup> Hubbel, Richard, Television Programming and Production. Murray Hills Books, Inc., New York-Toronto, 1945,

The UNESCO survey of the world television situation made available in 1953 outlined the nature of television as "a window on the world." The report greatly emphasized the role of television as a medium of education and culture:

The essence of television is that it enables people to be moved by events, personalities, or artistic presentations of which they may have read or heard, but which were hitherto largely inaccessible to them.<sup>19</sup>

The same report described the great prospect of the new medium as a "multiplier" of information:

Here lies the great chance to use television for the wider spread of education and culture. The broadcast can rarely exhaust a subject. The personal visit to the opera, the theater, the museum or the concert, the reading of books, and the classroom lessons will deepen the experience and broaden the knowledge. But a television broadcast can provide the stimulus, the scope and otherwise inaccessible information. The unique relationship between man and man indicates that it may play a most important role in unifying human knowledge and experience.

In this age of specialization it is difficult to acquire detailed knowledge of many of the different fields of human endeavor. . . What is needed to bridge the gap between specialized technicians and a largely uninformed public is not only popularization but even more, integration, a broader view which provides fundamental understanding of the forces at work and of the ideas and concepts which guide individual discipline.

Here television can be a useful tool because of its ability to link activities normally experienced separately. . .

Frequently, the programmes may be distinct in subject matter, dealing with a range of topics, from medicine to housing, from art to psychology. But the mere fact that the viewers at home can receive a succession of informative broadcasts produced with a central idea tends to broaden his horizon. . .

Television serves to unify people who live apart and are distinct in habits or in nationality. For seeing each other and following them in their normal way of life is perhaps the closest we can come to knowing them. . .



The opportunities television offers for bringing about a deeper comprehension between peoples, while largely unexplored, are among the most hopeful and constructive aspects of this new medium of communication.<sup>20</sup>

Despite this early insight into the educational power of television, considerable time has passed since the advent of the first telecast. During this span of time the effects of television on modern societies have been felt, and time and efforts have been expended in the study of the power of television on our lives. Educators at the outset inclined to be skeptical, thinking of the dangers inherent in this new form of mass communication. They foresaw a dispersal of interest and the consequent fragmentation of impressions. They held television responsible for physical defects and passivity in children. This prompted Wilbur Schramm's Stanford Study and Himmelweit's British Study on the effects of television upon children. It is interesting to note that both investigators seemed to be of the same opinion that television does have a considerable effect on youngsters' lives; but the nature of the effect depends on how television is used. More research will be needed to probe deeper in this matter which can be treated in another thesis.

Amid suspicion and skepticism toward the use of television in education, UNESCO quickly came to the defense of television:

But these reservations were unavoidably cast aside: television played too large a role in Man's daily life. Clearly television had to be taken into partnership and its powers harnessed for the purposes of information and leisure time amusement, and if possible for the education of adults and children.<sup>21</sup>

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<sup>20</sup>UNESCO, Ibid., p. 29-30.

<sup>21</sup>UNESCO, Adult Education and Television, A Comparative Study in Canada, Czechoslovakia, and Japan. Unesco, Paris 1966, p. 9.

At the time when radio had established a firm place and when television was a newcomer in the communication world, broadcasters seriously questioned the value of television as compared to radio. Television was an extremely costly medium in contrast to low-cost radio, and its effectiveness was still dubious. Although several studies were carried out to find out about the effectiveness of radio in contrast to that of television as a mass medium, research on this areas is still scanty. Rodney Clifford James in a thesis in 1961 made a review of researches in this area up to that date. He compared the effectiveness of radio and television in achieving educational objectives. His selected objectives in the comparison are quite relevant to some of the objectives prescribed by UNESCO on Fundamental Education: the learning of manual and non-manual skills, acquiring information, affecting interest and appreciation, developing and modifying attitudes toward ideas and toward social group, and developing creative abilities. It is, therefore, of interest to see what was found out in order for us to put television in its perspective in the field of fundamental education.

1. The learning of manual and non-manual skills (musical instrument, language pronunciation, typing). There was no conclusive evidence to contradict the possibility that they are equally effective. However, television would give the student a moving model to follow, whereas radio could only provide still pictures from a manual and oral directions from a loud speaker. If television plus a manual were used, students would receive a three-way exposure. James noted that the researchers seemed to imply that for more complicated tasks, such as

building equipment, television might prove to be most helpful.<sup>22</sup>

Dr. I. Keith Tyler was of the same opinion when he wrote:

This television being an audio-visual medium separates it from radio which must depend upon sound alone. As a visual medium television is superbly suited for visual demonstrations, for showing objects, processes, and their interrelationships. . . It is also well-suited for use in connection with the development of psychomotor skills, such as are involved in literacy, mathematical computations, foreign languages, physical education, instrumental music and technical training.<sup>23</sup>

2. Acquiring information. Results of experiments in teaching by television or radio proved that radio used to supplement classwork could be more effective in terms of information learned than regular teaching alone. Television proved to be equal to or better than classroom teaching in terms of test scores. It was found that the sciences, or other types of courses where moving visual materials are used, are most suitable for television. Television with its magnifying power is best for visual demonstration.

3. Affecting interest and appreciation (art, music, literature appreciation). Both radio and television are found to be effective in stimulating art appreciation. They create an atmosphere for interest in learning. The success of a station in San Francisco in initiating Japanese brush painting is a good example of the ability of television

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<sup>22</sup>James, Rodney Clifford, Comparative Effectiveness of Radio and Television in Achieving Selected Educational Objectives: A Survey. M.A. Thesis, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, 1961.

<sup>23</sup>Tyler, I. Keith, "Educational Implications of the TV Medium." AV Communication Review 12, Spring 1964, pp. 61-74.



to stimulate interest.<sup>24</sup> Both media can stimulate an interest in reading, increase the range if not the intensity of interest and appreciation. Radio is more feasible just because of lower production cost. In further consideration, radio proved to be the most advantageous in handling the field of art from an historical standpoint while television excelled in discussing art as a creative on-going process. "Television is a medium that rejects the sharp personality and favors the presentation of processes rather than of products."<sup>25</sup>

4. Developing and modifying attitudes toward ideas and toward social groups. As compared to reading, radio appears to be more effective when the material being presented is of an emotional or persuasive nature and acceptance of expressed ideas is urged. On the contrary, where the facts are only presented and acceptance is not urged, reading is superior.

When an attitudinal change is involved, television is very effective if the ideas expressed are confirmed by visual action. There was no definite conclusion to draw as to the relative superiority of one medium over the other. The research findings seem to be in line with McLuhan's observation about radio and television. He wrote:

. . .TV is a cool, participant medium. When hotted up by dramatization and stingers, it performs less well because there is less opportunity for participation. Radio is a hot medium. When given additional intensity,

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<sup>24</sup>Schramm, Wilbur, Television in the Lives of Our Children, Stanford University, 1962, p. 153.

<sup>25</sup>McLuhan, Marshall, op. cit., p. 309.

it performs better. It doesn't invite the same degree of participation in its users. Radio will serve as background-sound or as noise-level control, as when the ingenious teenager employs it as a means of privacy. TV will not work as background. It engages you. You have to be with it.<sup>26</sup>

5. Developing of creative abilities. Both television and radio were found to be effective in stimulating creativity in elementary school students. However, in the television program, there was a tendency for students to copy what the television teacher was doing rather than to develop original ideas.<sup>27</sup> Concerning this point, McLuhan assures us that TV is really a medium that involves active participation. He said:

The banal and ritual remark of the conventionally literate that TV presents an experience for passive viewers is wide of the mark. TV is above all a medium that demands a creatively participant response. The guards who failed to protect Lee Oswald were not passive. They were so involved by the mere sight of the TV cameras that they lost their sense of their merely practical and specialist task.<sup>28</sup>

He distinguishes the difference between TV as a "cool" medium and radio as a "hot" medium. Radio is "hot" because "the message of radio is one of violent, unified implosion and resonance." Television, on the contrary, is a medium of involvement:

A cool medium, whether the spoken word or the manuscript or TV, leaves much more for the listener or user

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<sup>26</sup> McLuhan, Marshall, Ibid., pp. 311-312.

<sup>27</sup> James, Clifford R., op. cit.

<sup>28</sup> McLuhan, Marshall, op. cit., p. 336.



to do than a hot medium. If the medium is of high definition, participation is low. If the medium is of low intensity, the participation is high. Perhaps this is why lovers mumble so.<sup>29</sup>

In another part of his book, McLuhan elaborates on the power of TV to mobilize people:

Surely there could be no more telling touch to tip us off to the character of TV. This is not so much a visual as a tactual-auditory medium that involves all of our senses in depth interplay. For people long accustomed to the merely visual experience of the typographic and photographic varieties, it would seem to be the synesthesia, or tactual depth of TV experience that dislocates them from their usual attitudes of passivity and detachment.<sup>30</sup>

Both radio and television have their own limitations and advantages. Researchers have indicated that the effectiveness of the media can be considerably affected by other variables such as the personality of the radio or television teacher or, above all, the particular techniques used in communicating. Television is a relatively new medium as compared to radio. Television techniques, in many ways are still in the experimental stage. All too often the audience has to experience radio techniques carried over unchanged to television. The fact that a technique is successful on television. The result is that television fails to use all its potential power as an audio-visual medium. This failure is probably partly responsible for the dubious attitude on the part of educators toward television's educational power. Although no definite conclusion can be drawn as to whether television is generally superior to radio, the fact remains that as a new medium which is still in an

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<sup>29</sup> McLuhan, Marshall, Ibid., p. 319.

<sup>30</sup> McLuhan, Marshall, Ibid., p. 336.

experimental stage in its techniques of presentation, television demonstrates less weaknesses than advantages. Its potential is worth exploring.

In the United States where television started on a commercial basis, the educational potential of television has not yet been fully tapped. However, American educators are becoming more and more aware of the power of television as an educational tool. This increasing awareness, for example, is illustrated by the establishment of the Carnegie Commission on Educational Television which made twelve major recommendations for the strengthening of public (educational) television. In addition to its concern for public television, the Commission also noted the importance of instructional television.

In discussing the future of educational television in the next ten years in the United States, a study carried out in 1961 by the Institute for Communication Research at Stanford University summed up nicely the several contributions television can make in education. Television's ability of indefinite expansion makes identical reproduction possible. Television can make available an outstanding teacher in every subject in every school all over the country. Where there is the problem of shortage of facilities and personnel, television can help to relieve the headaches of educators. It can, as Dr. I. Keith Tyler put it, "bring the expert to the needy many," or make limited laboratory facilities available to more students, as well as share teaching skills among underprivileged educational institutions.<sup>31</sup>

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<sup>31</sup>The Institute for Communications Research, Educational Television The Next Ten Years, Stanford University, 1962.

Television can free the teacher for more individual work. Instead of undermining the teacher's prestige as many teachers have feared, television can give the teacher more time to work with the students as individuals according to their needs and abilities. This may be of special benefit in teaching exceptional students of all kinds.<sup>32</sup> Dr. I. Keith Tyler was also aware of what television can offer in a learning situation:

Television, by taking over the main burden of telling and showing, can provide the teacher with more time for individual and group learning activities.<sup>33</sup>

Electronically, the magnifying power of the television camera can provide superior close-up views which live demonstrations cannot supply.

Last but not least is the fact that television can be a "remarkable catalyst in bringing groups together across country and other traditional lines that used to separate them."<sup>34</sup> It seems to be relevant here to point out that this characteristics of television was one of the convincing factors responsible for the Vietnamese government's decision to introduce television in Viet-Nam.

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<sup>32</sup>The Institute for Communications Research, Ibid.

<sup>33</sup>Tyler, I. Keith, "The Impact of Instructional Television on Teaching Roles and Functions." AV Communication Review, January-February 1962, Vol. 10, No. 1, p.55.

<sup>34</sup>The Institute for Communications Research, op. cit., p. 22.



In the several specific areas of education, television presents a number of potential advantages:

1. In elementary and secondary schools, television has proved very successful in easing the shortage of teaching personnel as, for example, in the case of language teachers.

2. In colleges and universities, television is being used to distribute regular lectures to a large number of students, thus helping to solve the problems brought about by the rapid increase of enrollment -- a situation with which existing university facilities are not yet fully ready to cope.

As a teaching tool, television imposes a sharp discipline upon method. The television image gives the student viewer only one chance to get the message. If he misses it, it is lost. Therefore, the television presentation must be precise to be effective. Consequently, the television teacher has to summon help from experts in subject matter and learning theory, and spend more time in preparing each lesson in order to present it in the best organizational form possible.

In teacher education, several universities, including The Ohio State University, are experimenting with a new method of teacher training called micro-teaching. The student-teacher has the opportunity to conduct a class on his own; his presentation will be recorded in video tape to be played back later for him to see himself and discuss his problems with his professor. This method enables the student to be visually aware of his flaws in his style of teaching so that he can improve where he is ineffective. Television in this case is an excellent device in self-evaluation for prospective teachers.

3. In adult education, there is a terribly exciting possibility for educating everyone everywhere by television. "Particularly promising are the prospects for meeting the problems of those who are functional illiterates or only slightly better than that."<sup>35</sup>

Besides the services television offers within the classroom walls, the most promising potential of television lies in the development of a library of tapes and kinescopes which can be used and reused like library books by individuals for their own individual purposes.

This new mass medium, television, is a boon to education. What it can offer in the educational process in developing countries where the educational needs are paramount is even more promising. A developing country such as Viet-Nam is a nation in a hurry toward development. As national development takes place at a rate corresponding to the increase in the level of education of the whole population, there is clearly a need to disseminate knowledge and information as fast as possible.

The proper use of radical new educational techniques -- television included -- is a crucial need for emerging countries. . . The poorer nations are obligated to regard their educational effort as a major capital investment. For the next generation at least, the problem is that of determining how to do this quickly and efficiently. Seen in this light, educational television may be the social and economic bargain of the century for the new nations of Asia and Africa. Despite expensive installations, it may be the cheapest per-capita-cost way of using x source of teachers to get y amount of facts and z degrees of twentieth-century attitudes into the minds of half the world's population now living in ignorance and poverty.<sup>36</sup>

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<sup>35</sup>The Institute for Communications Research, Ibid., p. 28.

<sup>36</sup>Dizard, Wilson P., op. cit., p. 16.

Dieuzeide, in discussing the educational uses of radio and television in national development specified four educational uses of radio and television which have been successfully undertaken throughout the world:

1. The enrichment broadcast which is integrated into classroom teaching and makes a qualitative improvement in the teaching.
2. The broadcast designed to palliate the deficiencies of an existing educational system -- for example, substituting for unqualified teaching or upgrading present teachers.
3. The extension broadcasts which extends or prolongs educational opportunities for individuals in their homes or groups of individuals formed for educational purposes. This is designed for those who have had some schooling.
4. The development broadcast which is designed to carry education to communities where there has never been a school. In this case radio and television conduct a mass educational activity which really precedes the schools.<sup>37</sup>

Educators and broadcasters have shared the opinion that television should play an important part in the promotion of progress. The term "educational television" has been used time and again. But when it comes to defining its precise meaning, the term is used differently. To the commercial broadcasters, any television programs that tell people, show people, or warn people about facts and ideas, about possible choices in

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<sup>37</sup> Dieuzeide, Henri, "Notes for a Rational Theory on the Use of Radio for Education." EBU Review, 75B, 1962, pp. 45-58.



life can be educative. In support of their argument, they have even cited John Stuart Mill's philosophical definition of education as "everything which helps to shape the human being."

In an attempt to define educational television, the Metropolitan Educational Television Association (META) of Toronto, Canada, sent questionnaires to broadcasters all over Canada. They came to an ironical conclusion:

Nobody knows what ETV is. We don't. And certainly the stations responding to the META questionnaires don't. The 'educational' programming reported on ranges from such stuff as university credit courses in biology to such progressively less academic material as local history programs, news analysis panels and talks, celebrity interviews, and games and contests for teenagers.<sup>38</sup>

It is true that anything a human being experiences helps to shape his life. When television programs of the general nature are produced with creativity and interest, they can educate more effectively than a poorly designed and produced educational program. However, viewers may be swayed in the direction dictated by the interest of commercial sponsors or other vested interests rather than the program serving the educational needs of the viewer. Besides, there are major differences between programs that happen to educate and programs deliberately intended and designed to do so.

