

ABSTRACT

A STUDY OF THE FORM AND FUNCTION OF INSTRUCTIONAL TELEVISION CURRICULUM COMMITTEES

by Charles S. Ruffing

The utilization of instructional television in the nation's classrooms has seen much growth during the last decade. With the help of emerging federal and state programs educators have introduced television in their educational programs at a rate sufficient to suggest that in the not too distant future every classroom in the nation may have access to programs of instructional television.

In spite of the expanded availability of instructional television, however, the quality of the television lessons has not appreciably improved beyond a relatively low level of effectiveness. In consequence, there is evident disenchantment among educators with much of the material being televised and a growing awareness among

educational television specialists of a need for much better educational as well as technical planning of instructional programs. The investigator in this study has hypothesized that one important reason for the lack of quality of many television lessons may be the inefficient organization and functioning of curriculum committees having at least nominal responsibility for the nature and content of televised courses of study.

During the school year of 1965-66, 60 instructional television curriculum committees who had developed courses of study for open channel televising were investigated with respect to the kind of educational specialties that their committees represented and the responsibilities of those members. The committees reported on represented 19 independent school districts and 41 councils of school systems. This grouping also provided a base for comparison of the two kinds of organizations.

A questionnaire, constructed from recommendations of national leaders in curriculum supervision and development, was sent to the educational administrators of the 60 school systems and councils participating in the study.

The findings show marked uniformity in the organization of television curriculum committees in both systems and councils. Every committee has a high proportion of identical educational specialties and member responsibilities. These similarities correlated closely with the recommendations of educational leaders in curriculum supervision and development. Both system and council committees lack specialists who could have significant impact on the quality of television lessons produced. Notably absent for example are research and evaluation specialists and educational psychologists.

It is found, further, that there is little consistency in the operational procedures of television curriculum committees in either the school systems or the councils studied. This fact together with the similarity found in organization, leads to the conclusion that television curriculum program services are comparably effective, or ineffective, in both systems and councils. An "instructional systems" approach to the development of courses of study for television is the major recommendation of the study.

A STUDY OF THE FORM AND FUNCTION
OF INSTRUCTIONAL TELEVISION
CURRICULUM COMMITTEES

By

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A THESIS

Submitted to
Michigan State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

College of Education

1967

G 46964
12-12-67

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

To the many persons who assisted in this study I express my deepest appreciation. In particular, special recognition is due to Charles F. Schuller, committee chairman, for his advice, guidance and cooperation beyond the call of duty. Sincere gratitude is extended also to the other members of the committee, Walter B. Emery, Stanley E. Hecker and Russell J. Kleis, each of whom played an important role in bringing me this far.

A special acknowledgement goes to Clinton T. Cobb for his gracious consideration and cooperation.

Above all, and the reason for it all, to my wife Betty, and children Christine, Jonathan, Daniel, and Peter I express my gratitude and thanks for their sacrifices, encouragement and patience. Living with the old man while the dissertation was being written wasn't much fun.

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Introduction

The utilization of instructional television in our nation's schools has grown phenomenally in the last decade. American education has absorbed this medium into its structure and it has become an accepted journeyman in the educational media family.

As instructional television continues to be incorporated into the classrooms of America and used to develop our students' knowledge, skills and attitudes, the quest of excellence must be pursued. Educators must constantly hold instructional television to the task of providing quality education. The concept of quality in the television lesson should be expected to emerge in the developing content of the lesson. Quality, above all, is the raison d'etre of instructional television and consequently should be guaranteed so that educational excellence in instructional television does not "die aborning."

Developing the content of a television lesson is a complex process. The involvements of many kinds of people, many kinds of non-personal factors as well as many and diverse relationships among its elements and a state of continual change are part of the process of developing a television lesson.

Because of the interlacing of these many elements of the tangible and intangible, research findings cannot develop into sources of absolutes. But research can force introspection, introduce systems for accountability and engender responsibility. This study proposes that certain observations in the development of curriculum for televising have been made and, hopefully, that another step has been taken toward meeting a major charge of education: the pursuit of excellence.

Importance and Need of the Study

Delineation of Instructional Television Effort

During the last decade as instructional television was emerging on the educational scene, it stimulated many research projects. A review of the abstracts of these studies attests that a large portion of this research

involved an existing television lesson--an accomplished fact--and had investigated the lesson after it had been produced, televised, and utilized.

The assumption appears in most cases to have been made that the quality of the lessons presented was relatively constant. Little or no attention was paid to the process by which the lessons were developed or the nature of educational planning involved.

An early corroboration of this research gap can be found in the Kumata inventory in which 71 abstracts and 133 articles on instructional television are listed, not one of which concerns itself with lesson development.¹

The National Association of Educational Broadcasters' Bibliography of Research Fact Sheets list seven major areas of research emphasis, all of which are concerned with the "effect of impact" of the lesson after it has been developed and "utilized."²

¹Hideya Kumata, An Inventory of Instructional Television Research (Ann Arbor, Michigan: Educational Television and Radio Center, 1956).

²National Association of Educational Broadcasters, NAEB Research Fact Sheets and Index, NAEB JOURNAL, XXIII, No. 1 (January - February, 1964), p. 79.

Openshaw calls attention to this evident imbalance.

Rather than trying out how to improve the quality and enlarge our vision of imparting information with this valuable medium, research is usually designed to prove over and over again that television can extend the teacher beyond the limit of one moment and one place, and still teach as effectively as a classroom teacher. Nearly any research summary one chooses to read shows the enormous repetition of this one question We should view this condition with great alarm.³

Costello and Gordon mention curriculum only in the context that schools must change their established curricula when incorporating instructional television into their systems. The developing of lesson content has been completely disregarded.⁴

A further affirmation of the lack of information about curriculum planning is found in an evaluation of the MPATI project.

Any educational TV broadcast necessarily makes certain assumptions about the nature of the curriculum and the function that the TV broadcast is to serve in relation to that curriculum.

³Karl Openshaw, "Educational Television and the Individual," (Paper read before the A.S.C.D. Conference on Creativity, Turkey Run, Indiana, October 1, 1962).

⁴Lawrence F. Costello and George N. Gordon, Teach with Television (New York: Hastings House, 1961), p. 132.

Onto whom does the responsibility for curriculum planning devolve; or to put it bluntly, is the curriculum imposed from above, as the "quality-floor" people often imply; or does it develop from active participation of teachers everywhere?⁵

This raising of the question indicates doubt about the existence of a systematic or accepted procedure of curriculum determination for instructional television even after more than a decade of national experience with the medium.

As recently as 1964, Diamond's only reference to curriculum committees was a short paragraph describing the instructional television endeavors of a single school system's broadcasting services.⁶

Edgar Dale, Professor of Education at Ohio State University, noted this unequal emphasis in an address to a conference of audio-visual specialists.

We have not been closely associated with the curriculum field. We do not have adequate curriculum orientation. We are identified more closely with the means of education than the

⁵Egon G. Guba, "Evaluation and the Airborne TV Project," Educational Research Bulletin (October 12, 1960).

⁶Robert M. Diamond, A Guide to Instructional Television (New York: McGraw Hill, Inc., 1964), pp. 111-112.

ends of education. We have not ⁷done the integrating job that is so vital.

The reason for this high concentration of research investigating instructional television lessons after they were a fait accompli can be found in the nature of the medium and its emergence onto the educational scene.

The introduction of educational television coincided particularly well with demands of a rapidly growing educational system.

The abundance of students, the shortage of teachers, and the explosion of knowledge created a need for an instructional medium that could extend the good teacher to many more students. Television could do this, and many educators, with perhaps more enthusiasm than good judgment, became its champions. Although still primitive in its development, it was hurriedly implemented in many schools, colleges, and universities. Therein lies a basic problem. Few changes in education are hurriedly implemented.

In the past educators' commitments to new theories and proposals did not develop with much rapidity and implementation had a slow evolvement.

⁷ Edgar Dale, "Many things We See and Some of Them We Are" (Paper read before the DAVI Conference on Evaluation, Mt. Hood, Oregon, November 24, 1963).

In the case of instructional television, this "adoption lag" was not tolerated and it was thrust, untried, into the classroom. The classroom became at once both the research laboratory and the practice field, and consequently a plethora of research projects were developed to prove that it was the effective educational tool that its sponsors claimed it to be. Since the effectiveness of an instructional television lesson can best be measured by investigating the terminal behavior of the people involved in the learning situation, most research in the developing field was directed toward the completed lesson and its utilization.

The concept and design of the television curriculum and the individual lesson has been a minor concern of the medium's coterie of researchers. How lessons are conceived and developed has not been as important to them as their degree of effectiveness in the learning situation. This focus of attention may have developed efficient measuring instruments and needed conclusions, but by not holding the instructional television practitioner to the task of striving for educational perfection, the quality of most instructional television has remained low. There is evidence to point this out.

A review of pertinent literature discloses that a large portion of instructional television courses, materials used in the classrooms, are not of the high quality that one would expect them to be. Hettinger notes that the National Instructional Television Library staff found few of the 2000 courses being utilized by schools throughout the nation as being acceptable to the library's standards for national distribution. They found that:

Teachers appearing on the television screen do not communicate properly, the programs show evidence of insufficient preparation or rehearsal, and there is an apparent lack of graphics and studio support.⁸

There is a rather serious indictment of both education and the medium of instructional television when one considers that upward of 2000 courses of inferior quality are allowed to exist as valid instructional material and that these courses are being used by thousands of teachers as part of their daily instructional program.

Wigren also recognizes the lack of quality of existing instructional television programming and feels that:

Research is needed to determine what constitutes a good instructional television program as to methodology and presentation of content.⁸

⁸Charles Hettinger, "ETV Technology," Audiovisual Instruction (September, 1964), p. 420.

⁹Harold E. Wigren, "Some Things I've Learned About Television in the Classroom," View (June, 1966), p. 24.

He has serious reservations about the present state of the art.

Are the traditional techniques of programming via television adequate? Do they bring the most effective results? Is it sufficient merely to put a good teacher in front of a camera and tell him to "teach as you've always taught? . . . In a survey of selected instructional television lessons, an inventory was made of the exact time devoted to each mode of presentation on television and a profile of instructional methodology was made. The study revealed that more than 80 per cent of some courses consisted of verbalization (telling and explaining by the television teacher).¹⁰

The National Center for School and College Television, in previewing video-tapes of instructional material made available by seventy-five educational television stations for inclusion in the Center's distribution library, reports that generally the lessons were of inferior quality.

The materials evaluated were from such areas as art, social work, mathematics, science, health, physical education, and music. The Center's report on the area of music sets the tenor for their overview:

Seven authorities in music education and instructional television found little to be enthused about after viewing portions of 70 lessons from almost every telecourse being broadcast in the United States.

¹⁰Ibid., p. 24.

Greatest concern was for lack of musicianship displayed by some of the teachers and the generally poor quality of their teaching.

While concern was also expressed for the evident lack of imagination, creativity, performance, and continuity, special emphasis was placed on the pivotal importance of the television teacher, the quality of his teaching, and the adequacy of his musicianship.¹¹

The existence of poor quality material has deeper overtones when one considers the size of the national television classroom. McKune found that during 1965-66 there were 15,033,178 kindergarten-twelfth grade student enrollments in classes utilizing instructional television.¹²

This large classroom will increase immeasurably in the future because of the developing participation of the federal government in the support of education. Further, this large body of existing material will become the foundation for the production of future material that will be developed for the nation's classrooms.

The nature of the criticisms of instructional television seems to indicate that the mediocrity is a result of inadequate lesson development, design and production.

¹¹ Clarence H. Allen, Ed., National Center for School and College Television News Supplement (Bloomington, Indiana: June, 1966), Vol. I, No. 1, p. 5.

¹² Lawrence E. McKune, Telecourses for Credit (East Lansing, Michigan: Continuing Education Service, Michigan State University), XIII, 1966, p.i.

The criticisms reflect a developmental orientation which is directed at the pre-planning stages of the curriculum.

Assuming that there are educators or groups of educational specialists commonly called curriculum committees involved in lesson development, there then is an indication of a possible breakdown in the methods and procedures used by these educators. Curriculum, lessons and courses of study are people-caused, and the value of instructional television, like all other media of education, is dependent upon the people who plan and develop the nature and scope of its content.