In Viet-Nam where the need for revolutionary means of education is pressing at the very time its own existence as a country is threatened by communism, the type of television programs that "happen to educate"

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<sup>38</sup> UNESCO, Adult Education and Television, A Comparative Study in Three Countries: Canada, Czechoslovakia and Japan. London, September 1966, p. 12.

are too risky and time-consuming to be feasible. This thesis is, therefore, mainly concerned with the purposeful use of television for fundamental education.

The European Broadcasting Union Program Committee for Television and Radio has come up with a definition of educational television. It can be applied generally to distinguish programs so characterized from the rest of programs in the wide world of television:

Educational broadcasting for adults should be defined as those programs which aim at leading the adults to a progressive mastery of a body of knowledge or skill in a defined field and thus contribute to the development of the individual and to his better adaptation to a changing society.<sup>39</sup>

The EBU definition did not make an attempt to distinguish instructional television from educational television. Dr. I. Keith Tyler made it clear that instructional television is a part of educational television. He defined instructional television as "formal, orderly, sequential programs usually organized in courses of instruction."<sup>40</sup> In ITV, "programs are done in series, broadcast with regularity, and there is progressive building from one program to the next."<sup>41</sup>

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<sup>39</sup>Pihl, Bent, Educational Broadcasting Means Radio Too. EBU Review November 1968, p. 16.

<sup>40</sup>Tyler, I. Keith, "Educational and Instructional Television: Some Definitions." Two Ends of the Log, University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1958, pp. 22-23.

<sup>41</sup>Ibid.



Whether instructional television is used solely as total teaching, supplemented teaching with recitation sessions, or as enrichment programs for classroom instruction, it basically is more limited to a formal teacher-student learning situation. In Viet-Nam, instructional television can be used in schools as has been done in the United States to solve the problems of shortage of educational facilities and personnel. However, at the present time when the need to educate the masses is most pressing, Viet-Nam cannot afford to use an expensive medium as television solely for formal instruction of that nature, as it will reach too few people and will not serve the educational needs of the masses.

In discussing educational television, Dr. I. Keith Tyler went even further than the European Broadcasting Union to define it with more accuracy:

An educational television program is one broadcast for the purpose of attaining one or more educational objectives. More specifically, such a program is intended to inform, to develop concepts and understandings, to motivate interest and action, to develop skills and techniques, to heighten sensitivities and appreciations, to nurture convictions and values.<sup>42</sup>

Dr. Tyler's definition is quite significant in relation to the objectives of fundamental education discussed in Chapter I. The ultimate goal of fundamental education is "the development of the individual" and his "adaptation to a changing society." By being capable of changing with society, the individual has become a new person, who thus can help renew an obsolete society. The range of educational television as defined by Dr. Tyler will help broadcasters achieve this goal.

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<sup>42</sup> Tyler, I. Keith, Ibid., pp. 22-23.

Nowhere is society changing as fast as in developing societies today. They are transforming at breakneck speed. Without adequate education the world will pass them by. In the Honolulu Communication Conference in 1967, Max F. Millikan discussed the changes wrought by modern transportation and communication. According to him, man's image of his environment is shaped by his experiences. In the past his world has been limited in scope due to his lack of contact with the outside world. Modern communication is the key to widen man's horizon and thus to force him to live a fuller life. Millikan said:

Modern technology is beginning a transformation of a wholly different order. . . Much more profound has been the explosive extension of vicarious experience through the printed word, the radio, the motion picture.

If the new societies are to take advantage of their environment, their members must radically widen their perception of the choices they can make in their daily lives in ways for which their direct and inherited experiences give them no guidance whatsoever. The heart of this process lies in vicarious experience to which the key is modern communication.<sup>43</sup>

Indeed, television can bring vicarious experiences to remote villages where the light of progress is dim; to the urban masses who are too poor and too busy earning their bread to have time to go out of their way for the experience under normal condition. As a multiplier, television can be used to multiply resources of knowledge. Where change is involved in a process of implanting the idea of nationness and unity, television as a mass medium can at least establish a climate in which development can take place. It encourages participation and helps

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<sup>43</sup>Schramm, Wilbur, Communication and Change in the Developing Countries. East West Center Press, Honolulu, 1967, p. 4.

raise the aspiration of the people so that they will want a larger economy and a modernized society. When the idea of change is once implanted, television can be used to teach many new skills from literacy, to agriculture, to hygiene, to a more specialized skill, such as repairing a car.<sup>44</sup>

Among those who pioneered in the use of television as a mass educational tool, a Jesuit sociologist, Father Neil Hurley, shares his insight into the power of television in fundamental education in developing countries in this comment on the situation in Chile:

Television's finest educational possibilities at present seem to be at those levels where as yet there is no pedagogical tradition: the training of the illiterate and the unskilled. Here we are on virgin soil with no problems of reorienting educational philosophies, of displacing personnel, of rearranging curricula, and of coping with students caught in a transitional phase. Chile's 'revolution in liberty' will meet its acid test in the area of the underprivileged, who eagerly want to read and write, to learn a craft and vocational skills, who want to be incorporated into twentieth century life. It is precisely at this level where television can leap the literacy barrier and barriers of space and time to carry light into the darkness of the lower classes, and those in remote areas. This is where television can prove revolutionary by feeding the ravenous hunger for life, for vicarious experience, for moral examples, for inspiration, for emotional release, and for schooling.<sup>45</sup>

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<sup>44</sup> Lerner, Daniel, The Passing of Traditional Society. Glencoe, Illinois: Free Press, 1958, p. 348.

<sup>45</sup> Hurley, Neil S.J., Airborne Television and Universal Primary Education. Santiago, Chile, Centro de Investigacion y Accion Social, 1964, p. 4.



Whether it is being used in Chile or Viet-Nam, television is facing a challenge. To developing nations facing a staggering responsibility of preparing their people for a fuller life, television is offering a helpful hand. It can bring significant dimension to the modernization of Viet-Nam. The television tube is neutral; whether it will help Viet-Nam in building a new Viet-Nam or will create problems depends on how it is used. In the next chapter, we will take a look at Vietnamese broadcasting and examine what is currently being done in Viet-Nam and in other developing countries.

## CHAPTER III

### A GLANCE AT THE VIETNAMESE BROADCASTING SYSTEM

Broadcasting in Viet-Nam has always been a state monopoly. It is primarily used as a political tool, a spokesman for the government. Very little literature about the background of the Vietnamese broadcasting system is available in Viet-Nam or here at The Ohio State University. At the present time, due to the war, information about its operations can be secured by private citizens only with difficulty, because it is an unwritten rule among government officials that broadcasting operations must be kept classified to prevent sabotage from the enemy.

This chapter dealing with the Vietnamese broadcasting is based principally on information supplied by UNESCO. It will not attempt to look at the Vietnamese broadcasting from an historical point of view, but it will give a bird's eye view of existing conditions of broadcasting in Viet-Nam.

#### Radio

The Vietnamese National Broadcasting Service is controlled by the Ministry of Information. Broadcasting policy changes with the change

of government or with the reassignment of the Minister of Information. The Directors of Radio stations, and particularly Radio of Saigon, are politically assigned. Their assignment is not necessarily based on their qualifications as communication specialists, but rather, on their political affiliation.

Radio operations are in the main supported by funds allocated within the Ministry of Information. A few years ago radio was strictly non-commercial. Recently, commercial advertisements have been allowed on Radio of Saigon, which brings substantial additional financial resources to this fund. Commercials are subject to censorship and pre-view by officials in the Broadcasting Service to avoid commercial abuse of the public.

Four main stations in Saigon, Hue, Dalat and Nha Trang share seven medium-wave transmitters with a combined power of eleven kilowatts, and eleven short-wave transmitters with power totalling 150 kilowatts. There are several other provincial stations run by the regional information services such as stations in Da-Nang, Can Tho, Ba Xuyen. (See Appendix)

Each of these three regional stations broadcasts for seven and a half to eight and a half hours, in Vietnamese only. All are equipped with one medium-wave and one short-wave transmitter.

Radio of Saigon functions side by side with ARVN Radio whose broadcasts aim at the Vietnamese Armed Forces. It transmits programs in Vietnamese, English, French, Thai, Cambodian, Chinese. Programs in Vietnamese are on the air from twelve and a half to fourteen and a half hours a day. Programming mostly covers news, commentary, and a great



bulk of entertainment consisting of singing groups, classical romances and poetry reading. Programs on agriculture, civics, public health, and the like have not been adequately tapped. The decision to have commercials probably brings some more money to the small allocation given to the stations, and also lightens the programming load on the part of the broadcasting officials; however, it may hinder the development of educational broadcasting on Radio of Viet-Nam.

Radio receivers in Viet-Nam are subject to a license fee. Within a time span of nine years from 1951 to 1960, the number of receivers has multiplied six times. Statistics by UNESCO indicated nation-wide ownership of approximately 125,000 receivers in 1960 with a higher concentration of sets in urbanized areas. In the same year the Vietnamese population stood at a round-figure of fourteen million. The ratio of receivers per 100 persons was about 0.9. Since then, a new population census indicates the population in Viet-Nam has risen to the present figures of a little over seventeen million. From 26,000 receivers in 1953, the number of sets increased to one million receivers in 1964, and 1.3 million receivers in 1966.<sup>46</sup>

Despite this remarkable increase, Viet-Nam has not come up with UNESCO's measuring stick for development. The UNESCO general standard -- the so-called UNESCO "Minima" -- is ten daily newspaper copies, five radio receivers, two cinema seats, two television receivers for each 100 persons. Among Asian countries, Japan is probably the only developed country. Each 100 Japanese have 42 daily newspaper copies, sixteen

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<sup>46</sup>UNESCO, World Radio and TV. Paris, 1965.

radio receivers, four cinema seats and ten television sets. If compared to Japan, Viet-Nam falls far behind in this respect with only approximately one radio receiver, 2.8 newspaper copies, 0.6 cinema seats for each 100 persons. The ratio of television sets per 100 persons is not known at the present, but it can be said that it is at the lowest possible.

### Television

It was in 1966 that the Vietnamese people for the first time witnessed television. Although there had been talks about introducing television into Viet-Nam in the late 50's, it was merely speculation until February 7, 1966. This day marked the birthday of the first air-borne television in Viet-Nam. The first programs were made possible by three specially-configured U.S. Navy NC-121 Blue Eagle Super Constellations, flying high above South Viet-Nam, broadcasting programs in Vietnamese and English to the people and troops below. The first broadcast included speeches by then-premier Nguyen Cao Ky, U.S. Ambassador Henry Cabot Lodge, and General William C. Westmoreland.

"Project Jenny" as the operation is called, transmitted daily, on a regular basis, one hour of Vietnamese programs on one channel and three hours of American programs on another. The U.S. Agency for International Development contributed 500 television sets so that as many people as possible could view the programs. These sets were airlifted to Viet-Nam, and were installed in public squares, store windows, or other areas where large numbers of people could watch them.

In October 1966, the first ground station was open in Saigon. Project Jenny's flying network was no longer needed in that area. The

aircraft moved to more remote areas which the ground station could not reach.

Today, the four aircraft continue their broadcasting throughout the Republic of Viet-Nam, bringing the sights and sounds of the outside world into the huts of remote Vietnamese villagers and into the bases of Allied Forces fighting throughout Viet-Nam.

Vietnamese Television is 3 years old this year. From a sole ground station in Saigon in October 1966, Vietnamese Television has gradually expanded. In the Center of Viet-Nam, Hue and Qui Nhon each has a ground station, and another station is under construction in Can Tho, a delta province. Although those stations were built to meet the needs of Allied troops in the area, they can be a stepping stone toward the needed transmitters of the Vietnamese Broadcasting authority in the future peace time.

It can be said that in the beginning, television was brought into Viet-Nam for political reasons. The authorities who decided to establish television in Viet-Nam saw television as a means to bring the national cause to the communists and to rally the people for more solid support for the government. At the time the first television broadcast was put on the air, Vietnamese television had to depend heavily on American specialists, and agencies such as USIS. A lack of trained personnel and television specialists, such as producers and directors, is a natural phenomenon since there had not been any formal preparation to supply Vietnamese Television the kind of personnel it needed. At the beginning, the one-hour program comprised a short news report, and a presentation of various kinds of entertainment such as singing and dancing. After three years of operation, Vietnamese



Television has increased its broadcast time to three hours from 7p.m. to 10p.m. weekdays, and four hours from 7p.m. to 11p.m. on week-ends. Programming still relies heavily upon the musical. There is a nightly newscast, a jigger of propaganda, and a weekly quiz show designed for students with the remainder consisting of entertainment with songs and dances, and Vietnamese romances.

A typical weekend broadcast would run as follows: (all times p.m.)

Friday April 11, 1969

7:00 Station Identification. National Anthem  
 7:05 Agricultural Program  
 7:15 Children's film  
 7:20 Romance 'Nuoc Bien Mua Nguon'  
 8:00 News--Announcements  
 8:20 Romance (continued)  
 9:00 Newspaper Review--Commentary  
       Preview the next day's program  
 9:15 Romance (continued)  
 10:00 Station sign off. National Anthem

Saturday March 22, 1969

7:00 Station Identification. National Anthem  
 7:05 Child singing group, 'Hoa The He'  
 8:00 News--Announcements  
 8:20 Musical presentation by Van Phung group  
 9:00 Newspaper Review--Commentary  
       Preview the next day's program  
 9:15 Armed Forces Hour  
 10:15 Film  
 11:00 Sign off. National Anthem

Sunday April 13, 1969

7:00 Station sign on. National Anthem  
7:05 World's news  
7:15 Quiz  
8:00 News--Announcements  
8:20 Music for the young  
9:00 News commentary.  
Preview next week's program  
9:10 'Golden Music' Band  
10:00 Comedy by Thanh Hoai company  
11:00 Sign off. National Anthem

The program as a whole barely touches crucial subjects such as public health, traffic safety, civic responsibility, and so forth. Programs on the regional stations are not much different from those on the Saigon station, as the latter's programs are video-taped and flown from Saigon after being broadcast to the Saigon audience.

Under the present schedule of broadcasts, television facilities lie idle all day, and the prime time broadcasts are not being used to the fullest extent for educational purpose.

No research has been done as to the extent of set ownership. However, considering the economic conditions of the Vietnamese as a whole, it is not too risky to state that the handful of existing TV sets are not evenly distributed. They are owned by well-to-do people and are mostly concentrated in urbanized areas. The cost of a television set -- approximately \$300.00 as compared to the yearly capita income of \$66.00 -- is a prohibitive element in the increase of individual set ownership. However, public TV sets placed in market

places, town halls, and schools, attract a considerable audience. Group viewing may well constitute a source of information and thus help to bring a new outlook to the Vietnamese.

In making an assessment of similar situations in developing countries, UNESCO experts strongly urge the use of television as an educational tool:

The number of families able to make this purchase may be small. Most of the viewing is likely to be in public places. This, as we have said, implies school use, adult centre use, viewing groups, public sets, and so forth. Use of this kind seems to call for a practical and serious kinds of programming rather than the entertainment service which is more typical of television in advanced countries.

There is little doubt of television's effectiveness in a public affairs and instructional context. . . One or two hours a day is a wasteful use of such an expensive tool as television.<sup>47</sup>

Indeed, television is terribly expensive for the Vietnamese economy. However, it has been proved that the overhead cost will decrease proportionally with the increase of audience. It will be well for the Vietnamese to heed this observation by the UNESCO experts, and to begin thinking seriously about using the potential of television to the fullest extent for the development of Viet-Nam.

The application of television as a means of development has been tested extensively in several other developing countries. In order to avoid wasteful mistakes committed by pioneers in the use of educational

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<sup>47</sup>Schramm, Wilbur L., The Role of Information in National Development. UNESCO, Paris, 1964, p. 45.



television, it will be useful for Viet-Nam to look at what these countries have been doing with television, and consequently to derive valuable lessons from their undertakings.

## CHAPTER IV

### EDUCATIONAL TELEVISION IN SELECTED DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

It is a commonplace today that economic and social progress goes hand in hand with development of the information media. Progress is greatly needed in South East Asia but it is deprived of the potent and indispensable aid of the means of communication. The Meeting on Development of Information Media in South East Asia held in Bangkok from 18 to 29 January 1960 was an expression of concern of the United Nations about the importance of the mass media in national development in this area. In his inaugural speech to the conference, Dr. Vittorino Veronese, Director General of UNESCO, emphasized the role of the mass media in the development of South East Asia, and in "the realization of its hopes for better life and individual development." He said to Asian broadcasters and educators at the meeting:

Your task is to work creatively and translate your hopes into reality by drawing up a coherent and concrete draft programme for the development of information media in this region.<sup>48</sup>

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<sup>48</sup>UNESCO, Developing Mass Media in Asia. Reports and Papers on Mass Communications No. 30. UNESCO, Paris, 1960, p. 7

This initiative was boosted by later international conferences such as the two conferences on school broadcasting sponsored by the European Broadcasting Union in Rome in 1961 and in Tokyo in 1964. These conferences offered Asian and African delegates an opportunity to watch "live models" of European and Japanese school broadcasting. Since then, educators in a score of developing countries have taken initial steps toward utilizing television as a teaching tool.

Latin America is credited with the earliest experimentation in the use of educational television in developing countries. In the UNESCO Regional Seminar on educational television held in Mexico City in 1964, most of the 17 countries in attendance reported that their ETV plans were beginning to move beyond wishful thinking to active operations. Some South American countries have found ETV an effective tool in solving educational problems.

In Colombia, after observing the Italian "Telescuola" project, Colombian educators inaugurated an experimental project in 1961, following the pattern of Telescuola. It was assisted by the Alliance for Progress. Through this organization, the U.S. supplied equipment including sets to be placed in rural schools. The Peace Corps sent 90 American TV technicians and program directors to work with the Colombian Ministry of Education and the national network in planning and carrying out ETV programs. By 1965 ETV helped accommodate 400,000 children whereas without television, the existing educational facilities could take only 40 percent of school age children, and the system was in need of 30,000 primary school teachers.



The success of ETV in Colombia was due to several factors. First of all, the Colombia network covers 85 percent of the country and thus makes the dissemination of such broadcasts possible on a wide scale. Secondly, Colombia was fortunate to be able to obtain useful assistance from foreign specialists. All this would not have amounted to very much if local educators and broadcasters had not had a realistic idea of ETV's opportunities and limitations. The Colombia educational authorities were aware of what was needed and was able to proceed accordingly, thus giving the project a better chance for success.

Other South American countries followed suit. Argentina began in 1963 an interesting project providing direct instruction for drop-outs, or for students in remote areas. No age limit was set. It was noted that half of the students watching the first series of the course were over 30, fourteen percent of the viewers were 70 years of age or older.

The project was designed to broadcast three hours a day offering electrical mechanics for men, and fashion design for women. These programs were supplemented by regular high school lessons in literature, English, Mathematics, and Spanish. By the end of the year, the programs attracted about 600,000 look in viewers. The fact that the programs drew such a vast variety of viewers proves that people in developing countries have a tremendous eagerness for learning, especially when the thing taught is related to their interests. The project has since been placed on a permanent basis to bring more information and new knowledge to the Argentina mass.

Besides Colombia and Argentina, extensive ETV projects are also being carried out in Chile and Peru.

Across the Atlantic Ocean to the Middle East, we find that ETV was inaugurated in 1960 with Egypt taking the strongest lead in encouraging ETV. Cairo Television has emphasized both child and adult education in a heavy schedule of enrichment and how-to-do-it series. This was expanded in 1963 to include a separate third channel solely for ETV programming.

In South East Asia, some countries have carried out extensive educational projects on radio and television. As television is an expensive medium for the poor economy of South East Asia, it is noticeable that radio is more often used than television. But even with radio the medium is not fully used for educational purpose. In the Bangkok Meeting on Radio and Television in the Service of Education and Development in 1966, the UNESCO reporter on the meeting came to this observation:

. . .It would appear that in none of the Asian countries are the majority of programme hours aimed at promoting social and economic development and the expansion and improvement of the educational system.<sup>49</sup>

The only developing Asian country where ETV has seriously been considered is the Philippines. The Philipino National Science Development Board sponsored the first Asian experiment in college level direct instructions by television in 1961. The experiment proved to be successful enough to encourage planning for wider use of instructional television. A local university in the Philippines, the Ateneo de Manila, was the first in Asia to open a graduate level institute which trains educators in the use of television and other audiovisual devices as teaching tools. The usefulness of television as an educational

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<sup>49</sup>UNESCO, Radio and Television in the Service of Education and Development in Asia. Reports and Papers on Mass Communication No.49. UNESCO, Paris, 1965, p. 9

medium got considerable attention from educators. In 1964, the Metropolitan Educational Television Association (META) was founded. It is a consortium of Philipino and American organizations in Manila whose "purpose is to utilize available daytime facilities of local TV stations for direct classroom broadcasting."<sup>50</sup>

Besides the Philippines, Singapore is trying its hands at television. It has two new studios at the Teachers' Training College whose purpose is to originate closed-circuit transmissions as part of the teacher training program and to record school programs to be transmitted via Television Singapore.

It should be brought to the reader's attention that most, if not all, of those attempts at the educational application of television have been aimed at school broadcasting for the school population, and closed-circuit instructional television. Although school broadcasting is admittedly an important part, the use of the broadcasting media for it alone is a luxury that a developing country can seldom afford. Yet, as it was pointed out earlier, fundamental education for the masses has not been seriously dealt with via radio and television despite its importance in national development. In this field the application of television to better the lives of millions of people in Asia is still in an experimental stage. UNESCO has constantly expressed its interest in the development of the mass media on this continent by encouraging their growth through holding sponsored conferences and providing technical assistance. In the last few years UNESCO has supported a number of significant

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<sup>50</sup> Dizard, Wilson, op. cit., p. 238.



experiments in the use of television in social education such as the Japanese project on Rural Education in 1956. Other projects are the Indian project in 1960 and the Senegalese project in Dakar in 1965. The last two deal with rural-urbanized areas, "large cities in developing countries. . . which are subject to a steady influx of rural elements who abandon the land," as the Senegalese experimenters defined their experimental area. Although the three projects span two continents, a look at them will be of relevance and significance with reference to similar application in Viet-Nam.

It would be indeed incomplete to assess the status of educational television in Asia without having a look at Japanese television and its contributions to education.

Japanese Broadcasting Law classifies a station that devotes 30 percent or more of its time to educational and cultural programs as a general service station. A semi-educational station must spend 20 percent or more of its time on educational programs, 30 percent or more on cultural programs. A station which devotes 50 percent or more of its time to educational broadcasting, 30 percent or more of its time to cultural programs is termed an educational station. Japanese broadcasters and educators distinguish two kinds of educational programs: school broadcasting and broadcasting for social education. Although school broadcasting, being curriculum-oriented and institutionalized in nature, plays an important part in the use of television in education, our main concern here will be with social educational broadcasting.

Social broadcasting in Japan is defined as dealing with subjects not included in the school curriculum. It is designed to help the

individual in his adjustment to the present concrete society in which he is fully incorporated. The educator working in this kind of broadcasting is not necessarily a professional. The content of social broadcasting deals with "any instructive subject, and is presented in a systematic and continuous manner." In a broader scale are cultural programs which aim at the general public and embrace any subject that will enrich human life such as literature, drama, music, art, and handicraft. A look at Japan's social broadcasting may help Viet-Nam derive some lessons in its future attempts to use television in fundamental education.

Japanese ETV, mainly under the administration of NHK, was inaugurated in 1959, and its growth has been steady. Today, the Educational Network covers 87 percent of the total area of Japan. Besides school broadcasting and correspondence courses, the Japanese TV educational programs range from foreign languages to occupational skills, and includes programs broadcast to women which aim to elevate their level of interest. As a rule, Japanese programs bring up problems inherent in Japanese life, but they do not present conclusions or ready-made solutions. Rather they are constructed to stimulate discussions which ultimately leave the decision making to the viewers. Teleclubs have proved to be a part of the success of educational programs.<sup>51</sup> In the realization of present Japanese educational TV programs and in the organization of teleclubs, Japanese broadcasters learned a great deal from the pilot project made a few years prior to the opening of educational television in Japan.

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<sup>51</sup>De Vera, Jose Maria, Educational Television in Japan. Tokyo, 1967, pp. 33-54.

In 1956 under the auspices of UNESCO, Japan experimented with a series of television programs for rural audiences. The research experiment, prompted by the success of a French pilot project the previous year involving collective viewing of television programs in rural districts, was conducted over a period of about one year in 64 test villages.

The series entitled "Farming Village in Progress" consisted of thirteen weekly broadcasts beginning in January, 1957. It was agreed that in order to be effective, they should be produced with the emphasis upon practical usefulness. The programs were in the form of documentary drama and dealt with basic questions in rural districts, namely:

1. The Life of Japanese Farmers
2. Why Do Girls Dislike Marrying Farmers?
3. Where Should the Farmer's Second and Third Sons Go?
4. Crooked Back and Stiffened Fingers (discusses the problem of overwork of Farmers.)
5. Mechanization of Agriculture
6. Land Improvement Part I
7. Land Improvement Part II
8. Struggle Against Noxious Insects
9. Visiting a Dairy Farmer
10. The Development of Dairy Farming
11. How to Improve Japanese Farmer's Conditions
12. Ten Years of Cultivation
13. Agricultural Village of Tomorrow

The teleclub members were expected to discuss the issue presented in the telecast in order to find an answer for themselves, and they did with enthusiasm.



The project led to the creation and popularization of teleclubs in Japan, and particularly it supplied some useful suggestions to television producers for the future production of ETV programs of this nature.

It was concluded that in programming, the entertainment element, which attracts the general public, should not be ignored.

. . .to be well received by an audience, cultural and educational programmes must necessarily contain an element of entertainment and recreation that can produce a strong emotional effect.<sup>52</sup>

Even if the entertainment element of television is emphasized, not any kind of entertainment is acceptable. It must not be a superficial kind of entertainment and recreation, but a type closely tied up with cultural and educational values.

The kind of programs preferred by the Japanese villagers confirmed the fact that viewers are interested in entertainment and recreation. The following preferences are listed in order of interest:

1. One that caters to the need for entertainment and recreation
2. One that provides occupational knowledge
3. One that will be useful to family life
4. One that provides information about happenings outside the village
5. One that offers theatrical or literary interest
6. One that gives scientific knowledge<sup>53</sup>

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<sup>52</sup>UNESCO, Rural Television in Japan. Paris, 1960, p. 170.

<sup>53</sup>UNESCO, Ibid., p. 170.

The teleclubs were thought to influence future activity by helping farmers discover and create new attitudes toward television programs - finding pleasure in educational and cultural matters.

The Indian project of social education through television was put on the air in New Delhi, aimed at viewing groups and teleclubs in the city and surrounding area. Under UNESCO sponsorship, all India Radio began the first program on December 23, 1960. Every Friday from 7:30 p.m. to 8:00 p.m. members of 71 teleclubs got together to watch a half-hour program on "Responsibilities of Citizenship." Five main issues of practical value were selected for the programs:

1. Traffic and Road Sense
2. Dangers to Community Health
3. Adulteration of Foodstuff
4. Encroachment on Public Property
5. Manner of a Citizen

Immediately after viewing each program, the teleclub members discussed the issues raised in the program under the guidance of a teleclub monitor. They freely expressed their views and the monitor recorded the proceedings and sent a report to the TV Unit of AIR for evaluation.

The objectives of the programs were threefold. First, it sought to communicate some new information, facts and figures on the topic chosen in order to lead to a distinct increase in the knowledge and information of the members of the teleclubs. Second, it tried to influence the attitudes of the teleclub members toward issues brought up in the programs. And third, it suggested directions in which groups and individuals alike could take action or mould their ways of life. It was hoped that members would also organize some follow-up activities to influence

their friends and neighbors. The broadcast series was received with enthusiasm by viewers as indicated by the amount of mail as well as by the number of questions and suggestions which poured into the AIR TV office.

The success of Social Education Through Television was not only due to the fact that the series was broadcast to more or less homogeneous groups -- the teleclubs -- but also due to the amount of hard work the AIR TV staff put into the realization of the project.

It was found that educational programs broadcast to more or less homogeneous groups bring better results because the members feel more relaxed to discuss the issues in the programs. This is especially true in India where the caste system is rigid. Also, a change in practice or attitude may be more easily enforced if it is suggested and agreed upon by the group through listening and discussion.

The approach to programming used by the staff was one important factor in the success of the series. Great care was taken in the process of program planning. It was emphasized that the target of each program should be indicated clearly so as to avoid the risk of the program becoming too general. Before a program was written, close co-operation by and consultation with authorities on related subjects were sought. Each program planning sheet was divided into two parts:

1. Statement of educational content proposed for the particular series.
2. Suggested forms in which this content could be presented. These ranged from information to attitude, or behavior, or group activities. These were looked upon as guidelines and not as restrictions to the



script writer. Each program was outlined and the story element to be emphasized was decided upon. Programs included on-the-spot materials, visual, films, dramatization, and informal narration. The information was not conveyed by a teacher-student approach, but through dialogue of the characters. Capitalizing on the people's liking for story telling and drama, a story element or dialogue with dramatic interest was used to enhance appeal. However, as the audience became more discriminating, the use of make-believe, and exaggeration began to be rejected.

The Indian project arrived at some interesting observations related to programming and audience behavior. Programs in understandable forms stimulate the viewers' interest and induced them to engage eagerly in discussion. Such participation by the listeners brought about a substantial increase in the educational value of these broadcasts for adults.

A broadcast that is used as the starting point of a discussion imparts far more information and carries a stronger impact upon attitudes and behavior than broadcasts that are simply listened to.<sup>54</sup>

Listening, discussion and reporting makes broadcasting a two-way process, thus "mitigating the benumbing influence which mass media may have on the individuality of the listeners." Moreover, this kind of group stimulates free discussion, which is an essential part of democratic achievement, and encourages initiative and collective action in local affairs. (Note that the Japanese project had a similar finding). Discussion groups can eventually become decision making bodies which can contribute to the communal effort toward economic progress.

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<sup>54</sup> UNESCO, Social Education Through Television, Reports and Papers on Mass Communications, No. 38, Paris, UNESCO, p. 8.

Across the Asiatic continent, in the African setting, the Dakar project started on November 1965, aiming at 500 women in 10 teleclubs set up in different working class districts in and around Dakar, Senegal. These districts were a vast built-up area containing nearly a half million inhabitants. The break down of the components of the groups was as follows:

80 percent of the women have no outside occupation

Over half are between the ages of 16 and 25

A third are unmarried

Over a fourth have five or more children

More than three-fourths have no income and do not even know their husband's income.

Here television was tested as a medium for adult education in urban conditions.

The teleclubs were originally organized by social service officials. Later, the women themselves gradually took over the responsibility for the meetings. They met twice every week to watch and discuss two programs, one on hygiene and illnesses, the other on nutrition. Programs were basically dramatic documentaries with film and various audio-visual aids. It was noted that whatever the nature of the programs, simplicity and clarity must followed in writing and producing them. The broadcast on tuberculosis, for example, failed to convinced the women that tuberculosis was caused by the TB bacillus. This appeared to be a problem of teaching technique: how could the elements of Pasteur's microbiology be conveyed to women who were mostly illiterate?

A pre-television and post-television survey of attitudes toward illnesses, hygiene, and food were employed to discover any changes of

attitudes under the influence of these television educational programs. No mention was made in the report as to whether the women were aware of the fact that they were participating in an experiment which might have created a Hawthorne effect on the results. However, the results were quite positive.