It should be noted that in the literature of instructional television the terms curriculum, lessons and courses of study are often used synonymously. Since the present study concerns itself with the committees who develop television lesson courses, the term curriculum is defined here to mean only the content and structure of those television lessons.

Sources of Instructional Television Lessons

There are two patterns of organization which give source to the instructional television programming used in

our nation's elementary and secondary schools--single large school systems and instructional television councils.

The history of broadcasting indicates an early involvement of school systems in the broadcast medium. Atkinson noted that in 1942 there were twenty-nine school systems engaged in educational radio.¹³ A review of the literature points out that during 1966 all of those twenty-nine systems participated in programs of instructional television and the systems of Oakland, Chicago, Atlanta, Portland, Denver, Detroit, Milwaukee, Buffalo, Los Angeles, Minneapolis, Nashville, San Francisco, and Rochester, N.Y., have been pioneers in both educational radio and television. Thirty-two systems could be identified which were independently producing and televising courses of instruction in their schools.¹⁴

The administrators of these systems select a subject area, direct the development of the curriculum, select the television teacher, produce and televise the lessons and develop programs of utilization, testing, and evaluation. Often hierarchical in nature, their total instructional television operation is system centered, directed to fulfill specific system needs.

¹³ Carroll Atkinson, Public School Broadcasting to the Classroom (Boston: Meador Publishing Co., 1942), p. 2.

¹⁴ McKune, op. cit., pp. 1-473.

The "instructional television council" is a voluntary association of school systems who band together to share the cost and responsibility of instructional television broadcasting. Because of the council's voluntary nature, it is often weak administratively and is usually controlled by a small central staff which often consists of a single overworked individual. During the 1966 school year, sixty-three of these councils could be identified through a review of the literature.

The small staff of the councils have the same responsibility as the administrators of the independent systems--developing a valid, functional program of instructional television.

The aims, objectives, and patterns of operation of both the single school systems and councils closely resemble each other--both are in the same trade, disciplined by the nature of the medium and must follow the same preordained procedures. Curriculum committees charged with the conception and development of the instructional television lesson must then be assumed to be a part of both kinds of organizations.

Statement of the Problem

In the light of findings that the methodology of instructional television lesson development has not been

a concern of researchers and because of the prevalence of low-quality instructional television programming indicating a possible breakdown in the system at that point where curriculum committees should be involved in program decisions, it appeared a study of curriculum committee relationships to current instructional television program development might help point the way toward significant improvement in both the quality and effectiveness of television in education.

Assumptions

It was assumed at the outset of this study that instructional television is of growing importance in the total educational program of our nation's schools and that a study of the existing methods of developing the television curriculum would have validity and significance to the practitioners in the field. A second assumption was that since basic decisions in curriculum development are typically made by curriculum committees, such committees should play a significant role in the development of materials for instructional television.

Hypotheses

In the present study an attempt is made to determine the current relationships existing between curriculum

committees and instructional television programming, to analyze these in terms of their possible impact on lesson quality, and to develop consequent recommendations for a systematic and practical application of curriculum development principles in instructional television programming.

More specifically the following null hypotheses will be examined:

1. That no common pattern of instructional television curriculum committee membership would be found;
2. That all the instructional television curriculum committees surveyed will lack the kind of educational specialists recommended for membership by national leaders in the curriculum supervision and development field;
3. That many duties of a curriculum committee developing a course of study and considered necessary by leaders in the field of curriculum supervision and development, are not performed by instructional television committees;
4. That committee operational procedures will have no pattern of similarity; and

5. That the endeavors of independent school systems will display more organization in instructional television committee membership and function than the councils.

Limitations of the Study

The study will concern itself only with the broadcast services of single school systems who autonomously support and control an instructional television endeavor, and with councils of school systems who cooperatively support and control an instructional television endeavor. This limitation to broadcast services is meant to exclude the closed-circuit operations of educational institutions whose operations are independent and have no council counterpart.

The study will involve only those instructional television program services that could be identified to be producing lessons for kindergarten through grade 6 during the 1965-66 school year.

The study will confine itself to the form and function of groups and not attempt to determine the quality of excellence of the instructional television materials they produce.

Definitions

Channel: The assigned frequency for a radio or television transmitter or closed-circuit modulator.

Closed-circuit television: The use of television, transmitted from cameras to receivers over cable, or by microwave, permitting private reception of programs only by those receivers included in the circuit.

Coaxial cable: A special cable consisting of a center conductor concentrically positioned within an outer shield used to provide low-loss transmission of video and/or radio frequency signals.

Direct television teaching: The presentation of the major portion of a course of study, by the television teacher supplemented by individual study and small group discussions under the direction of a classroom teacher.

Educational Television: The generic term for television programs that are produced with a deliberate educational or enrichment objective either in community broadcasting or in-school use.

Educational television station: A non-profit station owned and operated by an educational institution or school district as part of its ongoing educational program.

Instructional Television: The use of television within the formal classroom context on any educational level.

Instructional television fixed service. A television facility that broadcasts its signal by micro-wave in the frequency range of 2500-2690.

Magnetic tape: An acetate or plastic ribbon coated on one side with tiny oxide particles employed for magnetically recording audio and video signals for future reproduction. Common tape sizes are 1/4", 1/2", 3/4", 1", and 2".

Megacycle: A unit equal to 1,000,000 cycles per second used to express the frequency of radio, television, and other electromagnetic waves. The term is being replaced by megahertz. Hertz discovered the phenomenon.

Microwave Link: A special high-frequency radio transmitter and receiver capable of carrying audio and video signals in a directional line-of-sight "beam."

Open-circuit: A broadcast situation in which programs are radiated for reception by any listener or viewer within range of the station.

RF monitor (TV receiver): The standard black and white home receiver capable of displaying radio frequency signals from open-circuit transmitters and closed-circuit modulators on the standard television channels.

Supplementary television: The use of television lessons that are directly related to the course of study and are presented on a scheduled basis to augment the classroom offerings.

Total teaching by television: The teaching of an entire course by means of television.

Ultrahigh frequency (UHF): A frequency of 300 to 3,000 megacycles per second; includes channels 14-83.

Very high frequency (VHF): A frequency of 30 to 300 megacycles per second; includes channels 2-13.

Video tape recording (VTR): The recording of both the pictures and sound of a television presentation by electronic impulses on a special magnetic recording tape which can reproduce the information when desired.

Review of the Previous Studies of Television Committees and Course Development

A study of the research literature in the field of televised instruction and in the broad area of curriculum supervision and development discloses that a study of instructional television curriculum committee membership and responsibilities and their relation to course development has never been undertaken.

In 1962 Stevens undertook a study from which he developed a profile for educational television curriculum planning for the secondary schools, grades seven through twelve.

The study concerned itself with curriculum development within a functioning instructional television series using as reference for good planning Parker's guidelines for curriculum improvement.¹⁵ Stevens investigated curriculum planning as it related to programs for the secondary grades, through attitudes expressed by the television teacher, administrators and classroom teachers. Ten independent school systems producing television material were investigated.¹⁶ His study did not involve council operations, committee members' specialties, committee members' duties, or committee operative procedures. Stevens' utilization of Parker's guidelines was ideal for his purpose although they were developed originally for the in-service

¹⁵T. Cecil Parker, "Guidelines for In-Service Education," In-Service Education, Fifty-Sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I (The Society, Bloomington, Illinois), 1957, pp. 103-128.

¹⁶Humphrey Stevens, "A Profile of ETV Curriculum Planning for Secondary Schools (Grades 7-12)," (Unpublished Ed. D. dissertation, Department of Speech, University of Buffalo).

training of teachers and lack an instructional television orientation.

Stevens' findings and conclusions do not negate the purpose of this study.

Further, this investigator's personal interviews with local, regional, and national televised instruction practitioners and with curriculum specialists disclosed no evidence of previous research bearing directly on the subject of this study. He did find considerable interest and encouragement for undertaking the proposed study.

CHAPTER II

ELEMENTS OF THE INVESTIGATION

It is the purpose of this chapter to discuss the two major elements involved in the study; television design and curriculum development.

Instructional television programming has commanded a major portion of the broadcast time of the educational television station and most of its development has been in tandem with the emerging educational television service. They have become so interlaced that a study of one cannot be undertaken without an explanation of the structure of the other.

Instructional television also concerns curriculum supervision and development. Techniques and procedures common in programs of curriculum development are also germane to instructional television. Attention is directed then, in this chapter, to the following topics which the investigator feels have special significance to this study.

1. Educational television: concept and design.
2. Instructional television: status and potential.
3. Pertinent considerations in curriculum development.

Educational Television Concept and Design

Educational television was awarded space in the broadcast spectrum by the Federal Communications Commission's

Sixth Order and Report on April 14, 1952. This document expanded the number of television channels available for developing broadcast needs and concomitantly reserved 252 channel assignments (80 VHF and 162 UHF) for non-commercial use. These allocations have been revised several times and the most recent in March, 1966, provided for 116 VHF and 516 UHF educational television reservations.¹⁷

The reservations of these educational television channels were realized only after a long and concerted struggle by a small group of educators and friends who had the vision to recognize the potential of television as a forceful medium in strengthening and expanding our educational system and the dedicated courage to carry this conviction to Washington and the Federal Communications Commission.

How well they succeeded became evident in this statement from the Sixth Report:

We conclude that the record shows the desire and ability of education to make a substantial contribution to the use of television. There is much evidence in the record concerning the activities of educational organizations in AM and FM broadcasting. It is true and was expected that

¹⁷ Educational Television. Federal Communications Commission Information Bulletin No. 16-B, June, 1966, Washington, D. C.

education has not utilized these media to the full extent that commercial broadcasters have in terms of number of stations and number of hours of operation. However, it has also been shown that many of the educational institutions which are engaged in all broadcasting are doing an outstanding job in the presentation of high-quality programming and have been getting excellent public response.

And most important in this connection, it is agreed that the potential of television for education is much greater and more readily apparent than that of oral broadcasting and that the interest of educational community in this field is much greater than it was in oral broadcasting. The public interest will clearly be served if these stations are used to contribute significantly to the educational process of the nation the type of programs which have been broadcast by educational organizations and those which the records indicate can and will be televised by educators will provide a valuable complement to commercial programming.¹⁸

The complete charge to educators that accompanied their prized responsibility was best given by Commissioner Frieda Hennock in a separate opinion in the Sixth Report.

Educational television stations, when established, will do more than furnish a uniquely valuable teaching aid for in-school and home use. They will supply a beneficial complement to commercial broadcasting; providing for a greater diversity in television programming, they will be particularly attractive to the many specialized and minority interests in the

¹⁸Federal Communications Commission, Sixth Order and Report, The Proceedings. (Washington, D. C., May 2, 1952) V. 17, No. 87, p. 4089.

community, cultural as well as educational which tend to be bypassed by commercial broadcasters thinking in terms of mass audiences. It will permit the entire viewing public an unaccustomed freedom of choice in programming. Educationally, licensed and operated stations will, in addition, result in a substantial and beneficial diversification in the ownership and control of broadcast facilities. This would be closely in line with the established commission policy which has sought to achieve such diversification to the exercise of its licensing authority. Finally, educational stations will provide the highest standards of public service introducing non-commercial objectives and activities. They will be a leavening agent raising the aim and operations of our entire broadcasting system.¹⁹

The charge was an explicit challenge. Within a year the first educational television station KUHT went on the air in Houston, Texas. It was followed in the next decade by the activation of sixty-six more stations.²⁰

It is estimated by the end of the 1967 calendar year there will be 147 educational television stations in operation, and based on projects under construction and current FCC applications, there will be 170 stations on the air by the end of 1968.²¹

¹⁹Ibid.

²⁰Television Factbook, 1866 Edition, No. 36. Television Digest, Inc., Washington, D. C.

²¹Letter from Ray Stanley, Chief, Educational Television Facilities Branch, Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education. July 15, 1966.

This growth of educational television can be attributed not only to the dedication and determination of educators, but also to the enlightened interest and financial support of federal and state legislatures. Educational television legislation is on the books of thirty-seven states. Thirty-two states have commissions, boards, or authorities related to educational television. Thirty have appropriated funds for educational television and twenty-five have networks authorized under construction or in operation.²²

A national network of interconnected television stations creating a Public Television Service is the major recommendation of the Carnegie Commission on Educational Television. The Commission had been sponsored by the Carnegie Corporation of New York and was charged to conduct a study of non-commercial television and to focus its attention on community owned channels and their services to the public.