The women's attitudes toward illnesses improved improved a great deal. Before the telecasts, everybody knew about malaria, but its cause and mode of transmission were not known by most of the women. Post-television tests showed an increase in knowledge of the correct explanation from 41 percent to 70 percent.

About dysentery, the majority was ignorant of the cause. After the program, three-fourths of the members ascribed the illness to an intestinal parasite. Fifty-nine percent of the women understood the cause of tuberculosis after the telecast, as compared to 30 percent before.

Concerning hygiene, "many women said that their home habits had changed as a result of their television experience and that they were now much more careful about the cleanliness of their houses and their children."<sup>55</sup>

Despite the persuasive power of television, it is not without limitations. The Dakar experiment pointed out the fact that "the persuasive powers of television are not unlimited, especially if it clashes with every day experiences." Supporting evidence was the failure of the program to encourage the women to substitute couscous of millet for rice.

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<sup>55</sup> UNESCO, Television and the Social Education of Women, Reports and Papers on Mass Communication, No. 50, UNESCO, Paris, p. 15.



Rice has been in use for a long time; it is easy to make while millet is more complicated and time-consuming to prepare. The program, therefore, brought no significant change.

Even when the idea of change is disseminated and accepted through discussions, many people were not able to apply the advice, mostly due to lack of money. This finding is valuable for social broadcasters. They should be aware that broadcasting needs to be combined with other efforts in national planning in order that the change advocated by the broadcasts can be realistically brought about according to local economic conditions.

The Dakar experience indicates that in producing programs, producers will have to bear in mind that each type of audience has its own interests. Thus, the women viewers in the experiment chose women's interest such as child rearing, family life and the like. When such an interest is tapped, and the broadcast is received by a group of viewers of the same status, the impact can be more impressive:

Education through mass media is more effective if it is addressed to a homogeneous audience and meets specific needs.<sup>56</sup>

It was remarkable that the broadcasts made African women aware of their inferior status and caused them to think about emancipation. Educational television thus can help bring to the surface problems that are latent in a social system.

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<sup>56</sup> UNESCO, Television and the Social Education of Women. Reports and Papers on Mass Communications, No, 50, UNESCO, Paris, pp. 33-34.



Educational television does not create new social problems but heightens the awareness of the new exigencies in periods of transitions. Properly used and planned it can be a potent factor in national development.<sup>57</sup>

Television is proving its effectiveness as a medium of adult education in urban conditions. The Dakar experimenters summed up the importance of projects of similar nature:

The practical demonstration of how television, combined with adult education activities at the local level, can transform the mentality and habits of, for example, illiterate women, should be of far-reaching significance in relation to the methods to be used in urban adult education.<sup>58</sup>

Indeed the experiences that the pioneers in education television have gone through will contribute to the knowledge of educational planners in their attempt to use television to enlighten and enrich the lives of their people.

In the next chapter we will discuss a strategy for the development of educational television for fundamental education in Viet-Nam.

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<sup>57</sup> UNESCO, Ibid., pp. 33-34.

<sup>58</sup> UNESCO, Ibid., p. 16.

## CHAPTER V

### A GUIDE FOR TELEVISION PROGRAMMING IN FUNDAMENTAL EDUCATION IN VIET-NAM

More than a quarter of a century of war has brought the Vietnamese into contact with so much misery, so many unhappy experiences that to them peace is a miracle that can heal everything. However, the fact is that although peace will alleviate the sufferings caused by this raging war, it will at the same time bring Viet-Nam face to face with a tremendous problem of national reconstruction. An effective reconstruction will only result from careful war-time as well as post-war planning to rebuild Viet-Nam and to give it a new elan to march toward progress. In Saigon, a Study Committee on Post-War Economy headed by Professor Vu Quac Thuc has already been established to study areas of economic reconstruction when the war is over. When talking of national reconstruction, one should not see it as merely the rebuilding of a sick economy, the restoration and reseedling of half a million acres of defoliated and burned forest, but also social reconstruction which will bring to the war-weary, uprooted Vietnamese people a new outlook on life. John Balaban, a former International Voluntary Service worker in Viet-Nam,

now a professor at Pennsylvania State University, sees a tremendous task to be assumed by the Vietnamese authorities in this area now and in the future. He writes:

Whatever the dominant theory of the government which will come into power in South Viet-Nam when peace is achieved, it will be faced with the immediate problem of reconstructing a country crippled by a long and disastrous war. The government's immediate and long-term goal will be a healthy and self-sufficient people.<sup>59</sup>

Viet-Nam is a society-in-a-hurry with a unique problem. It has to fight a destructive ideological war on one side and a war against poverty and ignorance on the other. Considering the limited resources Viet-Nam has at the present, the task of bringing about a "healthy and self-sufficient people" is staggering. As was pointed out earlier, Viet-Nam is attempting to achieve in a short time what was the product of centuries of work in the older and more stabilized societies. The contributions of the mass media have been discussed and identified as essential in the needed accelerated education of the masses.

This chapter will discuss how television can be used in spreading fundamental education to facilitate national development both from a theoretical and an organizational point of view.

#### Some Sociological and Psychological Implications Underlying Programming Effectiveness

Research on mass communications has been going on for several decades. Yet there has been little effort to synthesize the various

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<sup>59</sup> Balaban, John, "Areas of National Reconstruction for Viet-Nam." Chuong Viet, No. 159, The Vietnamese Catholic Students Association in America, Spring, 1969, p. 70.



findings and to formulate guidelines to the specific approaches the broadcaster-educator in fundamental education should choose in order to reach his audience with effectiveness. As his goal is to engineer change, his success will partly be affected by his understanding of the process of change and of audience behavior.

In an attempt to synthesize various findings regarding the process of diffusion of innovations, Everett M. Rogers went through hundreds of studies in the art of spreading ideas, available in the United States and in Europe. He came up with several generalizations that could be of value here.

According to Rogers and other researchers, in this field, an understanding of the adopting process is important to bring about change. This process may be arbitrarily broken down into stages for conceptual purposes: awareness, interest, evaluation, trial and adoption.

In the awareness stage, the individual is aware of the innovation but he is not yet motivated to seek further information. Rogers found that in Hassinger's study, it was emphasized that information about new ideas often did not create awareness, even though the individual might have been exposed to this information. It was when he had a problem or a need that the innovation promised to solve that he began to pay attention to it.

In the interest stage, the individual becomes interested in the new idea and he seeks information about it. He becomes psychologically more involved in this stage.

The evaluation stage is when the individual mentally applies the innovation to his present and anticipated future situation, and then

makes a decision, This is the least distinct among the five stages, and the most difficult to measure empirically. Yet, in this stage, information and advice from peers seems to play an important role. The individual needs reinforcement. Rogers pointed out why the messages carried by the mass media could fail at this stage:

Mass communications transmit messages that are too general to provide reinforcement to the individual at the evaluation stage.<sup>60</sup>

After evaluating the situation, the individual comes to the trial stage. He begins to experiment with the new idea on a small scale in his own situation. American farmers, for example, when convinced of the success of growing hybrid corn by their community experiment, insisted on personal experimentation before they adopted it completely.

Finally, the individual enters the adoption stage. Now he begins to integrate the new innovation into his daily routine and it gradually becomes a part of his way of life.

Based on their understanding of learning theory and of the process of adoption, various research workers studied the diffusion of innovations in a social context. Rogers summarized the major conclusions of what is now known about the spread of ideas. Several of them are of relevance to our own purpose in this thesis:

1. Impersonal information sources are most important at the awareness stage, and personal sources are most important at the evaluation stage.

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<sup>60</sup> Rogers, M. Everett, Diffusion of Innovations. The Free Press, New York, 1962, p. 76-118.

2. Cosmopolite information sources are most important at the awareness stage, and local information sources are most important at the evaluation stage.

3. Earlier adopters try innovations on a smaller scale than later adopters.

3. The relative advantages of a new idea, as perceived by members of a social systems, affects its rate of adoption.

5. The compatibility of a new idea, as perceived by members of a social system, affects its rate of adoption.

6. Earlier adopters are younger in age than later adopters.

7. Earlier adopters have more opinion leadership than later adopters.

8. Innovators are perceived as deviants by other members of their social system.

9. Personal influence from peers is more important for relatively later adopters than for earlier adopters.<sup>61</sup>

Whenever the educator-broadcaster considers the problem of dissemination of information, he is confronted with a well-established fact: the audience's self-selection of program. Festinger in another synthesis study quoted Klapper as saying:

. . . This phenomenon of self-selection might well be called the most basic process thus far established by research on the effects of mass media. Operative in regard to intellectual or aesthetic level of the material, its political tenor, or any of a dozen other aspects, the process of self-selection works toward two manifestations of the same end: every product of mass media (1) attracts an audience which already prefers that particular type of material, and (2) fails to attract any significant number of persons

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<sup>61</sup> Rogers, M. Everett, Ibid., pp. 311-314.



who are either of contrary inclination or have been hitherto uninterested.<sup>62</sup>

So, the selective behavior of the audience will be a point to take into consideration in program planning. Festinger further discussed cognitive balance and dissonance as related to attitude change. Dissonance in the layman's term is "inconsistency." He argues that every person strives for equilibrium between his belief and his action.

"Cognitive dissonance can be seen as an antecedent condition which leads to activity oriented toward dissonance reduction just as hunger leads to activity oriented toward hunger reduction.

Festinger found that the role of the group could be a decisive factor in the reduction of dissonance and the change of attitude or behavior. Among other supporting studies, he cited an experiment during the last war which was designed to persuade housewives in six women's groups to increase their use of glandular meats. Only three percent of the women went ahead to use it. Later, the program was integrated with group discussion, with a decision made by the groups. The percentage increased considerably to thirty-two percent. From his search into the various findings of studies in behavioral change, Festinger drew these conclusions:

1. After a group decision, there is more change of behavior than after a persuasive lecture.<sup>63</sup>
2. In the presence of dissonance, a person frequently will attempt to obtain social support for the opinion he wishes to maintain.

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<sup>62</sup>Festinger, Leon, A Theory of Cognitive Dissonance. Stanford University Press, Stanford, California, 1957, pp. 138-139.

<sup>63</sup>Festinger, Leon, Ibid., p. 78.

3. It is clear that "since the dissonance created by. . .disagreement is greater when the groups are more attractive and when the opinion is relevant to the group, one would expect more change of opinion in such groups than in others."<sup>64</sup>

As to the persuasive power of the mass media on change, Festinger found it closely related to the contents and approach of the broadcast:

1. The messages carried via the mass media seldom are strong enough to create a complete about-face change on an opinion an individual holds. More often the direct impact is to create some doubts in his mind.

2. The mass media may be expected to be most effective under circumstances where there is something to prevent the ready reduction of the dissonance which is created by the exposure to these media.

3. The mass media tend to be more effective with respect to content about which people do not talk readily than with respect to content which is frequently the subject of discussion. Similarly, the mass media are more effective with persons who are relatively isolated socially than with persons who have many social contacts.<sup>65</sup>

The awareness of findings related to the dissemination of information and change is one of the conditions of communication effectiveness. However, theory is not a sufficient condition. The educator-broadcaster also must have an understanding of the local culture and the mentality of the Vietnamese. Without underestimating the intelligence of the audience who receive the programs in fundamental education, the Vietnamese educator will have to bear in mind that programs for

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<sup>64</sup>Festinger, Leon, Ibid., p. 191-192.

<sup>65</sup>Festinger, Leon, Ibid., pp. 231-232.

modernization purposes aiming at the out-of-school population must be a kind of simple adult conversation. They must be understandable, in terms of the experience, symbol system and frame of reference of intended audience. They must make clear the why and the how.<sup>66</sup>

The kind of change television is to carry out must be suitable to local conditions. For example, it would not be practical to advocate the use of tractors in the Vietnamese rice paddies at the present time. For one thing, the small plots divided by dikes in the Vietnamese farming areas are not suitable for them.

In shaping the programs, the educator-broadcaster must find a point of contact - something within the experience of the audience which will lead them from the known to the unknown. To explain the ocean to an audience which has never seen one, the program can be linked with their daily experience with the village stream, the river and then the ocean.

When the programs are written, the broadcaster must identify who the audience is, so that appropriate approaches can be used. The programs aiming at change can only have effect when they can reach the person or persons who are able to decide on change. In the northern region of Nigeria, films were shown to try to persuade the people to use boiled water. But no results were obtained. It turned out to be that the Moslem women in the area were in charge of cooking and housework. It was the men who watched the films. So, programs must not only be aimed at an audience which can enforce change, but the planner of change will have to see to it that the programs actually reach them.

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<sup>66</sup>Schramm, Wilbur, Communication and Change in the Developing Countries, East West Center, University Press, Honolulu, 1967, p. 22.



Repetition and credibility are the key words to effective programming. A program has to be real to life, believable and understandable to the simple minds of the masses. After a point is made, it should be recapitulated later on in the program. The audience must be encouraged and given a chance to engage in two-way communication through group discussion, through communication with the TV programmers by means of a question-answer period in the broadcast, or through correspondence.

The last and not least important step is that a series of programs aiming at a specific change must be carried out in parallel with other efforts in national planning. This will prepare the viewers for a chance to observe demonstrations and to practice the proposed change. The "Miracle Rice" in Viet-Nam is a case in point. Its production rate is several times higher than the rice species generally grown in Viet-Nam. But its introduction was met with strong resistance due to the fact that the farmers were not well-informed and agricultural extension efforts were not coordinated. If a new behavior is to be learned, it must be clearly demonstrated and then practiced.

We have discussed theoretical conditions which act as guidelines for effective programming in fundamental education. Next let us examine the application of television techniques to the objectives of fundamental education as described in the UNESCO Monographs on the subject.

#### Vietnamese Television in Fundamental Education

It was noted in Chapter III that programming of Vietnamese Television is seriously in need of a revision and new approach in order for it to play a more significant and worthwhile role in the process of national

development. The Vietnamese planner must understand that to achieve the educational goals represented by the scope of fundamental education, good television broadcasting is important. De Vera quoted the Pilkington Report as suggesting that good television broadcasting comprises three elements among which is quality of approach and presentation:

First, programme planning and content must respect the right of the public to choose from among the widest possible range of subject matter. Second, in every part of this wide range of subject matter, there must be a high quality of approach and presentation. Last, and by no means least, it is of overriding importance that those who handle so powerful a medium must be animated by a sense of its power to influence values and moral standards and of its capacity for enriching the lives of all of us.<sup>67</sup>

A respect for learning and a thirst for knowledge has been innate among the Vietnamese people for generations. Their desire to learn coupled with their enthusiasm for the new TV medium should make it possible to include a larger number of direct instruction programs than in more advanced countries. However, there is a risk of a "taste of education becoming jaded by a surfeit" as William Grenfell observed. He said:

A service which has as its main object the fundamental education of people in an underdeveloped area should have as its three main functions, information, education and entertainment in that order.<sup>68</sup>

How should the Vietnamese TV planner apply the medium in the dissemination of fundamental education?

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<sup>67</sup>De Vera, Jose Maria, Educational Television in Japan, Tokyo, 1968, p. 130.

<sup>68</sup>Williams, Grenfell J., Radio in Fundamental Education in Underdeveloped Areas, UNESCO, Paris, 1953, p. 15.

1. Skills of thinking and communicating (reading and writing, speaking, listening and calculation.)

Stimulation of thought is the key task in this area if the programs are to be educational. Apart from pure entertainment, programs should be designed in such a way as not to provide a ready-made answer to any problem presented in the telecast. They should lead the viewers to a decision of their own. Techniques such as drama, social satire, quiz and discussions with documentaries on subjects of interest to the intended audience can be thought-provoking. The illiterate masses are not innately incapable of thinking; due to their limited horizons, they need guidance to learn the art of thinking.

Programs that show the masses the advantages of a knowledge of simple arithmetic calculations, and of literacy can create an intense interest and an atmosphere for learning.

The Vietnamese language can be used as a factor in creating national unity. Viet-Nam is unique in the South East Asia areas in that one language is spoken throughout the entire country. Television programs on the correct usage of the language, its beauty and richness should be disseminated to the masses. They can be presented in the form of folk singing to emphasize the poetic inclination of the Vietnamese rural population. This will re-establish a pride in the wealth of the Vietnamese folk literature and give the people an insight into the one-ness of Viet-Nam. Consequently, this kind of program will help bring the Vietnamese together and will undoubtedly stimulate their desire for literacy.



The teaching of reading, writing and calculation is necessarily a visual matter, and it appears that television can be a boon to teach millions of people literacy and related skills. Despite the potential of television in the eradication of illiteracy, it is of vital importance that television programs be well co-ordinated with the efforts of other literacy agencies such as the Adult Education Office and the Popular Education Center. Besides basic literacy courses, there is no reason why elementary readings or elementary use of figures and calculations should not be worked out for broadcasting to those who dropped out of school before their literacy reached an acceptable level.

Parallel with broadcasts oriented toward the illiterate masses, there should be adequate provision for TV training for people involved in the campaign such as a training program for TV monitors who work closely with the illiterate.

Reinforcement for literacy and other skills can be done with the cooperation of the office of Adult Education, literacy organizations, and local Adult Education Centers. Printed materials specially prepared for new literates should be distributed. And the award of certificates to new literates as well as contests in various skills will be an encouragement for them to try harder and for others to want to learn.

2. Vocational skills (such as agriculture and husbandry, building, weaving and other useful crafts and simple technical and commercial skills necessary for human progress).

In this area television is more powerful than ever as it can demonstrate visually. The planner in Viet-Nam will have to contact different ministries such as the Ministry of Agriculture, the National Industrial

Center, the Handicraft Bureau to get their cooperation to create realistic programs.

While the war is still going on, television can direct its efforts to the population behind the lines such as the women, the widowed mothers, and young people. The Vietnamese women, for example, are usually very talented and skillful in handicraft. Programs to teach them handicraft can be set up. Television can help many unskilled workers learn a trade to earn their living. In addition, activities in different regions involving several branches of handicraft and the progress being made can be presented to the audience. Thus these workers would no longer feel so isolated from each other.

The number of handicapped people as victims of the war is increasing every day. A project designed with the cooperation of the Vocational Training Center and the Rehabilitation Office can be of great value. Some day the war will be over. Television will have to increase its broadcast time to help solve the problem of teaching new skills to an ever-increasing number of disabled people. It might be worth trying to teach simple skills such as the making of household furniture and similar items, and in later stages, mechanical skills.

As Viet-Nam is basically agricultural, agriculture should have high priority. They will need to be planned with the coordination of the Agricultural Extension Office so that the needs of farmers will be adequately met. They can deal with the promotion of new agricultural methods, with rural public hygiene, with teaching rural children how to make simple things with their hands. They can broaden the farmer's horizon with documentaries on the farmer's life in other villages or in

other countries. They can present problems existent in the villages to bring the farmers to an awareness of these realities in their lives. All this will arouse in them a desire for progress. However, it should be noted that programs should be written within the reference frame of local conditions of the Vietnamese farmers so that if change is promoted, they cannot just say: "but the conditions of those farmers is so different from ours," and drop the subject. The parallel work of extension workers will be of value for the reinforcement of these programs.

In the very early stages, it might be desirable to concentrate upon the practical educational solution of one or more essential problems of the community. For example, the telecasts can discuss the elimination of endemic disease, of irrigation by simply hydraulic engineering, or the control of pests. In this manner the broadcasts might demonstrate the practical values and benefits of education in order to provide incentive for the continuance of acquisition of information by the farmers.

3. Domestic Skills (such as the operation of food and the care of children and of the sick), and health education.

Television programs must be based on an understanding of the life, beliefs and attitudes of the urbanites and villagers, as well as the social factors that help to determine their way of life.

In Viet-Nam, domestic affairs are totally the women's responsibility. By tradition, Vietnamese women's place is strictly at home. Their educational opportunity is rather limited. Although the number of educated women is increasing, it is a fact that any effort to help the Vietnamese women improve their lives and the art of home-making through printed materials would take a painfully long time to achieve results.



Vietnamese women need more basic elementary instruction in home economics and related fields. A basic series of telecasts in child rearing, nutrition, medicine, budgeting, family planning, hygiene and health education is essential. For example, at the present time in Saigon, the telecasts could stimulate interest in community sanitation by discussing the mounting problems of garbage disposal, and sidewalks littering. In many lower income families, the women can keep their own houses very clean, but they could not care less whether the street they live on is full of trash. They sweep their houses clean and shove the trash to the sidewalks. Thus, such civic programs could instill a new sense of cooperation in community life so that the women would become less passive and more willing to participate in the improvement of the community. This would have a good influence on the training of the younger generation in the same direction.

Telecasts on nutrition and cooking as well as meal planning will be of great value in helping Vietnamese women, rich or poor, plan nutritious and well-balanced family meals within the limits of their family incomes. This kind of program will not only help the women to become efficient home makers but will help to create a more robust and healthier generation of Vietnamese children.

The broadcasts on basic scientific knowledge on home-making do not have to be pedantic. The basic notions of science can be incorporated into songs, plays, folk theater and the like. For example, average housewives have a strong liking for "Vong Co," a so-called classical-musical=singing lullaby which usually deals with nothing but romance borrowed from foreign sources. Many Vietnamese housewives would never

turn on the radio if it were not for such music programs. When one of these comes on TV, they put aside all housework to watch it. Instead of such romances with borrowed contents which do not reflect the cultural values of Viet-Nam, the Vietnamese planner should take advantage of this interest in Vong Co to incorporate significant contents. Efforts could be made to use Vong Co to spread scientific knowledge of how to bring up healthy children, or how to care for the sick. The programs can also create TV personalities with which the audience can identify, or develop sympathetic TV authorities they can trust such as the TV doctor or the TV nurse. Such appeals can be used to attract the viewers at the beginning until their interest is captured by the content of the program itself.

#### 4. Skills used in self expression in the art and crafts.

Traditional dances and music can be brought to life by television. Music appreciation can be coupled with instruction in dance movements for maximum effectiveness. The poetic inclination of the Vietnamese should be explored in programs on folk music, songs, sayings and poetry reflecting the cultural colorfulness of various provinces. These could be as varied as the different geographical regions in Viet-Nam.

Television can encourage creative writing by giving young playwrights a chance to contribute to the broadcasting programs, or by presenting literary reviews of their works. It may have a profound effect on the masses as it unearths the story teller, the poet, or the ballad maker who exists among the people.

The war has had a destructive effect on the refined art of living of the Vietnamese people. The traditional art of cooking, of fruit

carving, or flower arrangement and of decoration which were the pride and the great pleasure of the older generations of women are on the decline. A program to perpetuate this art will certainly attract a great number of viewers. It is more true when peace is established in Viet-Nam. People will have more time to think of leisure and pleasure. Television will bring to the women the traditional art of living to enrich their family life, and enhance an asset that the Vietnamese women have not lost: femininity.

5. Knowledge and understanding of the physical environment and of natural processes.

The Vietnamese society, particularly its rural segments, is infested with superstition and fear of the natural elements. There is little interest in or understanding of the physical environment. Programs on natural disasters, on the weather, and elementary science will be the core for programming in this area.

Reports on disasters such as a flood or an earthquake must be explained scientifically with simplicity so that even the illiterates can understand them and cease to believe that a flood is caused by an angry dragon, or that there is no way for a bad individual to avoid a thunderbolt from striking him because it is God's punishment.

Programs on weather forecasts, information about matters of public health, about agriculture and fisheries are promising possibilities. They should not be fixed rigidly, but should be flexible according to current events. For example, when a village is struck by cholera, one can imagine the effectiveness of a telecast reporting on the affected area, describing the measures taken to eradicate the epidemic, and at



the same time giving the causes of the disease, its symptoms and preventive measures.

6. Knowledge and understanding of the human environment (economic and social organization, law and government).

For a long time the Vietnamese have not had any chance to participate in their country's political life. To create a politically well-informed citizenry, television program content must open an avenue for the masses to understand government organizations and functions, and civic responsibilities.

Telecasts about public ceremonies, congress sessions, or discussions in local councils, will bridge the gap between the ruling class and the masses. Television will enable the viewers to witness the opening of a new road, or a new hospital, the presentation of credentials of diplomatic chiefs, or a state visit by some dignitary. All this direct reporting may make the Vietnamese aware of the achievements in their society as well as the role of their country in the world community.

At the local level, the broadcasting media can introduce various associations and organizations and their activities to the citizens so that people may know where and how to get help when needed, or how to contribute their time and efforts for the development of the community and the country as a whole.

7. Knowledge of other parts of the world and the people who live in them.

Television spans the ocean and the continent to "bring one country in at the front door of another." Documentary programs will bring the Vietnamese out of their isolation to have a glimpse of the life and

culture of other countries. Foreign visitors can be invited to appear on television in programs related to their own countries. Despite the language barriers, foreign films can be presented with voice over or commentary in Vietnamese. Those programs can help the Vietnamese re-assess their own status in relation to the world.

Viet-Nam has been too western-oriented. It is time to look at its Asian neighbors. Thus while program content will cover the world, emphasis should be upon neighboring countries such as Cambodia, Thailand, and Laos.

8. (a) The development of qualities to fit men to live in the modern world such as personal judgment, initiative, freedom from fear and superstition, sympathy and understanding for different points of view.

(b) Spiritual and moral development.

These two areas are put together as they both deal more or less with abstraction and mental processes. More than ever, programs in this area should attempt to erase the suspicions existing among the Vietnamese of the regions other than their own. They should explore into the area of tradition and custom to make all Vietnamese understand themselves and feel that they are of one nation. Values that are appropriate to the progress of Viet-Nam should be disseminated and reinforced. For example, as Viet-Nam is moving toward modernization, there is the dilemma of individual versus family: Should an adult son put up with his parent's interference in his personal life to please them and preserve the family's name as has been the practice in Viet-Nam? Are the values advocated by Confucianism still valid for modern

Viet Nam? These are some of the questions the Vietnamese broadcaster will have to deal with in helping the Vietnamese masses develop moral and spiritual qualities. Programs consisting of panel discussions on current moral and social issues can stimulate critical thinking, and give the viewer an opportunity to understand and tolerate different points of views.

9. The art of living, through active and vicarious participation in recreational and avocational activities such as music, dancing, arts and crafts.

Life is not bread and work alone. An artistic touch will indeed enhance it. Television in Viet-Nam can devote some of its time to entertainment purposes. The Vietnamese Television seems to have an imbalance between educational programs and pure entertainment. The entertainment element in broadcasting is admittedly important. But as a developing country Viet-Nam cannot afford to use television solely for entertainment. Schramm has discussed the entertainment elements in broadcasting, and has come to the conclusion that only a balance of entertainment and serious programs can bring good results.

No one would say that all the time of. . .any mass medium should be used for direct development purposes. That would be too unvaried. It would be boring. It would lose audience. The media must serve needs and interests other than those of the development program. And even entertainment is useful in that it provides relief and relaxation and variation. . .Thus the problem is not to select between what is useful and what is not, but to make a combination of contents that are useful in different ways and mutually useful to each other.<sup>69</sup>

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<sup>50</sup> Schramm, Wilbur, Communication and Change in the Developing Countries. East West Center Press, Honolulu, 1967, p. 31.



There is a rich tradition of classical drama and folk theater in various forms in Viet-Nam. It should be explored and used as a medium for education and a means to teach the Vietnamese to be more spontaneous and to be able to enjoy life. Certainly Vietnamese leisure and its manner of living could be enhanced by the restoration of the arts of flower arrangement, fruit carving, and wood printing.

The Canadian motto for Canada's Farm Forum "Listen, Discuss, and Act" can be applicable in Viet-Name. We can say instead, "Watch, Discuss, and Act." This motto follows quite closely the principles for the effectiveness of the diffusion of innovations mentioned earlier.

For maximum efficiency, Viet-Nam should establish organized teleclubs within the coverage area of television all over the country. The organizational experience of teleclubs in developing countries throughout the world can be a guide for Viet-Nam. The Vietnamese television planner will have to probe into the method of organizing such groups.

In general, each teleclub should consist mostly of an homogeneous audience and should be democratically organized and run. Teleclubs can be originated by extension workers and social workers. Gradually the leadership should be turned over to group members. At the moment, since television operation is basically in Saigon and its vicinity, the problem of finding such monitors is not too difficult. Later, as the number of teleclubs increase with the expansion of television, the help of college students should be tapped. When the war is over, and television can reach more remote areas, the cadres in the Pacification Program can be mobilized to help operate teleclubs, after they have received some training.

Whatever audience the program is aimed at, in order to be effective, the objectives must be quite clear from the start. "The actual education should concentrate on subjects where major concerns and major individual interests in a particular group overlap."<sup>70</sup>

Viet-Nam must make maximum use of the existing television facilities. They should not lie idle all day waiting for three or four hours of broadcasting every evening. The daytime hours should be divided between school broadcasting and broadcasting for the stay-at-home. The exact schedule as to the hour at which programs should be broadcast can be decided by a study of the daily routines of the Vietnamese.

#### The Place of Evaluation

A continuous program evaluation process must be established in order to update programs according to audience needs. The Universities of Saigon, Dalat, Hue, and Can Tho can supply the man power to do research, each within its own geographical territory.

This chapter deals primarily with programming, but where can effective programs fit in if the whole system is not workable? Therefore, the vital question is where to start with the Vietnamese educational television.

Any action aiming at developing educational television in Viet-Nam should begin by taking stock of the whole broadcasting situation and the kind of service it renders. UNESCO experts are also aware of the importance of an inventory of this nature:

Development starts where a country is. The first step in planning communication development is to find out, as

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<sup>70</sup>UNESCO, op. cit., No. 50, p. 34.

accurately as possible, where the country is, in relation to need, in its communication development. This calls, in the first place, for a basic inventory of facilities and service.<sup>71</sup>

A few important questions should be answered in the inventory of television broadcasting in Viet-Nam:

1. What is the number of existing transmitting stations?
2. How large is the coverage area, and what is the transmitting power of each of the existing stations?
3. In what operating condition is each of the transmitters and studios?
4. What is the number of receivers available to individual and public viewing. What is their working condition and where are they located?
5. What is the composition of the audience and the number of viewers?
6. What kinds of programs attract what kinds of viewers in what numbers?
7. What is the nature of the programs on television and radio and what sorts of needs and interests are these programs designed to serve?
8. What do the viewers expect of television?
9. What could television contribute toward the dissemination of fundamental education in Viet-Nam?<sup>72</sup>

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<sup>71</sup>Schramm, Wilbur, The Role of Information in Developing Countries. UNESCO, Paris, 1961, p. 45.

<sup>72</sup>Schramm, Ibid., p. 49.



Some of these questions have been partially answered for other countries in Chapter III according to data made available by UNESCO. However, this kind of information is severely lacking in Viet-Nam. The success of programming will in many ways be made more feasible by making use of such information resulting from this inventory.

It is a common phenomenon in developing countries that the application of the broadcasting media in the education of the masses is considerably slowed down by the elite ruling class which wants to hold on to its status as the privileged educated class. An educated mass may threaten its security. It is, therefore, to be expected that the use of television in fundamental education in Viet-Nam will be met with some unfavorable reactions from politicians and other special interest groups. However, the war has brought the Vietnamese to the realization that only a well-informed citizenry can help rebuild Viet-Nam in order to live decently in the world community. So the prospect of educational television in Viet-Nam, in spite of some obstacles created by the ruling class, can be bright.

Even when educational television used for fundamental education is fully welcomed in Viet-Nam, its place in national planning should be properly evaluated in order to get the most out of its service. The educational effect of radio and television is a far-reaching one. It does not have the spectacular appearance as does the construction of a bridge or highway. For this reason, the broadcasting media tends to be placed at the bottom of the priority list. The case of India is typical.