The Commission estimates that about 337 television stations at full practical power are required to give as nearly complete coverage of the population of the United

²² "Survey of State ETV Legislation" (The State Educational Television Authorities, Department of Education, Springfield, Illinois, July, 1966), p. 2. (Mimeographed)

States as is economically justified.²³ Although the format of these stations includes "all that is of human interest and importance . . . and which is not arranged for formal instruction"²⁴ the Commission still recommended that the first eight hours of programming of each weekday carry instructional programs. The report was sent to Congress and the resulting Senate bill made provisions for a national study of the status of instructional television.

On the federal level, the Congress of the United States has been most liberal in financing the medium, directly and indirectly, by legislating laws predicated to the strengthening of education. The most direct support was through the Educational Television Facilities Act, Public Law 87-447, passed on May 1, 1962. It authorized \$32 million over a five year period for federal matching grants to be used in the activation of new educational television stations and for expansion of existing station facilities. The Act, administered by the Department of Health, Education and Welfare, specifies the applicant for federal matching funds must demonstrate financial

²³Public Television: A Program for Action, The Report of the Carnegie Commission on Educational Television, Bantam Books, N.Y., p. 136.

²⁴Ibid., p. 1.

ability to provide the non-federal funds needed for the construction, operation, and maintenance of an ETV station. Thus far 138 grants have been approved for a total of \$26,752,225. Pending applications amounting to 8.6 million when combined with money already granted, exceeds the \$32 million appropriated.²⁵

The National Defense Education Act, Public Law 85-864, through its Title III, provides for the purchase of equipment by schools to encourage experimentation and research to find better ways of strengthening instruction in critical areas. Guidelines for this act permit the purchase of television monitors and associated reception equipment so that schools can utilize existing televised instruction.

Since 1958, Title VII of the National Defense Education Act has obligated over \$8,000,000 for studying, planning, and reporting about educational television.²⁶

²⁵ Educational Television Stations Newsletter. (National Association of Educational Broadcasters, Washington, D. C.) March, 1967.

²⁶ The Financing of Educational Television Stations. (Report of a Study Conducted of ETV Stations, the National Association of Educational Broadcasters, Frederick Breitenfield, Jr., Editor) July, 1965.

This support developed a thrust in research and development and created a base of knowledge from which many definite and tangible results are likely to be realized.

The Elementary and Secondary Education Act, Public Law 89-10, although considered a general education act, contains guidelines that have ancillary benefits for educational television. Under Title I, operating expenses for educational television stations are approvable if the program material televised provides educational opportunities to children in families of low income. Title III guidelines indicate that educational television facilities may be included in supplementary education centers.

Any compendium of major educational television support would be incomplete without due credit being given to the many private foundations who, in meeting the responsibilities of their charters, provided strong support to educational television development. Notable among these is the Ford Foundation, which since 1952 has made grants of more than \$100,000,000 to educational television and its current rate of grant making for this purpose is more than \$10,000,000 a year.²⁷

²⁷ "Comments of the Ford Foundation" (In response to the Commission's Notice of Inquiry of March 2, 1966, re FCC Docket #16495. August 1, 1966, The Ford Foundation, N.Y., N.Y.), p. 1.

On August 1, 1966, the Foundation unveiled an imaginative plan for a non-commercial satellite system indicating a viable interest in supporting and catalyzing the medium. The Foundation envisages a three satellite system that will eventually make available some forty-four channels for educational and instructional television.

Instructional Television

This review has implied that the design of the educational television system serves a major function in American education--that of carrying instructional television to classrooms. But that was not its purpose. Despite the basic intent of its sponsors through proclamation and edict, and in spite of the fact that instructional television programming commands a goodly portion of the educational television station's schedule, it was not the intent of the Federal Communications Commission that instructional television become a responsibility of the educational television broadcast station. Specification of this distinction is found in the Federal Communications Docket 14744 in which the Commission asserts that the primary purpose of the

educational television station is to serve the educational and cultural needs of the community and not the specific needs of the schools.²⁸

None the less, considerable emphasis on serving classroom needs was evident from the beginning. The first television station licensed to an educational institution, Iowa State University, televised lessons into classrooms of Iowa from the outset.²⁹

The emerging medium grew and within fifteen years from the Iowa broadcast, McKune reported that there were 36,469,674 kindergarten through twelfth grade students enrolled in programs of televised instruction. Highest enrollments were:³⁰

Science	2,601,001
English	1,662,024
Art	1,234,408
Social Studies	1,040,383
Music	970,146
Mathematics	667,210
Spanish	571,271
Health and Physical Education	368,619
French	152,598
Reading	133,844

²⁸ "FCC Fifth Order and Report," Docket 14220 Fostering Expanded Use of UHF Television Channels. (Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1952), p. 16.

²⁹ William K. Cummings, This is Educational Television (Ann Arbor: Edwards Brothers, Inc., 1954), p. 37.

³⁰ Lawrence E. McKune, Telecourses for Credit (East Lansing, Michigan: Continuing Education Service, Michigan State University), XI, 1964, p. i.

This large television classroom will grow even more so that by 1971 there will not be many students who will not have had some televised instruction in their education.³¹

There are other factors beyond the perimeters of the educational television station that are adding to this mass television classroom.

In 1963 the Federal Communications Commission approved new rules which permit individual school systems to enter the television broadcasting arena through the Instructional Television Fixed Service. This service set aside thirty-one channels for point-to-point microwave broadcasting in the 2500-2590 megahertz band. Any school system can reserve a block of four channels for their instructional purposes. To promote the maximum and efficient utilization of this service, the Federal Communications Commission further appointed a national committee to determine methods and standards for its full development.

Instructional Television Fixed Service transmitting equipment is relatively lower in cost than open channel

³¹Lester Asheim, "A Survey of Informed Opinion on Television's Future Place in Education," Educational Television: The Next Ten Years, Ed. Wilbur Schram (Stanford, California, Institute for Communications Research, Stanford University, 1962), p. 33.

broadcast equipment and although it requires special receiving antennas and converters for reception, their cost, too, is low. It is possible to provide a transmitter and equip a studio for less than \$20,000 per channel, making this system of broadcasting practical for some school systems under certain circumstances. Since special reception equipment is necessary to receive the television signal, the system can be considered a closed circuit and thus becomes an ideal medium for the transfer of information of a proprietary nature. For example, the Brooklyn Archdiocese more effectively extends the services of their educational specialists than could be possible via an open-circuit channel, and Wayne State University's School of Nursing transmits delicate and restrictive material to Ford Community College in Dearborn, Michigan, fifteen miles away. The immediate efficient and inexpensive transfer of these types of information can be realized through the Instructional Television Fixed Service.

Both the educational television station and the emerging Instructional Television Fixed Service Station can draw upon instructional television tape libraries for a portion of their program needs. Included among these are the Great Plains Instructional Television Library at the

University of Nebraska; the National Center for School and College Television Library in Bloomington, Indiana; and the MPATI Distribution Library at Purdue University. These services are repositories for the many lesson series that are being produced in various production centers around the United States.

Recent technological developments promise to extend the development and utilization of both educational and instructional television programming. Currently available for purchase are video-tape recording units that retail for less than \$2,000, including recorder, camera, and monitor. Manufacturers of this and many other comparable units are pointing their efforts toward the education market.

As more and better low-cost equipment of this type becomes available increased use by the schools in a variety of educational contexts seems highly probable. As that occurs, the need for a sound curriculum frame of reference for instructional television use would seem essential if the mistakes of the past are not to be perpetuated.

Of equal importance to low-cost equipment is the emerging satellite concept of broadcasting. Domestic satellites are being developed that will serve both commercial and educational broadcasting needs. Prior to the Ford

Foundation Satellite Proposal, the Communications Satellite Corporation anticipated that by 1969 it would have an operative system utilizing two satellites providing twelve full-time television channels plus six occasional-use channels. Several satellite proposals have been made and are under consideration by the Federal Communications Commission.

Telstar established the practicability of satellite relay of television signals with its first Trans-Atlantic program from Europe to the United States on July 10, 1962.

As was noted by one observer,

Once a satisfactory communication satellite system is in operation with a sufficient number of ground stations in strategic positions around the world, there is no theoretical obstacle to television transmission from any point on the Earth's surface to any other point with the possible exception of the Polar regions.³³

Implications for education lie heavy in this. On May 1, 1965, the first exchange of intercontinental instructional television took place via Early Bird Satellite between a classroom in West Bend, Wisconsin, and its counterpart in

³²"Is Satellite Act Ambiguous?" Broadcasting, August 8, 1966, p. 69.

³³Martin Pulling, "International Television," European Broadcasting Union Review, General and Legal, 79B, May, 1963, p. 15.

Paris, France.³⁴ In time such exchanges may become commonplace, but educators may still be hard put to find the quality programming that such an exchange should aspire to.

In summary, instructional television has grown beyond the experimental stage and is being nudged and nurtured into a viable entity in education. Its growth and development has been rapid and voluminous and indications are there will be no lessening of instructional television activity in the foreseeable future.

But in retrospect it would appear that the extent of most of instructional television's support is measurable in technical substantives; of towers and tapes, of studios and channels, of machines and other means. Little attention has been given to the raison d'etre of the medium itself, the message. Because television is a powerful medium of communication, the message has been received and accepted with little discontent because it is labeled television.

³⁴ Lee S. Dreyfus and Gary Gumpert, "Students Visit Via Satellite," NAEB Journal, XXV (May-June, 1966), p. 6.

In instructional television the message is education. But a message weakened through poor curriculum development is more harmful when presented on television because the medium not only extends exposure of the message but also tends by its nature to extend an aura of respectability to that message. Thus, instructional television can serve to mask inadequate course planning and ineffective course development. A lack of control or concern for the message may in fact go undetected by some users.

If control and concern are to be kept in harmony with the growth of the medium, then educators should assume, as a corollary, a concentration on curriculum, its supervision and development.

Pertinent Considerations in Curriculum Development

Curriculum development has been described in many ways: as a social process; as the basic re-education and reorientation of teachers; as the inducing and controlling of changes in human relationships; as social or educational engineering; and as a redesign of the school as a social institution. There is no common agreement as to what curriculum development really is; it is perceived to be many things and is found to exist in many forms.

The variety of programs and activities in curriculum development is indicative of the many purposes sought by educators to fulfill the responsibilities of the schools. The goals may range from testing a new program proposal to publishing a study guide to developing an instructional television series. Since there is such a wide variance in objectives and purposes, no distinct single developmental plan can be considered operative in all cases.

People, techniques, procedures, leadership, and resources are all involved and create differences from program to program. Dependent upon the aims and objectives of the program, the various human and material involvements predicate that the processes will be different. However, no matter what identification the processes will have as they are developed, common threads can be found to be constant and consistent throughout all programs.

Techniques and Procedures

As education is attuned to the many personal and societal demands of our culture, it necessitates a constant re-evaluation of its aims and objectives. These changing aims and objectives predicate various developmental plans which in turn cause to be structured various techniques and procedures that can be used to achieve the desired purposes.

Most of the curriculum changes in education are affected through administrators, supervisors, consultants, and teachers. They recognize a responsibility for considering the process and materials of learning as well as the objectives and content. Accordingly, the media to be used, their potential and their particular requirements should be an important consideration. In planning a television series of lessons it is clear that the medium and the message must be objects of primary concern if desired outcomes are to be achieved. The purpose to be attained, the foci of curriculum activity, the personnel to be involved, the leadership and resources available and the particular influence of a particular procedure all weigh upon the selection of the appropriate techniques and procedures to be used. Their careful selection is critical if end results are to warrant the effort and expenditure.

Organizational Patterns for Curriculum Development

Three major approaches seem to have guided the patterns of organizations for curriculum development in American public school systems. Two of them can be thought of as the ends of a continuum extending from extreme

centralization to extreme decentralization of the authority, and the work that result in curriculum development.

The third approach, the centrally-coordinated, falls somewhere between these extremes and combines elements of both. Doll, Passow and Corey³⁵ developed these concepts which are as follows:

Centralized approach. This pattern is based on the conviction that curriculum development should be initiated, managed and frequently conducted by persons in the central office of the school system.