Pool observed the fate of broadcasting in the Indian national planning:

The First Five-Year Plan allocated two-tenths of one

percent of outlays to developing of broadcasting. It allocated fourteen times as much as that to posts and telegraphs. It allocated about sixty times as much to education. But that was only the plan. Across the board, actual outlays for the five years slipped fifteen percent below the plan, but outlays for broadcasting were allowed to fall short by forty-five percent, leaving actual outlays at somewhat over one-tenth of one percent of the total. In the Second Five-Year Plan, development of broadcasting was given no greater role, being allowed two-tenths of one percent of outlays. In the Third Plan, it is cut down to one tenth of one percent.<sup>73</sup>

Television is an admittedly expensive medium. But a rough estimate indicates that the use of ETV will in the long run make up for its cost. The expenditure for the fiscal year 1967 on Vietnamese secondary and elementary education was approximately \$U.S. 31,131,980.<sup>74</sup> This accommodated only about 1.5 million primary school age children and 146,506 students in public high schools. Meanwhile, an ETV station operating on professional standards with a potential to reach the masses even in remote villages would claim only \$U.S. 1,683,325. This estimate is based upon costs of such services in America.<sup>75</sup> (See Appendix ).

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<sup>73</sup>Pool, Ithiel de Sola, "The Mass Media and Politics in the Modernization Process," as quoted by Wilbur Schramm in The Role of Information in National Development, UNESCO, 1961, p. 39.

<sup>74</sup>National Education Study, op. cit., p.249.

<sup>75</sup>Nelson L., The Financing of Educational Television, Educational Television The Next Ten Years, Institute for Communication Research, Stanford, California, 1962, pp. 183-189.

It would probably cost less in Viet-Nam. What should be done in Viet-Nam is to make a careful estimate of operations costs based on careful planning so that uninformed estimates cannot be used as an excuse to delay the development of ETV. An underestimate of the technical and fiscal difficulties involved in installing and maintaining TV receivers in schools or public places can be a cause for failure.

In discussing budget, it is appropriate to consider the possibility of using commercial advertising as a supplementary financial source for TV development. However, it must be borne in mind that under no circumstances should commercial interests be allowed excessive power as seems to be true in the United States. As a developing country, Viet-Nam cannot afford to do so. A mass medium such as television must operate for the educational benefit of the population.

If a decision is made to allow commercial advertising on television, the following restrictions must be enforced:

1. Commercials must not interrupt programs, and preferably should appear only between programs.
2. The time allowed for commercially-sponsored programs should not exceed fifteen or twenty percent of the total broadcasting time.
3. An advisory committee consisting of government representatives, and those from different public interest groups should be set up to preview commercials before transmission to avoid exploitation of the public for commercial interests.

G. Greenfell Williams strongly believes, as a result of studying past experience, that operational funds should come from license fees rather than from commercial advertising. I would tend to agree with



him. A license fee gives the audience a stake in the operation of television; it makes them feel they are part of it, and they become more interested in the "welfare" of television. With such supervision from the public, the usual result is better educational programs.

The Vietnamese planner will also have to look at other factors that are vital in the development of ETV. First of all there is the lack of trained personnel. At the present time, Viet-Nam should take advantage of the presence of foreign TV specialists in the U.S. Army and other agencies and attempt to secure their help in training Vietnamese personnel locally. A long-range plan to train needed specialists both in Viet-Nam and overseas should be undertaken as soon as possible so as to anticipate the need when peace is achieved. The future demobilization of specialists from the Vietnamese Army can supply a number of technical communication specialists for the TV enterprise. International cooperation in personnel training also can be secured from various countries through the United Nations or directly from private organizations such as the Center for Educational Television Overseas in London, England.

Electrification is another important element necessary for the expansion of television. At the moment, many Vietnamese rural areas are without electricity. The Danhim Hydrolic Project was planned to provide electricity for more remote areas as well as to relieve the overloaded circuit in big cities such as Saigon. But it has been left in disuse due to the war. At the present, television activities will have to be concentrated in the more urbanized areas. The possibility of electrification provided by the Danhim Project and others in the future, should be kept in mind for future television expansion.

As Viet-Nam is not yet able to produce television sets, import tariffs and taxes may hinder the growth of television. A coordinated effort should be made either to lift or to decrease the tariff imposed on TV set import for the sake of facilitating an increase in set ownership. Another measure to be taken is to ask for international cooperation in providing low-priced sets.

Arranging for wide-spread community purchase of TV sets should both help solve the problem of the set shortage and, at the same time, interest the rural population in television. For example, a village could chip in some money and pay a part of the cost of a set; the rest would be subsidized by the government. Since the villagers contribute their share to the purchase of the set, they will be more interested in taking care of it and in using it to the maximum.

Most developing countries assign the development and operation of radio and television to the Ministry of Information. Yet the rivalry among various Ministries is a well-known fact. Certainly Viet-Nam is no exception. There the various Ministries usually act quite independently and cooperation among them is often difficult. It is true that in a project such as that involving fundamental education, the television programs aiming at the masses are necessarily inter-disciplinary in nature. The broadcaster must secure the coordination of related Ministries in order to avoid wasteful duplication. So there will be difficulties which may interfere with the effectiveness of the program.

While lack of adequate finance and difficulties in securing coordination may prompt the failure of educational television, the error most commonly committed by pioneers in educational television in developing

countries is that they try to do too much too soon. In addition, in their eagerness to use television they tend to transpose advanced techniques from American and Japanese models to their less developed systems. The Vietnamese planner must be aware of these possible mistakes and know where potential problems lie, in order to get the worth out of every cent spent on ETV. The role of planning and programming is important.

### Conclusion

Even though television can do many things to stimulate and bring about change, it must recognize its limitations. "Education should not be confused with conditioning people" to behave in the direction the government might like, to create a 1984 world; it must bring forth what is latent.

Adult education through mass media must always keep this in mind and adapt its teaching methods to the needs of development in any specific socio-psychological situation.<sup>76</sup>

The power of television in development will be effective only through the concerted effort of Vietnamese broadcasters and educators, the Vietnamese government and the people themselves. While war and terror for the past twenty-five years have not been able to achieve a social revolution in Viet-Nam, television if used effectively can change the face of the Vietnamese society for the better. Robert E. Lee revealed the revolutionary power of television:

There are two kinds of revolution: bloodless and violent. The revolution in television may be a smooth,

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<sup>76</sup> UNESCO, op. cit., No. 50, p. 34.



gradual transition, or it may explode the entertainment industry with the impact of a block-buster bomb. The difference between an intelligent, progressive conversion and a 'reign of terror' is planning. We must use the same foresight in planning the revolution which is certain to come with television.<sup>77</sup>

This is exactly the kind of revolution the war-weary Vietnamese need. Some day the war will be over, and with the help of television, the Vietnamese masses will emerge to a fuller life and be prepared to accept their responsibilities as citizens of a free and independent nation.

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<sup>77</sup> Lee, Robert E., Television, The Revolution. New York Essential Books, 1944, pp. 4-6.

## CHAPTER VI

### SUMMARY

In its emergence as a free and independent nation, Viet-Nam is faced with many problems. On the one hand, it has to fight a destructive ideological war; on the other, a war against ignorance and poverty. For centuries, Viet-Nam has been a stagnant agrarian society, isolated in many ways from the moving world outside. It is a fact that the Vietnamese masses must be adequately prepared, through a program of fundamental education, to be able actively to participate in the building of a modern Viet-Nam as well-informed and responsible citizens, and to live a fuller life. As the existing Vietnamese educational system is inadequate to meet the urgent need for an accelerated education of the masses, the use of television as an effective educational medium is recommended to disseminate fundamental education, the scope of which includes literacy, vocational skills, health education, civics, knowledge of basic science, knowledge of the human environment, and the ability to enjoy life.

The pessimist may doubt the effectiveness of television compared to radio as an educational tool. In Clifford James' review of studies made by various researchers up to 1961 on the comparative effectiveness of

television and radio in achieving educational objectives, it was found that aside from radio's lower cost, there is no conclusive evidence as to the superiority of one medium over the other in the teaching of manual and non-manual skills, in acquiring information, in affecting interest and appreciation, in developing and modifying attitudes toward ideas and toward social groups, and in developing creative abilities. However, television is definitely superior in visual demonstration, is well-suited for showing processes and in the development of psychomotor skills. As a new medium, whose presentation techniques are still experimental in many ways, television shows much promise.

Television, being an audio-visual medium, is a realization of modern man's dream of "being in two places at the same time." As Marshall McLuhan said, it is the embodiment of the poet's dream of synesthesia. Formal and sequential series of courses of instruction in instructional television can help the educator solve many problems such as the shortage of personnel and facilities. It can raise the quality of teaching and bring "the expert few to the needy many" as Dr. I. Keith Tyler put it. On a broader scale, in educational television where the programs are aimed at the whole life process of an individual, television as a "multiplier" can bring the sight and sound of the modern world to people in remote areas to raise their aspiration for modernization, and to create a sense of national unity among every segment of Viet-Nam. With its power to involve the viewers it can induce participation and thereby stimulate thinking in the direction of change.



People in Viet-Nam, as in many other developing countries, tend to look at television as a source of pure entertainment. In Viet-Nam where the resources are limited, it is recommended that television, due to its high cost, should be mainly devoted to educational broadcasting rather than to entertainment alone in order to bring about changes in attitudes and behavior necessary for modernization.

The Vietnamese broadcasting media have never played any significant role in mass education. Radio and the three-year-old television have been used primarily as political tools under the responsibility of the Ministry of Information. Their educational potential has not been adequately tapped. Programming on both radio and television in Viet-Nam is devoted almost exclusively to entertainment, and propaganda. On the whole it shows a lack of resourcefulness, a need for revision and for a new approach in order for the two media to play a more significant role in the development of Viet-Nam.

The use of the mass media in national development is admittedly important in the underdeveloped areas of the world. The Vietnamese planner can derive some lessons from the experiences of pioneers in the use of television in fundamental education in other developing countries. Colombia started educational television in 1961; Argentina designed a series of broadcasts on vocational skills supplemented by regular high school lessons in literature, mathematics, English and Spanish. The Egyptian Television took the strongest lead in both child and adult education in the Middle East. The experiences in these projects indicated that in order to be successful, it is necessary to have good coordination and an understanding of the television medium with all its potentials and limitations.

The application of television in fundamental education is still in an experimental stage. Under the sponsorship of UNESCO, Japan carried out a television experiment in rural education in 1956; Senegal designed a pilot project in social education for women in Dakar in 1960; and the potential of television in social education was tested in India in the same year. In all projects, teleclubs proved to be an effective means for group viewing and decision making. It was pointed out that to reach the masses effectively, there is a need for the planner to understand (1) the characteristics of his intended audience, (2) basic principles in the art of mass communications, (3) the nature of good programming and (4) the importance of coordinated planning in parallel with adult education activities at the local level.

The application of television in fundamental education in Viet-Nam needs to be considered both from a theoretical and organizational point of view. A look at some underlying principles in mass communications will be helpful for the Vietnamese planner before he tackles the specific problems in programming and organization.

According to Everett M. Rogers, after he had made a review of hundreds of studies, an individual attempting change usually goes through five stages of the adoption process: awareness, interest, evaluation, trial and adoption. In general, in this process, impersonal information is influential at the awareness stage, while personal information is most effective at the evaluation stage. The group usually tends to regard an innovator as a deviant. Peer groups usually play an important part in the decision making of later adopters rather than influencing the pioneers.

Leon Festinger theorized that every person strives for an equilibrium between his behavior and action. The absence of this equilibrium due to his being exposed to new information results in cognitive dissonance. Festinger recognized that group attractiveness exerts a strong influence on the individual in his effort to eliminate dissonance, which dictates the change of opinions and attitudes. The mass media are quite effective in creating an atmosphere conducive to raising questions in the minds of the viewers. They tend to be most effective in dealing with topics not readily talked about or with the socially isolated.

The Vietnamese planner will have to bear in mind that his success in educating the masses by television will depend to a great extent on his understanding of the local culture, the mentality of his intended audience, and the appropriate techniques of communicating with an unsophisticated audience in rural areas. A two-way communication to encourage participation is very important. So, also, is the coordination of television programs aiming at change, with the efforts of other change agents in national planning.

The dissemination of fundamental education in Viet-Nam via television is dealt with according to the subject areas suggested by UNESCO as comprising the scope of fundamental education.

In the cultivation of skills in thinking and communicating, it is suggested that the telecasts should be designed to sustain an interest in functional literacy with the support and cooperation of literacy agencies such as the Office of Adult Education and the Popular Education Center. The Vietnamese language can be used as a unifying factor. In



planning programs on correct language usage, folk songs and literature that reveal its beauty can be used to arouse interest in literacy among the illiterate. Elementary arithmetic should be part of the program in this area to help those whose literacy has not reached an acceptable level. Reinforcement should be made through awards, contests, and distributions of printed materials specially prepared for new literates.

In vocational education, agricultural information programs are on the priority list as Viet-Nam is basically an agricultural country. In the early stage, it is desirable to offer practical educational solutions of one or more essential problems of the community. During war time, television has to direct part of its effort to people behind the lines such as women, young people, and handicapped victims of the war, to give them a chance to learn a craft, as a means of earning their own living.

In the dissemination of domestic skills, television programs should aim at the Vietnamese women. Program content should cover information on hygiene, health education, family planning, child rearing, nutrition, medicine and budgeting. Songs, plays, and folk theater are effective means of spreading basic knowledge in these areas.

Poetry, folk music, the traditional art of brush painting, cooking, fruit carving, flower arrangement and interior decoration can be the content of television programs aiming at developing skills in self expression in the art and crafts. The appearance of folk poets or singers selected from among the masses can be an encouragement for participation.

As the Vietnamese rural areas are infested with superstition, programs on natural disasters, elementary science, and public health can be core for programming aimed at promoting an understanding of the physical environment.

If the Vietnamese masses are to participate fully in the shaping of their destiny, they must be well-informed about economic, and social organization, law and government. At the national level, television must open an avenue for the masses to understand civic responsibilities as well as government organization and functions. At the local level, the masses must be brought to be aware of local civic organizations which need their contribution of time and effort or which can offer them help.

The Vietnamese Television must bring the world to the Vietnamese doorstep through documentary programs on the life and culture of other countries to help the people re-assess their own status in the world community. It is suggested that some emphasis should be on our neighboring countries so that the Vietnamese can understand them better and thus exist more in harmony with them.

In the domain of moral and spiritual development, television programs should attempt to reinforce values that are appropriate to the progress of Viet-Nam. Most of all they should strive to erase the suspicion existing among the Vietnamese from the Northern, Central and Southern regions.

Although entertainment is important in programming to attract viewers, there must be a better balance of entertainment and serious programs in the Vietnamese Television.

Even if the Vietnamese planner has had a substantial number of content sources to broadcast worthwhile educational programs, he must be aware of organizational factors that may affect the success of good programming.

The conditions in Viet-Nam make it necessary to organize teleclubs, which are democratically operated. Man power among college students and from Pacification Program cadres can be a source for use in the organization of teleclubs. Television facilities must be used at the maximum rate. Time schedules will be set up after a careful study of the Vietnamese daily routine. In general, daytime hours should be devoted to school broadcasting and to programs for the stay-at-homes.

Based on the experiences in the use of educational television in other countries, a strategy for the development of television in fundamental education in Viet-Nam is needed.

An inventory of television facilities and service is essential. On the basis of the information provided, programming can be planned accordingly. Meanwhile, a reaction against educational television among the privileged class should be anticipated, and correct estimates of cost should be obtained while attempting to put television in its proper place in national planning.

The budget for television operation can partially be supplemented by commercial advertising. However, before commercial advertising is allowed on television in Viet-Nam, it is strongly emphasized that advertising should be put under strict restriction. Time allowed for commercially sponsored programs should not exceed 15 or 20 percent of broadcasting time every day. The main support for television, however, should come from imposing a listener's license fee; as this would get the public involved in the television enterprise.

Personnel training should be carried out as soon as possible with the help of foreign specialists available in the country at the present, and with international cooperation.