Decentralized approach. This direction maintains that curriculum development is primarily the responsibility of the individual school, its staff and its patrons.

Centrally-coordinated approach. This position holds that both the efforts of the individual schools and the curriculum activities involve staff members drawn from many schools and status positions in the system.

Classification of organizational patterns is not a necessity in curriculum development but such groupings do help to clarify the functions and roles of the people involved. Administrative procedures involving initiation of the program, communication and coordination pertinent

³⁵Ronald C. Doll, A. Harry Passow and Stephen M. Corey, Organizing for Curriculum Improvement (New York: Teachers College, 1953), pp. 3-9.

to it must be determined and understood if a unified comprehensive program is to evolve. The success of any program is dependent upon the nature of the administrative process and a determination of its structure, and a commitment to its function will enhance the probability of success for the program.

Committees and Committee Members

The organization and administration of strategies through which a sequence of procedures become operative in curriculum development is dependent for the most part upon the curriculum committee.

Since curriculum development is extremely complex, it requires many kinds of competencies in different combinations at different points in time and this combination of effort commands a committee involvement. Group interaction develops democratic participation and productivity, and group dynamics is the accepted process through which leadership, knowledge, communication, and the involvement of many positions and beliefs form a consensus.

Much has been written about the group process involved in the development of curriculum and it becomes evident that the processes are susceptible to procedural

and organizational deficiencies.

For a committee to be efficient, a strategy must be created that will not only decrease the normal chance of procedural and organizational breakdown but will also promote conditions that enhance creativity and productive work. An empathy with the delicacies of human relations is the framework of that condition.

Parker³⁶ has described 11 principles which facilitate efficient committee operations:

1. People work as individuals and as members of groups on problems that are significant to them.
2. The same people who work on problems plan how they will work together.
3. Many opportunities are developed for people to relate themselves to each other.
4. An atmosphere is created that is conducive to building mutual respect, support, permissiveness, and creativeness.
5. Multiple and rich resources are made available and are used.
6. The simplest possible means are developed to move decisions to actions.
7. Constant encouragement is present to test and try ideas and plans in real situations.
8. Appraisal is made an integral part of in-service education.

³⁶Parker, op. cit., pp. 103-128.

9. Continuous attention is given to the inter-relationship of different groups.
10. The facts of individual differences among members of each group are accepted and utilized.
11. Activities are related to pertinent aspects of the current educational, cultural, political, and economic scene.

The committee member could be the most important aspect of curriculum development. Outlining the scope of a program, assigning developmental tasks and displaying guidelines for committee interaction are of little consequence in any curriculum development program if the committee participants are not attuned to their responsibilities.

A random collection and assignment of individuals to a committee may well fail to provide a functioning unit. Because the committee will be decisive in curriculum making, concern must be given to its structure and membership as well as to its operations and processes.

The process of selection of curriculum committee members can be a difficult task. Where once these people could be found within a school district, political and social forces outside the districts are now assuming more responsibility and influence. Thus persons must be

designated who are at once competent and who represent both local and outside governmental, organizational, and lay influences.

The criteria from which the selection of these people are made should be related to the competencies the individual can add to the committee function. Koopman³⁷ feels that committee members should have at least considerable competency in the following:

1. School organization and administration
2. Human development and learning
3. Social conditions as they affect the school
4. Scholarship in subject-matter
5. Group processes
6. Helping teachers to identify and solve their problem
7. Instructional materials
8. Evaluation and educational research

The functions, responsibilities and purposes of curriculum committees are susceptible to much variation. If the benefits of the group process effort are to be realized, definite principles for committee form and function should be established. The limits must be set clearly--the nature of the assignment, the time for

³⁷Koopman, op. cit., p. 61.

working, and the relationship with the total program must be understood by all concerned. It is important that the necessary rules of the road be understood and nurtured so that the committee potential be realized.

Administrators and Supervisors

Administrators and supervisors have very special roles to fill. Though they administer the curriculum indirectly, the impetus they provide has an important effect in making the programs successful. Whatever else they may do, these people should provide motivation and leadership in curriculum development.

The superintendent is a most decisive factor. In a large system he may delegate his authority to an assistant superintendent who then assumes the responsibilities of that authority. In a small system he may lack the support of an assistant and performs the curriculum function himself. Within his responsibilities he provides opportunities for participation in curriculum planning, supports current curriculum projects and aids communication among personnel. He must establish organization for improvement; interpret the program to the school board;

seek adequate financing, personnel, and materials; and facilitate lay participation.³⁸

The building principal's potential of involvement in curriculum development is by far the greatest. As the primary supervisor of instruction in his school his instructional responsibilities are extensive. He employs teachers, arranges their schedules, orients new staff members, encourages teachers to evaluate their performances, supports changes, promotes in-service programs, recommends new instructional directions and installs new curricular developments. In short, he is the manager of a crucial educational enterprise a repository of many educational nuances whose value predicates an active and responsible involvement in programs of curriculum development.³⁹

The supervisor's duties predicate his working in many situations and with many people in the school district; consequently he gains an overall view of the educational

³⁸ James J. Jones, "The Superintendent Must Lead in Curriculum Development," Educational Administration and Supervision, V. 45, March, 1959, pp. 91-92.

³⁹ J. G. Umstattd, "The Principal Interprets His Role in Curriculum Development," Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, V. 43, February, 1959, pp. 15-20.

needs of the community. Be he called a "resource person," or simply a "helping teacher," his role is very complex. His major responsibility is to stimulate creative teaching by helping teachers acquire the abilities and understandings which will lead them to richer teaching and learning experiences.

Because of this exposure to an overview of the total educational program, the supervisor develops a sensitivity to curriculum problems and becomes more capable of coordinating the elements of personnel, purpose, and activities in a program of curriculum development.

Consultants

The complex nature of curriculum development frequently calls for specialized competencies beyond those possessed by members of the immediate staff. As such needs develop, sources from outside the local unit are frequently called upon for guidance and direction. Professional educators from colleges, universities, state departments, county offices, regional and national associations, and citizens from within the community, who possess valuable talents, can frequently be called upon to enrich curriculum deliberations.

The tasks and role of the educational consultant may vary according to the needs of the committee he is working with, but he can provide scholarly insights into a specific problem area, and introduce new concepts, ideas, resources and materials that are relevant to his field and pertinent to the committee responsibility.

Classroom Teachers

Teachers have a most direct effect upon curriculum development. The outcomes of curriculum development eventually find their way into the classroom in some measure. At this point the teacher becomes the key factor in the success or failure of the program.

Teachers perform three tasks that develop within them a knowledge and understanding that should be carried into all curriculum deliberations. They work with students, they increase their competencies through in-service experiences and they share curriculum insights with other teachers. Thus, they develop ideas, practices, and evaluations that are unique to themselves but could add a new dimension to the work of the committee.

The Problem of Time

Despite the capabilities and potential of the curriculum committee, it can only function effectively if it operates outside the restrictions imposed by the clock. The number and length of meetings require serious consideration. Most curriculum work is demanding and can be carried on only through the sustained efforts of its workers. It demands a mood, pace, or empathy, and an articulation that cannot be accommodated in sporadic sequences or decimated committee attendance.

The problems of the number and length of meetings will vary with local conditions. The nature of the problem, the personnel and finances available, the in-service techniques and principles employed all influence the policies that effect the time allocation. Without a viable policy, the creative efforts that are possible and necessary for the promotion of good curriculum development may not be realized.

In summary, there are certain general considerations which are important in programs of curriculum development. Such programs are numerous and apt to be distinctive in terms of scope, purpose, and probably in

process. The techniques, procedures, and the people involved all have a unique impact on a specific program, but each program of curriculum development, although distinctive, contains threads in common with other curriculum programs.

CHAPTER III

METHOD OF THE STUDY

The method of the study includes three phases. First, a set of patterns, principles and objectives for instructional television curriculum committees was designed from information collected from national leaders in the field of curriculum supervision and development. Second, a questionnaire based on that information was sent to instructional television administrators. Third, a report and analysis of the returns were made. Phases I and II and an analysis of the information collected from the curriculum specialists are treated in this chapter.

Determining the Approach

It became readily apparent at the outset of the study that data were to be sought that did not currently exist. The study was conducted in an area not previously researched and pertinent information was accordingly not available.

The development of a valid and appropriate questionnaire proved to be a somewhat difficult problem because of the need to collect information concerning the form and function of a committee whose parameters had yet to be defined.

The problem was finally resolved through conferences with the chairman and other members of the writer's guidance committee; additional conferences were held with other members of the University faculty. In addition specialists in curriculum supervision and development were asked for their judgments as to the form and function of the committee. It was assumed that the considered reactions of the above three groups could provide necessary information for developing the required questionnaire.

A letter was drafted (Appendix A) and sent to the executive offices of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development and the Division of Audio Visual Instruction, both divisions of the National Education Association, and to the Michigan Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. The letter explained the problem and requested a roster of 25 educators considered to be capable of offering judgments concerning

the form and function of instructional television curriculum committees. Several members of the faculty of the University were also asked for appropriate lists.

Because the educators receiving the inquiry had a high interest in the proposal, five extensive listings were obtained. The rosters were then alphabetized and compared and the names of 56 people were found to appear consistently on two or more of the listings.

These individuals were then requested to submit opinions concerning the proper form and function of instructional television curriculum committees. Their responses provided the information necessary to develop the questionnaire of the study.

Constructing the Questionnaire for the Curriculum Specialist

One of the requirements of the study was to obtain information from a large number of curriculum specialists located in all sections of the country. Accordingly the questionnaire technique was employed. The appropriateness of this method is pointed out by Good, Barr & Scates as follows:

The questionnaire is particularly useful when one cannot readily see personally all of the people from whom he desires responses or where there is no particular reason to see the respondents personally. This technique may be used to gather data from any range or territory, sometimes international or national.⁴⁰

Regarding this method, they also point out that:

Normative survey method may reveal practices or conditions which are well above average, representing advanced thinking and administration; the method is also helpful because it tends to focus attention on needs that might remain unobserved . . . normative method may call attention to current trends and permit people to evaluate and direct these new tendencies which are taking shape.⁴¹

Realizing that the phrasing of questions would prove to be of vital importance if the responses were to have validity, the identification and form of the questions were constructed upon principles found in Good, Barr and Scates,⁴² and in Payne.⁴³

The first draft of the questionnaire was composed and submitted to members of the guidance committee. Again, other members of the University faculty were asked to

⁴⁰ Carter V. Good, A. S. Barr and Douglas E. Scates, The Methodology of Educational Research (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1941), p. 605.

⁴¹ Ibid, p. 292.

⁴² Ibid., pp. 337-344.

⁴³ Stanley L. Payne, The Art of Asking Questions (New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1951), pp. 5-125.

offer constructive criticism. Several modifications and recommendations concerning question content and form were incorporated into a revised draft. The instrument and a cover letter (Appendix A) were printed and mailed to the 56 curriculum and supervision specialists along with return envelopes. There were 31 usable questionnaires returned and a report of the findings is provided later in this chapter.

Constructing the Questionnaire for the Instructional Television Administrators

A questionnaire for the instructional television administrators was then developed from the responses in the 31 instruments returned from the curriculum specialists. That information was analyzed, duplications were eliminated, and ambiguities clarified. The refined information was then constructed into a functional format and distributed for constructive criticism.

Once again, members of the guidance committee and faculty members were asked to offer recommendations. The questionnaire was also examined by several members of the Michigan Department of Education. A draft was further submitted to the coordinators of three randomly selected

instructional television production centers for trial completions and comments on design and method.

The resulting instrument (Appendix B) was then printed and submitted by mail to the administrators of 32 single public school instructional television production centers and 63 instructional television councils. The list of these administrators was developed from the collective recommendations of the executive offices of the Division of Audio-Visual Instruction of the National Education Association and the National Association of Educational Broadcasters. Additional names were secured from a check of the literature of the field. There were 19 usable returns from the single systems and 41 usable returns from instructional television councils.

Recommendations of Curriculum Specialists
for Committee Form and Function

The preceding has been an overview of the methods and procedures used for collecting data for the study. One of the procedures required the collection of information from a large number of curriculum specialists which would then be incorporated in the final questionnaire to be sent to the school systems and councils.

A review of the literature on curriculum development indicates that it is difficult to find universal agreement on either a definition of curriculum or the curriculum development process. This diversity is likewise reflected in the curriculum specialist responses to the questionnaire. Whether the reason for this diversity lay in the questionnaire itself, in differing philosophies of the respondents or in other factors, it was difficult to generalize sufficiently from the responses to evaluate specific aspects of the proposed questionnaire to be sent to school systems and instructional television councils.

None the less, there was general consensus on the value of the proposed study and sufficient clues here and there to help in refining the instrument developed.

The questions to and responses from the 31 curriculum specialists are discussed below.

Question #1--What educational specialties would you require for representation by the people that you appoint to such a curriculum committee?

The responses to this question were tabulated and analyzed. It can be noted from Table 1 that there was a wide variation of members recommended and a definite lack of unanimity in their appointments.

TABLE 1

INSTRUCTIONAL TELEVISION CURRICULUM COMMITTEE MEMBERS
AS RECOMMENDED BY 31 SPECIALISTS IN
SUPERVISION AND CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

Title	Number Recommending %
School District Subject Matter Specialist	25 78
Curriculum Supervision and Development Specialist	18 56
Classroom Teacher	17 53
Instructional Media Specialist	10 31
Educational Psychologist	9 28
Television Producer-Director	8 25
Building Principal	6 19
Superintendent	6 19
Television Producer	4 12
Television Teacher	4 12
Script Writer	3 9
Television Director	3 9
Librarian	2 6
Community Resource Person	1 3
Higher Education Subject Matter Specialist	1 3
State Department of Education Representative	1 3
Students	1 3
Instructional Television Coordinator	1 3
Research & Evaluation Specialist	1 3
Stenographer	1 3
School Board Member	1 3

It became necessary, then, that every member who was recommended by the specialists be listed on the final questionnaire in order that all recommended functions be considered.

It was recommended by several members of the investigator's committee that different member competencies might be required at different times or may not be required at all. To cover these possibilities the categories "permanent member," "occasional member," and "not required" were incorporated in the questionnaire.

Question #2--What do you believe the committee assignments for these people should be?

The responses to this question were analyzed and tabulated (Table 2). The task was rather complex as it became impossible to find sufficient consensus to ascribe specific responsibilities to specific members. A wide range in direction was indicated by the specialists and most members received many assignments. This could indicate, however, that an interdisciplinary approach to member responsibilities may have been an underlying intention of the specialists.

TABLE 2

INSTRUCTIONAL TELEVISION CURRICULUM COMMITTEE MEMBER
RESPONSIBILITIES RECOMMENDED BY 31 SPECIALISTS
IN SUPERVISION AND CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

Responsibility N-24	Score	%
Ascertain needs of teachers and students	27	87
Determination of course objectives	27	87
Development of course content and scope	26	84
Collect props and resource materials	24	77
Recommend reference books	21	68
Determine number and length of lessons	21	68
Selection and utilization of other media	19	61
Participate in post-course evaluation	19	61
Development of individual lesson content	18	58
Develop and implement program of evaluation	17	55
Selection of television teacher	17	55
Suggest ideas for graphics	16	52
Develop student worksheets	14	45
Final approval of proposed lessons	12	39
Maintain quality control	11	35
Recommend classroom utilization methods	7	23
View completed lessons	7	23
Develop study guides	5	16
Study lessons from other program services	4	13
Develop post-lesson reinforcement activities	4	13
Pre-test lessons in classroom situation	3	10
Develop student testing	3	10
Assist in studio rehearsal and production	2	6
Write scripts	2	6

To further complicate the assignments, in many cases responsibilities were simply listed and not specifically assigned to committee members.

To utilize the information obtained from this question it was decided to extract from the responses only the specific responsibilities listed and to request the systems and council's respondents to match responsibilities with their committee members. No attempt to develop a theory of "who should do what" would be undertaken.

Question #3--What operative procedure for committee functions should be considered?

The responses to operative procedures were less varied than the responses to the other questions. There appears to be no difference from the procedures of curriculum committees functioning in education generally. The specialists concurred that the development of a curriculum for television has no unique requirements that would call for committee operational procedures not already established and proven functional in other educational settings.

From the responses the following four concerns could be defined:

1. Number of committees involved?
2. How are members selected?
3. How many members do committees have?
4. How many times a year do they meet?

Question #4--What in-service preparation do you feel these people should undertake in readying themselves for this assignment?

There were 31 responses on the question of in-service preparation and all answered in agreement that some kind of preparation for the assignment was necessary. Once again a wide variation of opinion was noted. To say the least, the kind of training needed is seen in many possible forms. The range of possibilities is suggested by the following recommendations contained in the responses.

1. Visit participating schools
2. Talk to administrators
3. Talk to teachers
4. Talk to children
5. Talk to parents
6. Familiarize self with texts
7. Familiarize self with resource materials
8. Observe non-TV classroom techniques
9. Instruction in AV materials

10. Study ITV research and literature
11. Visit schools using ITV
12. None at all
13. Review established curriculum
14. Ascertain needs
15. Audit existing material
16. Check new developments in field
17. Study production techniques
18. Visit TV station
19. Study other teacher guides
20. Study curriculum development
21. Obtain learning theory knowledge
22. TV workshops

It would seem safe to conclude from the above information that in-service preparation is considered important, but that the form and substance of it should be determined essentially by the organization undertaking the program. In that sense, the question in its entirety was incorporated in the study questionnaire.

CHAPTER IV

REPORT AND ANALYSIS

In this chapter an analysis is undertaken of the form and function of the curriculum committees for both systems and councils.

The information from both organizations presents the kind and frequency of educational specialists on the curriculum committees, the rank correlation between the curriculum specialist recommendations as to membership and the kinds of memberships found on systems' and councils' committees, and a statistical analysis of the difference between system and council memberships. The information also includes the kinds of committee responsibility each committee member had and the rank correlation between the responsibilities recommended by curriculum specialist and those responsibilities fulfilled by committee members in both systems and councils. The findings further deal with certain committee operational procedures, how committee members were selected, and the kind of in-service preparation the committee member received for his assignment.

Curriculum Committee Membership

The data, the projected hypotheses, and the instrument used to make the investigation suggested a summary of data in several forms. The information obtained from the first question was treated in three ways:

1. Bar graph displays,
2. Rank correlation,
3. Statistical analysis.

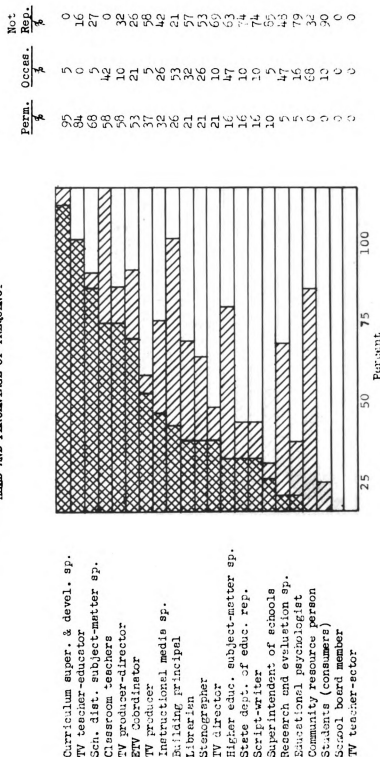
Graphs 1 and 2 were developed to display the kind of membership and their percentage of frequency in both systems and council organizations so that a visual analysis could be made.

The graphs show that there were two kinds of membership reported, permanent and occasional. Eighteen members served in both categories on both systems' and councils' committees.

This division of membership into the permanent and occasional categories could indicate that different specialties are called upon at different times during curriculum deliberations. A review of the literature of curriculum development indicates that this is most often the standard procedure for the development of courses of study in education and appears to hold true in the case of the instructional television program services studied.

GRAPH 1

MEMBERSHIP OF INSTRUCTIONAL TELEVISION LESSON
PLANNING COMMITTEES IN 19 SCHOOL SYSTEMS OF
THE UNITED STATES IN 1965-66, ACCORDING TO POSITIONS
HELD AND PERCENTAGE OF FREQUENCY

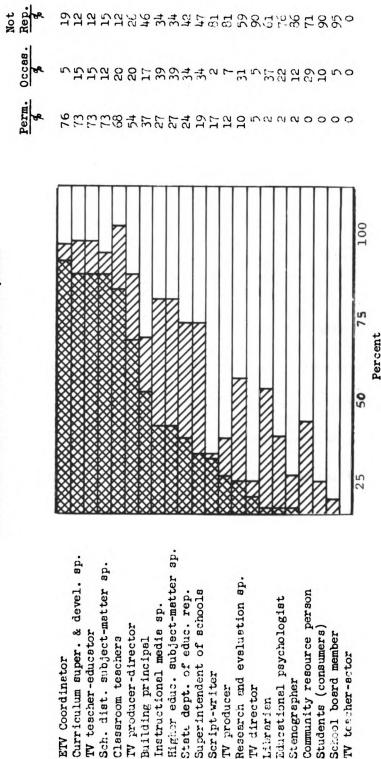


Legend

- ☐ Permanent member
☐ Occasional member
☐ Not represented

GRAPH 2

MEMBERSHIP OF INSTRUCTIONAL TELEVISION LESSON
PLANNING COMMITTEES IN 41 COUNCILS OF THE
UNITED STATES IN 1965-66, ACCORDING TO
POSITIONS HELD AND PERCENTAGE OF FREQUENCY



All of the systems and councils reporting have every specialty lacking representation, with the exceptions of the "curriculum supervision and development specialist" and "classroom teacher" in the systems' committees. This could mean that these two specialties are the only two considered absolute requirements for all committees. In a negative sense it could be an indication that certain decisions basic to good curriculum development are not being made, or are being made by other specialists on the committee not fully qualified to make such judgments. Either of the aforementioned concepts could be of questionable value and should receive further study.

By arbitrarily selecting members who received better than a chance assignment (50 per cent or better) as both a permanent and occasional member, it is noted that the following nine members are found to be represented on both systems' and councils' committees. Listed in a descending frequency they are:

1. Curriculum supervision and development specialist
2. Classroom teacher
3. Television teacher
4. School district subject-matter specialist
5. Higher education subject-matter specialist
6. Television coordinator
7. Instructional media specialist
8. Building principal
9. Television producer-director

Basic in most programs of curriculum development are five subsystems: planning, production, presentation, utilization and evaluation. A review of the above nine members on the television curriculum committees indicates that among them a pattern of involvement exists for four of those subsystems; planning, production, presentation and utilization. Notwithstanding the possibility of an interdisciplinary approach being at work within these subsystems, the planning component includes the "curriculum supervision and curriculum specialist," the "higher education subject-matter specialist" and the "school district subject-matter specialist." The production component involves the "television teacher," the "producer-director," the "instructional media specialist" and the "instructional television coordinator." The presentation component involves the "television teacher" and "television producer." And the utilization component involves the "classroom teacher," the "building principal" and the "instructional media specialist."

This basic grouping of professionals could develop a course of study for televising but the effort could probably be more refined and effective if other specialties were also involved. Responsibilities of the various

committee members will be further treated later in this chapter.

No attempt is made in this study to analyze each member's representation individually. This would be unwarranted since the normative survey does not develop the bank of data needed for individual analysis. Some observations can be made however from singular items.

The involvement of the "educational psychologist" in only 21 per cent of the systems and 24 per cent of the councils appears to indicate for example that consideration of learning theory is not a part of the foundation of most instructional television lessons. Sound suggestions for curriculum development can be derived only from a sound psychology of learning, and the lack of committee interest in drawing upon the available knowledge of educational psychology and its relationship to the media of instructional television should be questioned. Holmes⁴⁴ conducted an analytical correlation of the results of instructional television research and experimentation. He

⁴⁴Presley D. Holmes, Jr., "Television Research in the Teaching-Learning Process" (Published Ph.D. dissertation, Division of Broadcasting, Wayne State University), pp. 74-80.

listed 53 concepts that bear directly on instructional television, its production, presentation and utilization. It would seem logical to expect an investigation of those, and other, research findings to be included in the deliberations of the curriculum committees.