It is advisable at the moment for Vietnamese Television to concentrate its efforts in more urbanized areas where electricity is available. Plans should be made for encouraging the expansion of television by such government measures as lowering import tariffs and taxes on TV sets, providing electricity in more remote areas, and subsidizing the purchase of TV sets. In addition, the cooperation of various Ministries whose range of activities is within the scope of fundamental education would be secured to avoid wasteful duplication and conflict.

If every facet of organization and programming is carefully considered in the development of educational television in Viet-Nam, it is believed that television will come to play a vital role in preparing the Vietnamese masses for a peaceful revolution toward progress and modernization.

## **APPENDIX**

Table of Expenditures of The Office  
of Elementary School From Fiscal Year 1964 to 1967

Article	FY 1964	FY 1965	FY 1966	FY 1967
1	614,896,000\$ Schools : 4,186 Classes : 24,762 Instructors: 9,863 Pupils : 1,239,249	1,422,250,000\$ Schools : 3,764 Classes : 25,169 Instructors: 25,075 Pupils : 1,298,550	1,667,468,000\$ Schools : 4,800 Classes : 28,112 Instructors: 24,752 Pupils : 1,457,368	2,202,215,000\$ Schools : (a) Classes : (a) Instructors: 26,701 Pupils : (a)
2	4,000\$	4,000\$	4,000\$	4,000\$
3	24,300,000\$	46,920,000\$	98,338,000\$	55,845,000\$
5	" (b)	800,000\$	5,100,000\$	6,930,000\$
7	900,000\$	4,165,000\$	5,090,000\$	45,000,000\$
TOTAL	640,100,000\$	1,474,139,000\$	1,776,000,000\$	2,309,994,000\$

1. Salaries of Personnel
2. Donation or Premium from a person
3. Materials, Desks, Furniture, Equipment
5. Scholarships
7. Construction and Equipment

- (a) There is no number, because this is the beginning of new academic year.
- (b) Scholarships and other expenditures (house, food) are provided by provincial budget.



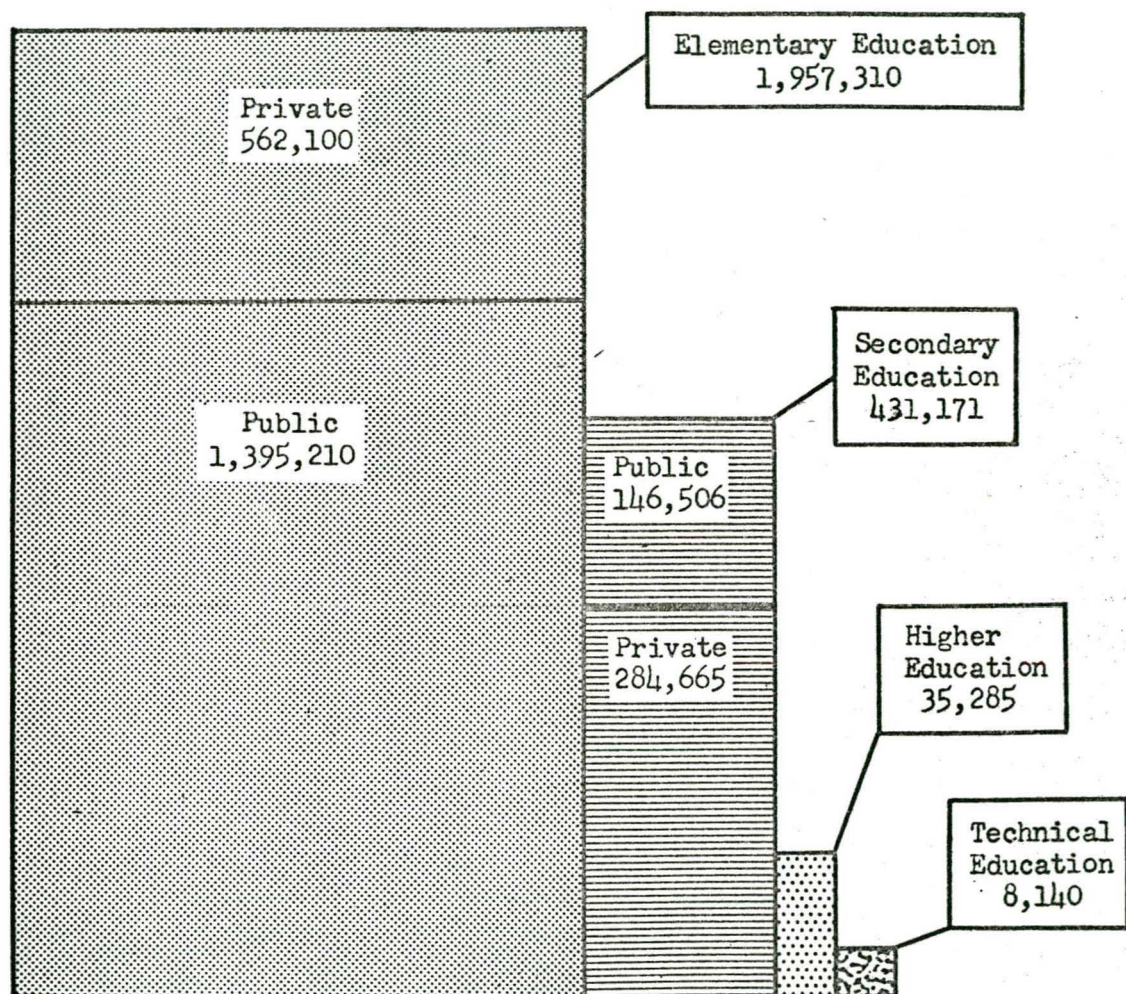
Table of Expenditures of The Office  
of Secondary School From Fiscal Year 1964 to 1967

Article	FY 1964	FY 1965	FY 1966	FY 1967
1	365,416,000\$ Schools : 140 Classes : 2,072 Instructors: 3,871 Pupils : 112,606	482,935,000\$ Schools : 156 Classes : 2,321 Instructors: 4,837 Pupils : 123,271	476,303,000\$ Schools : 180 Classes : 2,621 Instructors: 4,723 Pupils : 130,900	669,603,000\$ Schools : 207 Classes : 2,934 Instructors: 5,302 Pupils : 145,241
2	-	-	-	
3	16,000,000\$	17,010,000\$	14,595,000\$	20,085,000\$
5	-	-	-	44,616,000\$
7	5,400,000\$ 38,600,000\$ (Plus fees for Pacification)	46,065,000\$	17,347,000\$	69,000,000\$
TOTAL	425,616,000\$	546,010,000\$	508,245,000\$	803,304,000\$

1. Salaries of Personnel
2. Donation or Premium from a person
3. Materials, Desks, Furniture, Equipment
5. Scholarships
7. Construction and Equipment

A<sub>2</sub>PROPORTION OF PUBLIC AND PRIVATE ENROLMENTS

Academic Year 1966-1967

Sources:

- Progress of Education in Viet-Nam  
During the School Year 1966-67  
Republic of Viet-Nam, MOE.
- Mr. Truong-Van-Duc, Director,  
Elementary and Community Education.
- Mr. Vu-Duc-Chang, Director  
Private and Adult Classes

TABLE A  
*Capital Costs—Minimum Operation*  
*VHF ETV Station*

Estimated coverage for station with 18 kw ERP

10-mile radius, Class A

18-mile radius, Class B

Equipment <i>excluding</i> land, utilities, or grounds improvement:	
Transmitter (1 kw) and allied equipment .....	\$ 50,000
Tower (300 ft.) .....	15,000
Antenna and transmission lines .....	23,000
Transmitter and studio building (partially air-conditioned), \$35 per sq. ft. ....	100,000
Studio equipment:	
2 cameras, 3-in. RCA image-orthicon .....	\$32,000
Switcher .....	6,000
Film chain, projectors, and 1 slide projector.....	20,000
Audio .....	4,500
Master control and test .....	10,000
Lighting and studio draperies .....	7,000
Equipment for film, staging, graphics, engineering workshops	6,000
Office furniture for six offices, typewriters, and duplicating machine .....	4,000
	<hr/>
	\$277,500

*Note:*

Camera: 3 lens only.

No film production or program recording equipment.

No manufacturer's discount.

Pedestals and mike booms not included.



TABLE B  
*Operating Costs—Minimum Operation*  
*VHF ETV Station*

NET affiliation (population below 200,000) .....	\$ 7,200
Program services—music and sound effects, records, pictures, graphic supplies, staging supplies, properties, trucking, lamps for lighting, etc. ....	4,500
Engineering supplies, minor parts, audio tapes, replacement parts, tubes, tower maintenance, etc. ....	9,000
Power .....	3,000
Telephone, telegraph, and postage .....	2,000
Administrative costs, office supplies, travel, books, professional memberships in broadcasting associations, etc. ....	3,000
	<hr/>
	\$28,700

*Notes:*

- a) Does not include stipends for teachers or other talent appearing as part of regular assignment.
- b) Does not include following:
  - Building maintenance or heat.
  - Rent.
  - Depreciation on equipment.
  - Legal or engineering consultative services.
- c) An additional saving can be made if administrative costs can be assumed as part of a regular on-going program.

TABLE C  
*Personnel Requirements—Minimum Operation*  
*VHF ETV Station*

Manager-program director .....	\$ 9,000
Chief engineer .....	8,500
1 Producer-director-switcher .....	5,500
1 Part-time director .....	2,000
1 In-school coordinator-producer-writer .....	6,500
3 Engineers-technicians .....	15,000
3 Part-time technicians .....	7,000
1 Office manager-bookkeeper .....	4,500
2 Part-time office clerks and receptionist .....	3,000
1 Traffic-continuity writer .....	4,800
2 Cameramen (also help in programming such as music librarian, announcer, artist, etc.) .....	8,000
1 Floor manager-staging assistant .....	3,600
1 Staging and lighting-director-cameraman .....	5,200
1 Film traffic, editor, librarian .....	4,500
3 Production assistants .....	5,500
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	\$92,600

**TABLE D**  
*Capital Costs—Professional Standards of Operation*  
*VHF ETV Station*

Estimated coverage for station with 316 kw ERP:

35-mile radius, Class A

52-mile radius, Class B

Equipment *excluding* land, utilities, or grounds improvement:

Transmitter (50 kw) and allied equipment .....	\$ 250,000
Tower (500 ft.) .....	30,000
Antenna and transmission lines .....	54,000
Microwave link, studio-transmitter .....	12,000
Transmitter building .....	30,000
Studio building .....	500,000

Studio equipment:

Three 4½-in. image orthicon cameras .....	\$60,000
Two 3-in. image orthicon cameras (also used for remote) .....	32,000
Remote truck .....	8,000
Switcher, studio and field .....	11,000
Film (2 chains, 3 motion picture projectors, 2 slide projectors) .....	34,000
Master control and test (including video and audio terminal equipment) .....	20,000
Audio .....	12,000
Special effects amplifier .....	12,000
Four house monitors plus related equipment .....	2,500
	<hr/> 191,500

Lighting (2 studios and remote-studio draperies) .....	30,000
Kinescope recorder (double system sound) .....	35,000*
Three video-tape recorders .....	110,000
Remote microwave gear .....	10,000
Film unit (motion picture cameras, still cameras, tripods, lenses, magnetic tape recorder) .....	8,000
Film unit furnishings (splicers, projectors, editing tables, etc.) .....	2,500
Office equipment and furnishings (10 offices) .....	6,000
Graphics equipment .....	2,000
Staging equipment .....	3,500
Engineering workshop equipment and VTR storage .....	3,500

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\$1,278,000

\* Optional.

**TABLE E**  
*Operating Costs—Professional Operations*  
*VHF ETV Station*

Net affiliation (population 500,000–1,500,000) .....	\$ 10,700
Program services: music and sound effects, film rental, royalties, pictures, graphics, staging and production supplies, properties, costumes, lumber, trucking, lamps, etc. ....	12,500
Engineering supplies, minor parts, remote truck upkeep, replace- ment parts, tubes, tower maintenance, etc. ....	15,000
Image orthicon tube replacement .....	15,000
Power .....	8,000
Film: raw stock, chemicals, printing materials, still processing, travel of film crew, etc. ....	4,000
Video-tape supply .....	20,000
Magnetic audio tapes .....	400
News wire service .....	1,300
Telephone, telegraph, postage .....	6,000
Remote lines .....	1,500
Administrative and office expense, travel, membership in profes- sional associations, books, etc. ....	8,000
Promotional—program schedules, printing, mailing .....	4,000
	<u>\$106,400</u>

**Notes:**

- a). Does not include stipends for teachers or other talent.
- b). Does not include the following:
  - Building maintenance or heat.
  - Rent.
  - Depreciation.
  - Legal or engineering consultative services.
- c). Administrative expenses variable depending upon charges against other activities.

**TABLE F**  
*Personnel Requirements—Professional Operations*  
*VHF ETV Station*

1. Station manager .....	\$ 15,000
1. Program director .....	12,000
1. Special projects manager .....	10,000
1. Production manager .....	10,000
1 Chief engineer .....	12,000
2 Writer-producers .....	16,000
1 Director-producer .....	7,500
3 Directors .....	18,000
1 Continuity writer .....	5,200



## NELSON

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7 Engineers .....	39,375
1 In-school coordinator .....	8,000
4 Cameramen at \$4,500 .....	18,000
2 Floor managers .....	8,500
2 Staging and lighting .....	12,000
1 Graphic artist .....	7,000
1 Research assistant and music librarian .....	4,250
1 Promotion—community school relations .....	7,200
4 Production crew at \$3,600 .....	14,400
1 Announcer-newscaster .....	6,000
1 Business manager-bookkeeper .....	8,000
4 Secretaries—traffic at \$3,500 .....	21,000
10 Part-time help: crew, projectionist, film, staging, art, engineers, office .....	18,000
1 Film supervisor-photographer .....	8,500
1 Film editor .....	8,000
1 Film librarian .....	5,000
	<hr/>
	\$298,925

TABLE G  
*Estimated Equipment Costs*  
*Closed-Circuit Television System*

2 Vidicon cameras, professional type .....	\$20,000
1 Camera switcher .....	4,000
1 Film chain (1 16-mm projector, 1 2x2 projector)—B and H pro- jector and Dage chain .....	12,000
1 Sync generator and test .....	4,000
Audio-control room (mike boom, \$600) .....	2,500
Lighting .....	1,500
Staging equipment, draperies, easels .....	1,000
Film equipment—viewers, editing, storage rack .....	500
Audition 16-mm projector .....	700
Distribution system within one building feeding 10 classrooms:	
20 Receivers at \$175 .....	3,500
20 Stands at \$25 .....	500
Cable and amplifiers .....	2,000
Question-and-answer system .....	2,000
Off-the-air receiver and antenna .....	500
	<hr/>
	\$54,700

*Notes:*

- a) Difficult to estimate without specific study are costs for studio remodeling and air conditioning, conduit installation from control room to viewing rooms, remodeling of viewing rooms, and draperies.
- b) Less expensive vidicon cameras and film chain could reduce cost by \$10,000.