The low participation (16 per cent) of "superintendents" in the reporting systems could indicate that in large, autonomous operations, the superintendent's responsibility to a curriculum committee is being delegated to a staff member, since a method of accountability is built into the systems' administration. Conversely, in a council organization of many school districts, the superintendent is called upon to make initial administrative decisions pertinent to participation in the program. Since many systems are involved in a council organization it would seem that the "superintendent's" high participation (54 per cent) is due to many of them finding it necessary to retain curriculum decision-making responsibilities for their systems.

A "state department of education's representative" appears on 20 per cent of the systems' committees and on 58 per cent of the councils' committees. Perhaps because of the cooperative nature of the councils and a greater need for a support base, both pedagogically and financially,

the state department appears more likely to be represented on council committees, whereas the autonomous and independent nature of the system, or its inherent capability of fulfilling this kind of specialty could create a tendency to abstain from this kind of involvement.

Notable absences of "students" and "school board members" on both systems' and councils' committees could have a direct bearing on the substance of the curriculum. The use of "students" occasionally (as members in two school systems and on four council committees) would indicate that the concepts of pre-testing the lessons and student involvement in determination of needs are infrequently utilized, and that possible methods for increasing the efficacy of the lessons themselves are being overlooked. Doll,⁴⁵ McNally and Passow⁴⁶ and others believe that students, as consumers, if utilized properly, can add a significant dimension to curriculum deliberations.

The occasional use of "school board members" in two councils and their total rejection in the systems is

⁴⁵ Ronald C. Doll, Curriculum Improvement: Decision-Making and Process (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1964), pp. 218-219.

⁴⁶ Harold J. McNally, A. Harry Passow, and Associates, Improving the Quality of Public School Programs (Columbia University, Bureau of Publications, 1960), pp. 103-104.

a finding that deserves further study. Since it is essential for school board members to be sensitively conscious of the educational programs in their schools, it would seem logical to assume that they could play a vital part in television curriculum planning. Krug, Babcock, Fowlkes and James,⁴⁷ and Koopman,⁴⁸ and others feel that school board members play a special role in education and that curriculum involvement is one of their major prerogatives.

The total rejection of the "television teacher-actor" category by both systems and council respondents indicates that a teacher, given a working knowledge of television presentation techniques, is preferred as the television teacher. In a review of the literature there could be found no empirical data to justify that preference. However, Skinner⁴⁹ found that an actor trained to perform as a "good" speaker was able to produce significantly higher scores on immediate tests and delayed retention tests than he did when he acted as a "poor" speaker.

⁴⁷ Edward A. Krug, Chester D. Babcock and John Guy Fowlkes, Administration Curriculum Planning (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1956), pp. 111-112.

⁴⁸ G. Robert Koopman, Curriculum Development (New York: Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1966), pp. 111-112.

⁴⁹ E. D. Skinner, "An Experimental Study of the Effects of Prestige and Delivery Skill in Educational Television," (unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, Department of Speech, University of Michigan), 1963.

The concept of what kind of person, educator or actor, makes the better television teacher should receive further study in terms of student learning potentials.

The "instructional television coordinator" received the highest rating (82 per cent) by the councils' respondents. Due to the organizational structure of the council, many school systems with no single system administratively dominant, the coordinator is the chief, and often the sole, administrator. Consequently he becomes involved with all of its functions, curriculum development included. This could result in his high rating. Another possibility exists that because he is the sole administrator, he was the respondent to the questionnaire and indicated his perception of his responsibility.

The low participation of the "research and evaluation specialist" in both systems (52 per cent) and councils (32 per cent) would seem to indicate that in most instructional television program services there is no professional or formal control of the evaluation process. An informal process may exist such as student-teacher questionnaires, testing, communication with the television teacher, but no specialist is indicated for the evaluation of program if, in fact, one exists.

The ultimate criterion of all instructional programs is the improvement of the quality of education.

This criterion can only be obtained through a continuing process of evaluation which should be built in as a part of the program. The structure of those curriculum committees who have an informal kind of evaluation should receive further study.

Rank Correlation of Committee Membership

Rank correlation analysis is used as a practicable formula for establishing the relationship existing between two variables of the types employed in this study.⁵⁰ It is recommended for about 20 to 40 cases.⁵¹

The information obtained from the curriculum and supervision specialists as to what personnel should be included on the curriculum committee was ranked according to frequency of recommendation (Table 1). A rank correlation was then made of the memberships recommended by the curriculum specialists and actual memberships

⁵⁰ Harold O. Rugg, Statistical Methods (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1917), p. 284.

⁵¹ Karl J. Holzinger, Statistical Methods for Students in Education (New York: Ginn and Co., 1928), p. 280.

reported by the systems and councils to determine what relationship exists between the two.

In order to determine the correlation coefficient between ranks of the curriculum specialists' recommendations and those indicated by the respondents, Spearman's formula for rank correlation was used.⁵²

The procedure involved ranking the specialists in the systems and the councils according to their frequency score and determining the value of the difference between those ranks and the frequency ranks of the curriculum specialists (Tables 3 and 4).

Spearman's formula was then applied:

$$p = 1 - \frac{6\sum D^2}{N(N^2-1)}$$

The coefficient of correlation between the specialists' committee membership recommendations and those memberships existing in 19 schools systems was found to be .44. The coefficient of correlation between the specialists' committee membership recommendations and those memberships in 41 councils was found to be .43.

⁵² Rugg, op. cit., p. 285.

TABLE 3

RANK CORRELATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE FREQUENCY OF
INSTRUCTIONAL TELEVISION CURRICULUM COMMITTEE MEMBERS AS
RECOMMENDED BY 31 CURRICULUM SPECIALISTS AND THOSE
POSITIONS HELD IN 19 SCHOOL SYSTEMS

Title N-21	Specialists' Rank	Systems' Rank	Difference In Rank
School District Subject Matter Specialist	1	5.5	- 4.5
Curriculum Supervision Specialist	2	1.5	+ .5
Classroom Teacher	3	1.5	+ 1.5
Instructional Media Specialist	4	10	- 6
Educational Psychologist	5	18	- 13
Television Producer-Director	6	7.5	- 1.5
Building Principal	7.5	4	+ 3.5
Superintendent	7.5	19	- 11.5
Television Producer	9.5	14	- 4.5
Television Teacher-Educator	9.5	3	+ 6.5
Script Writer	11.5	16.5	- 5
Television Director	11.5	15	- 3.5
Librarian	13	12.5	+ .5
Community Resource Person	18	7.5	+ 10.5
Higher Education Subject Matter Specialist	18	9	+ 9
State Department of Education Specialist	18	16.5	+ 1.5
Students	18	20	- 2
Instruction Television Coordinator	18	5.5	+ 12.5
Research & Evaluation Specialist	18	11	+ 7
Stenographer	18	12.5	+ 5.5
School Board Member	18	21.5	- 3.5
TV Teacher-Actor	18	21.5	- 3.5

TABLE 4

RANK CORRELATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE FREQUENCY OF
INSTRUCTIONAL TELEVISION CURRICULUM COMMITTEE MEMBERS AS
ASSIGNED BY 31 CURRICULUM SPECIALISTS AND THOSE
POSITIONS HELD IN 41 COUNCILS

Title	Specialists' Rank	Councils' Rank	Difference In Rank
School District Subject Matter Specialist	1	3.5	- 2.5
Curriculum Supervision Specialist	2	1.5	+ .5
Classroom Teacher	3	1.5	+ 1.5
Instructional Media Specialist	4	7.5	- 3.5
Educational Psychologist	5	15	- 10.0
Television Producer-Director	6	6	0
Building Principal	7.5	10.5	- 3.0
Superintendent	7.5	10.5	- 3.0
Television Producer	9.5	16.5	- 7.0
Television Teacher-Educator	9.5	3.5	+ 6.0
Script Writer	11.5	16.5	- 5.0
Television Director	11.5	19.5	- 8.0
Librarian	13	13	0
Community Resource Person	18	14	+ 4.0
Higher Education Subject Matter Specialist	18	7.5	+ 10.5
State Department of Education Specialist	18	9	+ 9.0
Students	18	19.5	- 1.5
Instructional Television Coordinator	18	5	+ 13.0
Research & Evaluation Specialist	18	12	+ 6.0
Stenographer	18	18	0
School Board Member	18	21	- 3.0
TV Teacher-Actor	18	22	- 4.0

According to Baggerly⁵³ in order to be statistically significant a coefficient of correlation computed between 22 pairs of measures has to be .428 to be significant at the .05 level and .562 at the .01 level. In these cases both are found to be statistically significant at the .05 level.

It is therefore safe to conclude that there is a strong relationship between the committee members recommended by the specialists and those members found to exist on both systems and councils curriculum committees.

Statistical Analysis of the Frequency of Membership

Because 13 school systems and 22 councils declined to participate in the research and since the growth of instructional television predicts the formation of additional curriculum committees in emerging instructional television program services, it was decided that the information concerning committee membership be treated further through statistical analysis.

Tabulations were made of the above percentages for both systems and councils. The statistical analysis consisted of the determination of a critical ratio between

⁵³Ibid., p. 191.

the difference of the proportions between the systems' membership ratings and the councils' membership ratings. McNemar⁵⁴ describes this analysis indicating the following formula, which was the one used.

$$\frac{CR = p - \tilde{p}}{\delta p}$$

The council members' percentage is represented by $\tilde{p}$ and the systems membership percentage is represented by p . The latter is used as the theoretical value. In computing these data the standard error of the percentage (δp) was obtained by using Nomograph No. 25 in Dunlap and Kurtz.⁵⁵ The level of significance of the difference of proportions was secured by the use of Table E in McNemar.⁵⁶

The treatment of these data through this analysis produced statistical significance that would warrant conclusions that are reasonably illustrative of the total population. Applying the null hypothesis that there is no difference between the groups being observed and compared,

⁵⁴Quinn McNemar, Psychological Statistics (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1949).

⁵⁵J. W. Dunlap and A. K. Kurtz, Handbook of Statistical Nomographs, Tables and Formulas (New York: World Book Co., 1932).

⁵⁶McNemar, op. cit., p. 352.

the data show a statistical significant difference existing at both the one per cent or five per cent levels. This warrants the rejection of the null hypothesis on the basis that in 95 or 99 times out of a hundred would you obtain a difference equal to or greater than that reported. Assuming that no other factors are introduced, the patterns displayed in Tables 5 to 26 are those most likely to exist in the remainder of the population and most likely to be adopted by emerging curriculum committees.

The concept of "critical ratio" (CR) expresses the relationship of a statistic to its standard deviation. The use of the critical ratio allows for the determination of statistically significant differences between comparable statistics. In this study, this statistical procedure is used to compare percentages on the basis of differences in the percentage of an observed group, the councils, against a theoretical group, the systems. The value of the "critical ratio" has been compared with the normal probability table to ascertain a level of significance at which this difference of percentages can be accepted or rejected for a comparison of individual items.⁵⁷

⁵⁷ Helen M. Walker, Elementary Statistical Methods (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1943), p. 357; see also Deobold B. VanDalen, Understanding Educational Research (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1962), p. 304; and J. P. Guilford, Fundamental Statistics in Psychology and Education (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1942), p. 298.

TABLE 5

COMPARISON OF THE FREQUENCY OF MEMBERSHIP OF SCHOOL BOARD MEMBERS
ON INSTRUCTIONAL TELEVISION CURRICULUM COMMITTEE IN
19 SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND 41 COUNCILS

	System		Council		CR*	S#
	Score	%	Score	%		
Permanent Member	0		0			
Occasional Member	0		2	.05	1.61	NS ^o
Not Required	17	.90	32	.78	1.85	NS
Not Available	2	.10	7	.17	1.21	NS

*CR = Critical Ratio

#S = Statistical Difference

^oNS = Not Significant

TABLE 6

COMPARISON OF THE FREQUENCY OF MEMBERSHIP OF TELEVISION PRODUCER-DIRECTOR
ON INSTRUCTIONAL TELEVISION CURRICULUM COMMITTEES IN
19 SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND 41 COUNCILS

	System		Council		CR*	S#
	Score	%	Score	%		
Permanent Member	11	.60	22	.54	0.77	NS
Occasional Member	2	.10	8	.20	1.61	NS
Not Required	0		2	.05	1.61	NS
Not Available	0		0			

TABLE 7

COMPARISON OF THE FREQUENCY OF MEMBERSHIP OF TELEVISION PRODUCER
ON INSTRUCTIONAL TELEVISION CURRICULUM COMMITTEES IN
19 SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND 41 COUNCILS

	System		Council		CR*	S#
	Score	%	Score	%		
Permanent Member	7	.37	5	.12	4.90	1%
Occasional Member	1	.05	3	.07	0.50	NS
Not Required	0		1	.02	0.95	NS
Not Available	0					

TABLE 8

COMPARISON OF THE FREQUENCY OF MEMBERSHIP OF TELEVISION DIRECTOR
ON INSTRUCTIONAL TELEVISION CURRICULUM COMMITTEES IN
19 SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND 41 COUNCILS

	System		Council		CR*	S#
	Score	%	Score	%		
Permanent Member	5	.26	3	.07	4.76	1%
Occasional Member	3	.16	2	.05	2.41	2%
Not Required	0		4	.09	2.05	5%
Not Available	0		0			

TABLE 9

COMPARISON OF THE FREQUENCY OF MEMBERSHIP OF CURRICULUM SUPERVISOR AND
DEVELOPMENT SPECIALIST ON INSTRUCTIONAL TELEVISION CURRICULUM
COMMITTEES IN 19 SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND 41 COUNCILS

	System		Council		CR*	S#
	Score	%	Score	%		
Permanent Member	18	.95	30	.73	3.19	1%
Occasional Member	1	.05	6	.15	1.79	NS
Not Required	0		4	.10	2.13	5%
Not Available	0		1	.02	0.95	NS

TABLE 10

COMPARISON OF THE FREQUENCY OF MEMBERSHIP OF CLASSROOM TEACHERS
ON INSTRUCTIONAL TELEVISION CURRICULUM COMMITTEES IN
19 SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND 41 COUNCILS

	System		Council		CR*	S#
	Score	%	Score	%		
Permanent Member	11	.58	28	.68	1.39	NS
Occasional Member	8	.42	8	.19	3.78	1%
Not Required	0		4	.10	2.13	5%
Not Available	0		1	.03	2.15	5%

TABLE 11

COMPARISON OF THE FREQUENCY OF MEMBERSHIP OF HIGHER EDUCATIONAL SUBJECT
MATTER SPECIALIST ON INSTRUCTIONAL TELEVISION CURRICULUM
COMMITTEES IN 19 SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND 41 COUNCILS

	System		Council		CR*	S#
	Score	%	Score	%		
Permanent Member	3	.16	11	.27	1.59	NS
Occasional Member	9	.47	16	.39	1.58	NS
Not Required	7	.37	12	.29	1.13	NS
Not Available	0		2	.05	1.61	NS

TABLE 12

COMPARISON OF THE FREQUENCY OF MEMBERSHIP OF BUILDING PRINCIPAL
ON INSTRUCTIONAL TELEVISION CURRICULUM COMMITTEES IN
19 SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND 41 COUNCILS

	System		Council		CR*	S#
	Score	%	Score	%		
Permanent Member	5	.26	15	.37	1.47	NS
Occasional Member	10	.53	7	.17	6.21	1%
Not Required	4	.21	18	.44	2.99	1%
Not Available	0		1	.02	0.95	NS

TABLE 13

COMPARISON OF THE FREQUENCY OF MEMBERSHIPS OF STUDENTS ON
INSTRUCTIONAL TELEVISION CURRICULUM COMMITTEES IN
19 SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND 41 COUNCILS

	System		Council		CR*	S#
	Score	%	Score	%		
Permanent Member	0		0			
Occasional Member	2	.10	4	.09	0.23	NS
Not Required	17	.90	35	.86	0.89	NS
Not Available	0		2	.05	1.61	NS

TABLE 14

COMPARISON OF THE FREQUENCY OF MEMBERSHIP OF TELEVISION COORDINATOR
ON INSTRUCTIONAL TELEVISION CURRICULUM COMMITTEES
IN 19 SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND 41 COUNCILS

	System		Council		CR*	S#
	Score	%	Score	%		
Permanent Member	10	.53	31	.76	3.48	1%
Occasional Member	4	.21	2	.05	5.16	1%
Not Required	4	.21	5	.12	1.76	NS
Not Available	1	.05	3	.07	5.00	1%

TABLE 15

COMPARISON OF THE FREQUENCY OF MEMBERSHIP OF LIBRARIAN ON
INSTRUCTIONAL TELEVISION CURRICULUM COMMITTEES IN
19 SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND 41 COUNCILS

	System		Council		CR*	S#
	Score	%	Score	%		
Permanent Member	3	.16	1	.02	6.90	1%
Occasional Member	6	.31	15	.37	2.66	1%
Not Required	10	.53	20	.49	0.51	NS
Not Available	0		5	.12	2.35	2%

TABLE 16

COMPARISON OF THE FREQUENCY OF MEMBERSHIP OF SCRIPT-WRITER ON
INSTRUCTIONAL TELEVISION CURRICULUM COMMITTEES IN
19 SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND 41 COUNCILS

	System		Council		CR*	S#
	Score	%	Score	%		
Permanent Member	3	.16	7	.17	0.17	NS
Occasional Member	2	.10	1	.02	3.81	1%
Not Required	11	.58	23	.56	0.26	NS
Not Available	3	.16	10	.24	3.64	1%

TABLE 17

COMPARISON OF THE FREQUENCY OF MEMBERSHIP OF SCHOOL DISTRICT SUBJECT
MATTER SPECIALIST ON INSTRUCTIONAL TELEVISION CURRICULUM
COMMITTEES IN 19 SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND 41 COUNCILS

	System		Council		CR*	S#
	Score	%	Score	%		
Permanent Member	13	.68	30	.73	0.72	NS
Occasional Member	1	.05	5	.12	1.37	NS
Not Required	5	.26	5	.12	2.75	1%
Not Available			1	.02	0.95	NS

TABLE 18

COMPARISON OF THE FREQUENCY OF MEMBERSHIP OF STATE DEPARTMENT OF
EDUCATION REPRESENTATIVE ON INSTRUCTIONAL TELEVISION CURRICULUM
COMMITTEES IN 19 SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND 41 COUNCILS

	System		Council		CR*	S#
	Score	%	Score	%		
Permanent Member	3	.16	10	.24	1.21	NS
Occasional Member	2	.10	14	.34	3.24	1%
Not Required	13	.68	14	.34	4.59	1%
Not Available	1	.05	3	.07	0.50	NS

TABLE 19

COMPARISON OF THE FREQUENCY OF MEMBERSHIP OF SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENT
ON INSTRUCTIONAL TELEVISION CURRICULUM COMMITTEES IN
19 SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND 41 COUNCILS

	System		Council		CR*	S#
	Score	%	Score	%		
Permanent Member	2	.10	8	.20	1.61	NS
Occasional Member	1	.05	14	.34	3.92	1%
Not Required	13	.68	17	.42	3.42	1%
Not Available	3	.16	2	.04	3.87	1%

TABLE 20

COMPARISON OF THE FREQUENCY OF MEMBERSHIP OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGIST
ON INSTRUCTIONAL TELEVISION CURRICULUM COMMITTEE IN
19 SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND 41 COUNCILS

	System		Council		CR*	S#
	Score	%	Score	%		
Permanent Member	1	.05	1	.02	1.43	NS
Occasional Member	3	.16	9	.22	0.94	NS
Not Required	14	.74	20	.49	3.21	1%
Not Available	1	.05	11	.27	3.19	1%

TABLE 21

COMPARISON OF THE FREQUENCY OF MEMBERSHIP OF TELEVISION TEACHER-EDUCATOR
ON INSTRUCTIONAL TELEVISION CURRICULUM COMMITTEES IN
19 SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND 41 COUNCILS

	System		Council		CR*	S#
	Score	%	Score	%		
Permanent Member	16	.84	30	.73	1.59	NS
Occasional Member	0	.00	6	.15	2.68	1%
Not Required	3	.16	2	.05	3.55	1%
Not Available	0		3	.07	1.75	NS

TABLE 22

COMPARISON OF THE FREQUENCY OF MEMBERSHIP OF TELEVISION TEACHER-ACTOR
ON INSTRUCTIONAL TELEVISION CURRICULUM COMMITTEES IN
19 SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND 41 COUNCILS

	System		Council		CR*	S#
	Score	%	Score	%		
Permanent Member	0		0			
Occasional Member	0		0			
Not Required	0		1	.02	0.95	NS
Not Available	0		5	.12	2.35	2%

TABLE 23

COMPARISON OF THE FREQUENCY OF MEMBERSHIP OF INSTRUCTIONAL MEDIA
SPECIALIST ON INSTRUCTIONAL TELEVISION CURRICULUM COMMITTEES
IN 19 SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND 41 COUNCILS

	System		Council		CR*	S#
	Score	%	Score	%		
Permanent Member	6	.32	12	.29	4.28	1%
Occasional Member	5	.26	16	.39	1.71	NS
Not Required	7	.37	9	.22	2.34	2%
Not Available	1	.05	4	.10	1.06	NS

TABLE 24

COMPARISON OF THE FREQUENCY OF MEMBERSHIP OF RESEARCH AND
EVALUATION SPECIALIST ON INSTRUCTIONAL TELEVISION
CURRICULUM COMMITTEES IN 19 SCHOOL
SYSTEMS AND 41 COUNCILS

	System		Council		CR*	S#
	Score	%	Score	%		
Permanent Member	1	.05	4	.10	1.06	NS
Occasional Member	9	.47	13	.32	2.08	5%
Not Required	7	.37	13	.32	0.69	NS
Not Available	2	.11	11	.26	2.27	5%

TABLE 25

COMPARISON OF THE FREQUENCY OF MEMBERSHIP OF STENOGRAPHER
ON INSTRUCTIONAL TELEVISION CURRICULUM COMMITTEES IN
19 SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND 41 COUNCILS

	System		Council		CR*	S#
	Score	%	Score	%		
Permanent Member	4	.21	1	.02	9.05	1%
Occasional Member	5	.26	5	.12	2.75	1%
Not Required	7	.37	27	.66	3.92	1%
Not Available	3	.16	8	.20	6.62	1%

TABLE 26

COMPARISON OF THE FREQUENCY OF MEMBERSHIP OF COMMUNITY RESOURCE PERSON
ON INSTRUCTIONAL TELEVISION CURRICULUM COMMITTEES IN
19 SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND 41 COUNCILS

	System		Council		CR*	S#
	Score	%	Score	%		
Permanent Member	0		0			
Occasional Member	13	.68	12	.29	5.49	1%
Not Required	5	.26	22	.54	3.59	1%
Not Available	1	.05	7	.17	2.07	5%

Dimensions of Committee Members' Responsibilities

The second section of the questionnaire (Appendix B) consisted of a matrix on which the respondents were requested to indicate the specific responsibilities fulfilled by each type of committee member.

The responsibilities indicated were those recommended by the curriculum supervision and development specialists.

Because function is the purpose of the curriculum committee, the fulfilling of a specific responsibility is more important than the specialty of the person performing it. Committees function through interaction and exchange of ideas, so different people with different specialties could therefore fulfill the same responsibility.

Regardless of the theory as to the duties which the committee members should have in connection with curriculum development, an attempt has been made in this study to discover what actual responsibilities, if any, these various individuals have had or are having in connection with curriculum development in the systems and councils studied, as compared with those responsibilities recommended by the curriculum specialists.

Rank Correlation of Curriculum Committee Responsibilities

The information obtained from the curriculum and supervision specialists as to what responsibilities should be assigned to the curriculum committee members was ranked according to frequency of recommendation. A rank correlation was then made of the responsibilities fulfilled by the committee members reported by the systems and councils to determine what relationship exists between the two.

In order to determine this coefficient of correlation, Spearman's formula

$$p = 1 - \frac{6\sum D^2}{N(N^2-1)}$$

was once again used. Tables 27 and 28 provided the data that was inserted into the formula.