COUNTRY	CITY	STATION NAME	OWNERSHIP	SYMBOL	CALL	POWER	W/L	FREQ.	COUNTRY	CITY	STATION NAME	OWNERSHIP	SYMBOL	CALL	POWER	W/L	FREQ.
		RADIO GUARICO									GOVT						
		JESUS GHERSI									VIETNAM (D.R.)	HANOI	V			50.70	5917
VENEZUELA	SANTA BARBARA DEL ZULIA	ONDAS DEL ESCALANTE		YVNH		1000	250.00	1200			TIENG NOI VIETNAM	GOVT					
		J.T. ALVARADO BOSCAN Y ANA S.									VIETNAM (D.R.)	HANOI	V			50.13	5935
VENEZUELA	SANTO TOME DE GUAYANA	RADIO NACIONAL DE VENEZUELA	P	YVSJ		50000	526.30	570			TIENG NOI VIETNAM	GOVT					
		RADIO NACIONAL DE VENEZUELA (GOVT)									VIETNAM (D.R.)	HANOI	V			42.37	7080
VENEZUELA	TINAKUILLO	RADIO CENTRO		YVPG		1000	229.00	1310			TIENG NOI VIETNAM	GOVT					
		DARIO R. LEIVA									VIETNAM (D.R.)	HANOI	V		100000	30.74	9760
VENEZUELA	TOVAR	RADIO OCCIDENTE		YVOP		10000	272.70	1100			TIENG NOI VIETNAM	GOVT					
		DIOCESIS DE MERIDA (CATHOLIC CHURCH)									VIETNAM (D.R.)	HANOI	V			30.49	9840
VENEZUELA	TOVAR	RADIO OCCIDENTE		YVPM		1000	89.15	3365			TIENG NOI VIETNAM	GOVT					
		DIOCESIS DE MERIDA (CATHOLIC CHURCH)									VIETNAM (D.R.)	HANOI	V			25.53	11750
VENEZUELA	TOVAR	RADIO OCCIDENTE		YVOS		1000	30.77	9750			TIENG NOI VIETNAM	GOVT					
		DIOCESIS DE MERIDA (CATHOLIC CHURCH)									VIETNAM (D.R.)	HANOI	V		50000	25.34	11840
VENEZUELA	TRUJILLO	RADIO TRUJILLO		YVOF		1000	211.30	1420			TIENG NOI VIETNAM	GOVT					
		PEDRO JOSE TORRES									VIETNAM (D.R.)	HANOI	V			19.97	15020
VENEZUELA	TRUJILLO	RADIO TRUJILLO		YVOG		1000	91.05	3295			TIENG NOI VIETNAM	GOVT					
		PEDRO JOSE TORRES									VIETNAM (D.R.)	TAY BAC				376.00	798
VENEZUELA	TUCUPITA	RADIO TUCUPITA		YVTR		1000	236.20	1270			DAY LA DAI PHAT THANH KHU TU TRI TAY BAC	GOVT					
		SOCRATES HERNANDEZ									VIETNAM (D.R.)	TAY BAC	V			69.98	4281
VENEZUELA	TUREN	RADIO TUREN		YVST		5000	212.80	1410			DAY LA DAI PHAT THANH KHU TU TRI TAY BAC	GOVT					
		ANGEL M. PEREZ									VIETNAM (D.R.)	TAY BAC				62.93	4761
VENEZUELA	UPATA	RADIO GUAYANA		YVSH		10000	365.90	820			DAY LA DAI PHAT THANH KHU TU TRI TAY BAC	GOVT					
		SOCRATES HERNANDEZ									VIETNAM (D.R.)	TAY BAC	V			47.36	6331
VENEZUELA	VALENCIA	RADIO NACIONAL DE VENEZUELA	C	YVKK		50000	389.60	770			DAY LA DAI PHAT THANH KHU TU TRI TAY BAC	GOVT					
		RADIO NACIONAL DE VENEZUELA (GOVT)									VIETNAM (D.R.)	VIET BAC				400.00	75
VENEZUELA	VALENCIA	RADIO OCHO CIENTOS DIEZ		YVLP		10000	370.40	810			DAY LA DAI PHAT THANH KHU TU TRI VIET BAC	GOVT					
		C.A. RADIO 810									VIETNAM (D.R.)	VIET BAC				220.60	136
VENEZUELA	VALENCIA	RADIO VALENCIA		YVLD		10000	352.90	850			DAY LA DAI PHAT THANH KHU TU TRI VIET BAC	GOVT					
		MIGUEL ACHE									VIETNAM (D.R.)	VIET BAC	V			73.40	408
VENEZUELA	VALENCIA	RADIO AMERICA		YVLW		10000	337.10	890			DAY LA DAI PHAT THANH KHU TU TRI VIET BAC	GOVT					
		PBRO. BERNADO A. HEREDIA									VIETNAM (D.R.)	VIET BAC	V			44.81	669
VENEZUELA	VALENCIA	LA VOZ DE CARABOBO		YVLB		10000	288.50	1040			DAY LA DAI PHAT THANH KHU TU TRI VIET BAC	GOVT					
		C.A. LA VOZ DE CARABOBO									VIETNAM (D.R.)	VIET BAC	V			34.48	870
VENEZUELA	VALENCIA	RADIO VALENCIA	V	YVLC		1000	89.42	3355			DAY LA DAI PHAT THANH KHU TU TRI VIET BAC	GOVT					
		MIGUEL ACHE									VIETNAM (REP.)	BAN ME THUOT			50000	434.80	69
VENEZUELA	VALENCIA	LA VOZ DE CARABOBO		YVLA		1000	62.76	4780			DAI PHAT THANH BAN ME THUOT	NATIONAL RADIO BROADCASTING OFFICE (GOVT)					
		C.A. LA VOZ DE CARABOBO									VIETNAM (REP.)	BAN ME THUOT			1000	275.20	109
VENEZUELA	VALERA	RADIO TURISMO		YVSD		10000	258.60	1160			DAI PHAT THANH BAN ME THUOT	NATIONAL RADIO BROADCASTING OFFICE (GOVT)					
		PEDRO J. FAJARDO									VIETNAM (REP.)	BAN ME THUOT			50	220.60	136
VENEZUELA	VALERA	RADIO VALERA		YVOH		1000	243.90	1230			AFRTS	US ARMY					
		JORGE FEBRES JELAMBI									VIETNAM (REP.)	BAN ME THUOT			1000	62.37	481
VENEZUELA	VALERA	RADIO VALERA		YVOI		1000	61.98	4840			DAI PHAT THANH BAN ME THUOT	NATIONAL RADIO BROADCASTING OFFICE (GOVT)					
		JORGE FEBRES JELAMBI									VIETNAM (REP.)	BA XUYEN (SOC TRANG)			10000	384.60	71
VENEZUELA	VALLE DE LA PASCUA	RADIO DIFUSORA LA PASCUA		YVLO		1000	219.00	1370			DAI PHAT THANH BA XUYEN	NATIONAL RADIO BROADCASTING OFFICE (GOVT)					
		JOSE R. NEGRON									VIETNAM (REP.)	BEN TRE/TRUC GIANG			50	422.50	7
VENEZUELA	ZARAZA	RADIO ZARAZA		YVQW		10000	240.00	1250			DAI PHAT THANH TRUC GIANG	NATIONAL RADIO BROADCASTING OFFICE (GOVT)					
		VIETNAM (D.R.)	HANOI	V			297.00	1010			VIETNAM (REP.)	CAN THO			1000	325.00	91
		TIENG NOI VIETNAM									DAI PHAT THANH CAN THO	NATIONAL RADIO BROADCASTING OFFICE (GOVT)					
VIETNAM (D.R.)	HANOI	GOVT					241.90	1240			VIETNAM (REP.)	CAN THO			50	220.60	131
		TIENG NOI VIETNAM									AFRTS	US ARMY					
VIETNAM (D.R.)	HANOI	GOVT	V				62.20	4823			VIETNAM (REP.)	DALAT			1000	208.30	14
		TIENG NOI VIETNAM									DAI PHAT THANH DALAT						

COUNTRY	CITY	STATION NAME	OWNERSHIP	SYMBOL	CALL	POWER	W/L	FREQ.	COUNTRY	CITY	STATION NAME	OWNERSHIP	SYMBOL	CALL	POWER	W/L	FREQ.
VIETNAM (REP.)	DALAT	NATIONAL RADIO BROADCASTING OFFICE (GOVT)				5000	49.05	6116	VIETNAM (REP.)	QUANG NAM	DAI PHAT THANH QUANG NAM				50	211.30	1420
VIETNAM (REP.)	DALAT	DAI PHAT THANH DALAT				200	42.02	7140	VIETNAM (REP.)	QUANG NGAI	DAI PHAT THANH QUANG NGAI				10000	375.00	800
VIETNAM (REP.)	DALAT	NATIONAL RADIO BROADCASTING OFFICE (GOVT)				10000	275.20	1090	VIETNAM (REP.)	QUANG NGAI	NATIONAL RADIO BROADCASTING OFFICE (GOVT)				50	220.60	1360
VIETNAM (REP.)	DA NANG	DAI PHAT THANH DA NANG				50	220.60	1360	VIETNAM (REP.)	QUI NHON	DAI PHAT THANH QUI NHON				1000	239.00	1255
VIETNAM (REP.)	DA NANG	NATIONAL RADIO BROADCASTING OFFICE (GOVT)				1000	41.29	7265	VIETNAM (REP.)	QUI NHON	NATIONAL RADIO BROADCASTING OFFICE (GOVT)				50	220.60	1360
VIETNAM (REP.)	DINH TUONG	NATIONAL RADIO BROADCASTING OFFICE (GOVT)				50	250.00	1200	VIETNAM (REP.)	SAIGON	DAI PHAT THANH SAIGON				1000	556.00	540
VIETNAM (REP.)	DINH TUONG	DAI PHAT THANH DINH TUONG					44.42	6754	VIETNAM (REP.)	SAIGON	NATIONAL RADIO BROADCASTING OFFICE (GOVT)				20000	491.80	610
VIETNAM (REP.)	DONG HA	NATIONAL RADIO BROADCASTING OFFICE (GOVT)				50	220.60	1360	VIETNAM (REP.)	SAIGON	VO TUYEN VIETNAM				10000	365.90	820
VIETNAM (REP.)	DUC MY	DAI TIENG NOI QUAN DOI VIETNAM CONG HOA				50	220.60	1360	VIETNAM (REP.)	SAIGON	NATIONAL RADIO BROADCASTING OFFICE (GOVT)				50000	344.80	870
VIETNAM (REP.)	GIA NGHIA	ARMED FORCES OF THE REPUBLIC OF VIETNAM				50	220.60	1360	VIETNAM (REP.)	SAIGON	VO TUYEN VIETNAM				1000	297.00	1010
VIETNAM (REP.)	HUE	DAI PHAT THANH DA NANG				20000	458.00	655	VIETNAM (REP.)	SAIGON	NATIONAL RADIO BROADCASTING OFFICE (GOVT)				20000	61.27	4897
VIETNAM (REP.)	HUE	VOICE OF FREEDOM				5000	413.80	725	VIETNAM (REP.)	SAIGON	VO TUYEN VIETNAM				20000	48.70	6160
VIETNAM (REP.)	HUE	NATIONAL RADIO BROADCASTING OFFICE (GOVT)				50000	394.70	760	VIETNAM (REP.)	SAIGON	NATIONAL RADIO BROADCASTING OFFICE (GOVT)				10000	41.81	7175
VIETNAM (REP.)	HUE	DAI PHAT THANH HUE				50000	394.70	760	VIETNAM (REP.)	SAIGON	VO TUYEN VIETNAM				20000	41.41	7245
VIETNAM (REP.)	HUE	NATIONAL RADIO BROADCASTING OFFICE (GOVT)				50	222.20	1350	VIETNAM (REP.)	SAIGON	NATIONAL RADIO BROADCASTING OFFICE (GOVT)				50000	31.18	9623
VIETNAM (REP.)	HUE	DAI PHAT THANH HUE				1000	41.64	7205	VIETNAM (REP.)	SAIGON	VO TUYEN VIETNAM				10000	30.75	9755
VIETNAM (REP.)	HUE	VOICE OF FREEDOM				31.32	9580		VIETNAM (REP.)	SAIGON	NATIONAL RADIO BROADCASTING OFFICE (GOVT)				50	200.00	1500
VIETNAM (REP.)	HUE	NATIONAL RADIO BROADCASTING OFFICE (GOVT)				5000	31.03	9667	VIETNAM (REP.)	SAIGON	DAI PHAT THANH SAIGON						
VIETNAM (REP.)	KIEN HOA	DAI PHAT THANH KIEN HOA				50	422.50	710	VIETNAM (REP.)	SOC TRANG	NATIONAL RADIO BROADCASTING OFFICE (GOVT)						
VIETNAM (REP.)	KONTUM	NATIONAL RADIO BROADCASTING OFFICE (GOVT)				50	220.60	1360	VIETNAM (REP.)	SOC TRANG	AFRTS						
VIETNAM (REP.)	LOCATION NOT ANNOUNCED	US ARMY				245.30	1223		VIETNAM (REP.)	SOC TRANG	US ARMY						
VIETNAM (REP.)	LONG AN	NATIONAL RADIO BROADCASTING OFFICE (GOVT)				50	447.80	670	VIETNAM (REP.)	SOC TRANG	VIRGIN IS. (US) CHARLOTTE AMALIE, ST THOMAS				1000	300.00	1000
VIETNAM (REP.)	NHA TRANG	DAI PHAT THANH NHA TRANG				10000	309.30	970	VIETNAM (REP.)	SOC TRANG	ISLAND TELERADIO SERVICE INC.				250	223.90	1340
VIETNAM (REP.)	NHA TRANG	NATIONAL RADIO BROADCASTING OFFICE (GOVT)				50	220.60	1360	VIETNAM (REP.)	SOC TRANG	VIRGIN IS. (US) CHARLOTTE AMALIE, ST THOMAS				1000	309.30	970
VIETNAM (REP.)	NHA TRANG	DAI PHAT THANH NHA TRANG				200	30.86	9720	VIETNAM (REP.)	SOC TRANG	W.I. INDUSTRIES INC.				5000		
VIETNAM (REP.)	PHU YEN	NATIONAL RADIO BROADCASTING OFFICE (GOVT)				50	214.30	1400	VIETNAM (REP.)	SOC TRANG	VIRGIN IS. (US) CHRISTIANSTED, ST CROIX				1000	309.30	970
VIETNAM (REP.)	PLEIKU	DAI PHAT THANH PHU YEN				50	220.60	1360	VIETNAM (REP.)	SOC TRANG	RADIO AMERICAN WEST INDIES				1000	384.60	780
VIETNAM (REP.)	PLEIKU	NATIONAL RADIO BROADCASTING OFFICE (GOVT)				50000	189.90	1580	VIETNAM (REP.)	SOC TRANG	RADIO AMERICAN WEST INDIES INC.				100	200.00	1500
VIETNAM (REP.)	PLEIKU	US ARMY							VIETNAM (REP.)	SOC TRANG	VIRGIN IS. (UK) TORTOLA (BAUGHERS BAY)				250	201.30	1490
VIETNAM (REP.)	PLEIKU	AFRTS							VIETNAM (REP.)	SOC TRANG	COMMERCIAL (10KW PROJECTED)						
VIETNAM (REP.)	PLEIKU	US ARMY							VIETNAM (REP.)	SOC TRANG	VOLCANO IS. IWO JIMA						
VIETNAM (REP.)	PLEIKU	AFRTS							VIETNAM (REP.)	SOC TRANG	AFRTS						
VIETNAM (REP.)	PLEIKU	US ARMY							VIETNAM (REP.)	SOC TRANG	US AIR FORCE						
VIETNAM (REP.)	PLEIKU	AFRTS							VIETNAM (REP.)	SOC TRANG	WAKE ISLAND						
VIETNAM (REP.)	PLEIKU	US ARMY							VIETNAM (REP.)	SOC TRANG	AFRTS						
VIETNAM (REP.)	PLEIKU	AFRTS							VIETNAM (REP.)	SOC TRANG	US AIR FORCE						
VIETNAM (REP.)	PLEIKU	US ARMY							VIETNAM (REP.)	SOC TRANG	YEMEN LOCATION NOT ANNOUNCED				59.88	5010	
VIETNAM (REP.)	PLEIKU	AFRTS							VIETNAM (REP.)	SOC TRANG	IDHAAT AL-MAMLAKAH AL-MUTAWAKILIYAH AL-YAMANIYAH				40.54	7400	
VIETNAM (REP.)	PLEIKU	US ARMY							VIETNAM (REP.)	SOC TRANG	ROYALIST GOVT						
VIETNAM (REP.)	PLEIKU	AFRTS							VIETNAM (REP.)	SOC TRANG	YEMEN LOCATION NOT ANNOUNCED				30.08	9976	
VIETNAM (REP.)	PLEIKU	US ARMY							VIETNAM (REP.)	SOC TRANG	IDHAAT AL-MAMLAKAH AL-MUTAWAKILIYAH AL-YAMANIYAH						
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