TABLE 27

RANK CORRELATION BETWEEN RESPONSIBILITIES RECOMMENDED
BY SPECIALISTS AND THOSE PERFORMED
BY SYSTEMS' COMMITTEE MEMBERS

Responsibility N-24	Specialists' Rank	Systems' Rank	Difference In Rank
Ascertain needs of teachers and students	1.5	1	+ .5
Determination of course objectives	1.5	3	- 1.5
Final approval of proposed lessons	14	9	+ 5.0
Development of course content and scope	3	4	- 1.0
Recommend classroom utilization methods	16.5	10	+ 6.5
Selection and utilization of other media	7.5	6	+ 1.5
Recommend reference books	5.5	7	- 1.5
Development of individual lesson content	9	16	- 7.0
Develop student worksheets	13	17	- 4.0
Maintain quality control	15	11	+ 4.0
Develop and implement program of evaluation	10.5	13	- 2.5
Collect props and resource materials	4	19	- 15.0
Participate in post-course evaluation	7.5	5	+ 2.5
Develop post-lesson reinforcement activities	19.5	15	+ 4.5
Determine number and length of lessons	5.5	8	- 2.5
Study lessons from other program services	19.5	14	+ 5.5
Pre-test lessons in classroom situation	21.5	23	- 1.5
Suggest ideas for graphics	12	21	- 9.0
Assist in studio rehearsal and production	23.5	20	+ 3.5
Selection of TV teacher	10.5	12	- 1.5
Develop student testing	21.5	22	- .5
Develop study guides	18	18	.0
Write scripts	23.5	24	- .5
View completed lessons	16.5	2	+ 14.5

TABLE 28

RANK CORRELATION BETWEEN RESPONSIBILITIES RECOMMENDED
BY SPECIALISTS AND THOSE PERFORMED
BY COUNCILS' COMMITTEE MEMBERS

Responsibility N-24	Specialists' Rank	Council' Rank	Difference In Rank
Ascertain needs of teachers and students	1.5	1	+ .5
Determination of course objectives	1.5	2	- .5
Final approval of proposed lessons	14	18	- 4.0
Development of course content and scope	3	3	0
Recommend classroom utilization methods	16.5	5	+ 11.5
Selection and utilization of other media	7.5	9	- 1.5
Recommend reference books	5.5	6	- .5
Development of individual lesson content	9	16	- 7.0
Develop student worksheets	13	19	- 6.0
Maintain quality control	15	11	+ 4.0
Develop and implement program of evaluation	10.5	10	+ .5
Collect props and resource materials	4	21	- 17.0
Participate in post-course evaluation	7.5	4	+ 3.5
Develop post-lesson reinforcement activities	19.5	14	+ 5.5
Determine number and length of lessons	5.5	12	- 6.5
Study lessons from other program services	19.5	8	+ 11.5
Pre-test lessons in classroom situation	21.5	20	+ 1.5
Suggest ideas for graphics	12	15	- 3.0
Assist in studio rehearsal and production	23.5	22	+ 1.5
Selection of TV teacher	10.5	13	- 2.5
Develop student testing	21.5	23	- 1.5
Develop study guides	18	17	+ 1.0
Write scripts	23.5	24	- .5
View completed lessons	16.5	7	+ 9.5

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It was found that the coefficient correlation between the responsibilities recommended by the curriculum specialists and those responsibilities being fulfilled by the committees in the 19 school systems was .583. The coefficient correlation between the responsibilities recommended by the curriculum specialists and those responsibilities being assumed by the committees in the 41 councils was .561.

Baggerly⁵⁸ notes that in order to be statistically significant a coefficient of correlation computed between 24 pairs of measures has to be at least .537 to be significant at the .01 level. Twenty-four (24) measures were computed in this case and since the systems coefficient is .583 and the councils coefficient is .561, both significant at the .01 level, it is therefore safe to conclude that there is a strong relationship between the responsibilities recommended by the specialists and those being fulfilled in both the systems and councils operations.

Further study of the data reveals that a wide range of assignments was reported by the respondents.

⁵⁸Baggerly, loc. cit.

Tables 29 to 49 illustrate the variety of responsibilities reported as being performed by various types of committee members.

A major purpose of the study was to become cognizant of each committee member's responsibilities. Since a marked degradation of scores was noted beyond the first five responsibilities listed, however, a determination was made to consider only the five duties corresponding to the five highest scores of each member.

TABLE 29

MAJOR COMMITTEE RESPONSIBILITIES OF CURRICULUM SUPERVISION
AND DEVELOPMENT SPECIALIST ON TELEVISION COMMITTEES IN
19 SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND 41 COUNCILS, 1965-1966

Duty	Score
<u>Systems - 19</u>	
1. Ascertain needs of teachers and students	17
2. Determination of course objectives	17
3. Final approval of proposed lessons	16
4. Selection of television teacher	16
5. Determine length and number of lessons	14
<u>Councils - 41</u>	
1. Ascertain needs of teachers and students	32
2. Determination of course objectives	28
3. Development of course content and scope	27
4. Participate in post-course evaluation	25
5. Recommend classroom utilization methods	23

TABLE 30

MAJOR COMMITTEE RESPONSIBILITIES OF CLASSROOM TEACHERS
ON TELEVISION COMMITTEES IN 19 SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND 41
COUNCILS, 1965-1966

Duty	Score
<u>Systems - 19</u>	
1. Ascertain needs of teachers and students	15
2. Determination of course objectives	14
3. Development of course content and scope	14
4. Recommend reference books	12
5. Participate in post-course evaluation	12
<u>Councils - 41</u>	
1. Ascertain needs of teachers and students	34
2. Determination of course objectives	31
3. Recommend classroom utilization methods]	27
4. Development of course content and scope	26
5. Participate in post-course evaluation	24

TABLE 31

MAJOR COMMITTEE RESPONSIBILITIES OF TELEVISION
TEACHER-EDUCATOR ON TELEVISION COMMITTEES IN
19 SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND 41 COUNCILS, 1965-1966

Duty	Score
<u>Systems - 19</u>	
1. Development of individual lesson content	16
2. Collect props and resource material	16
3. Suggest ideas for graphics	16
4. Develop study guides	16
5. Write scripts	15
<u>Councils - 41</u>	
1. Develop study guides	33
2. Development of individual lesson content	32
3. Collect props and resource material	32
4. Development of course content and scope	31
5. Suggest ideas for graphics	30

TABLE 32

MAJOR COMMITTEE RESPONSIBILITIES OF SCHOOL DISTRICT
SUBJECT MATTER SPECIALIST ON TELEVISION COMMITTEES IN
19 SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND 41 COUNCILS, 1965-1966

Duty	Score
<u>Systems - 19</u>	
1. View completed lessons	15
2. Ascertain needs of teachers and students	13
3. Determination of course objectives	13
4. Development of course content and scope	12
5. Determine number and length of lessons	12
<u>Councils - 41</u>	
1. Ascertain needs of teachers and students	27
2. Determination of course objectives	27
3. Development of course content and scope	23
4. Recommend reference books	22
5. Recommend classroom utilization methods	20

TABLE 33

MAJOR COMMITTEE RESPONSIBILITIES OF HIGHER EDUCATIONAL
SUBJECT MATTER SPECIALIST ON TELEVISION COMMITTEES IN
19 SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND 41 COUNCILS, 1965-1966

Duty	Score
<u>Systems - 19</u>	
1. Ascertain needs of teachers and students	9
2. Determination of course objectives	7
3. Development of course content and scope	7
4. Recommend reference books	6
<u>Councils - 41</u>	
1. Development of course content and scope	15
2. Determination of course objectives	13
3. Recommend reference books	12
4. Ascertain needs of teachers and students	11
5. Participate in post-course evaluation	11

TABLE 34

MAJOR COMMITTEE RESPONSIBILITIES OF TELEVISION COORDINATOR
ON TELEVISION COMMITTEES IN
19 SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND 41 COUNCILS, 1965-1966

Duty	Score
<u>Systems - 19</u>	
1. Ascertain needs of teachers and students	13
2. Selection and utilization of other media	13
3. Determine length and number of lessons	13
4. View completed lessons	12
<u>Councils - 41</u>	
1. Ascertain needs of teachers and students	28
2. Selection of television teacher	27
3. View completed lessons	26
4. Develop and implement program of evaluation	25
5. Recommend classroom utilization methods	24

TABLE 35

MAJOR COMMITTEE RESPONSIBILITIES OF INSTRUCTIONAL MEDIA
SPECIALIST ON TELEVISION COMMITTEES IN
19 SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND 41 COUNCILS, 1965-1966

Duty	Score
<u>Systems - 19</u>	
1. Ascertain needs of teachers and students	9
2. Recommend classroom utilization methods	8
3. Selection of television teacher	7
4. Determination of course objectives	7
5. View completed lessons	7
<u>Councils - 41</u>	
1. Selection and utilization of other media	20
2. Recommend classroom utilization methods	19
3. Develop and implement program of evaluation	17
4. Participate in post-course evaluation	14
5. Study lessons from other program services	14

TABLE 36

MAJOR COMMITTEE RESPONSIBILITIES OF BUILDING PRINCIPAL
ON TELEVISION COMMITTEES IN
19 SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND 41 COUNCILS, 1965-1966

Duty	Score
<u>Systems - 19</u>	
1. Ascertain needs of teachers and students	13
2. Determination of course objectives	9
3. View completed lessons	9
4. Participate in post-course evaluation	9
5. Recommend classroom utilization methods	8
<u>Councils - 41</u>	
1. Ascertain needs of teachers and students	21
2. Determination of course objectives	18
3. Recommend classroom utilization methods	15
4. View completed lessons	12
5. Develop and implement program of evaluation	10

TABLE 37

MAJOR COMMITTEE RESPONSIBILITIES OF TELEVISION
PRODUCER-DIRECTOR ON TELEVISION COMMITTEES
IN 19 SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND 41 COUNCILS, 1965-
1966

Duty	Score
<u>Systems - 19</u>	
1. Suggest ideas for graphics	12
2. Assist in studio rehearsal and production	11
3. Collect props and resource materials	10
4. Study lessons from other program sources	9
5. Selection of television teacher	8
<u>Councils - 41</u>	
1. Collect props and resource materials	25
2. Suggest ideas for graphics	24
3. Assist in studio rehearsal and production	23
4. Maintain quality control	21
5. View completed lessons	21

TABLE 38

MAJOR COMMITTEE RESPONSIBILITIES OF SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENT
ON TELEVISION COMMITTEES IN
19 SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND 41 COUNCILS, 1965-1966

Duty	Score
<u>Systems - 19</u>	
1. Ascertain needs of teachers and students	7
2. Determination of course objectives	6
3. Selection of television teacher	6
4. Final approval of proposed lessons	5
5. View completed lessons	4
<u>Councils - 41</u>	
1. Ascertain needs of teachers and students	19
2. Selection of television teacher	16
3. Determination of course objectives	15
4. Final approval of lessons	11
5. Development of course content and scope	11

TABLE 39

MAJOR COMMITTEE RESPONSIBILITIES OF RESEARCH AND
EVALUATION SPECIALIST ON TELEVISION COMMITTEES IN
19 SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND 41 COUNCILS, 1965-1966

Duty	Score
<u>Systems - 19</u>	
1. Develop and implement program of evaluation	7
2. Determination of course objectives	6
3. Develop student testing	6
4. Development of course content and scope	5
5. View completed lessons	5
<u>Councils - 41</u>	
1. Develop and implement program of evaluation	17
2. Participate in post-course evaluation	14
3. Ascertain needs of teachers and students	12
4. View completed lessons	10
5. Develop student testing	9

TABLE 40

MAJOR COMMITTEE RESPONSIBILITIES OF COMMUNITY
RESOURCE PERSON ON TELEVISION COMMITTEES IN
19 SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND 41 COUNCILS, 1965-1966

Duty	Score
<u>Systems - 19</u>	
1. Recommend reference books	7
2. Collect props and resource materials	5
3. View completed lessons	4
4. Suggest ideas for graphics	3
5. Participate in post-course evaluation	3
<u>Councils - 41</u>	
1. Development of course content and scope	7
2. Collect props and resource materials	6
3. Suggest ideas for graphics	5
4. Recommend reference books	3
5. Development of individual lesson content	3

TABLE 41

MAJOR COMMITTEE RESPONSIBILITIES OF LIBRARIAN
ON TELEVISION COMMITTEES IN
19 SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND 41 COUNCILS, 1965-1966

Duty	Score
<u>Systems - 19</u>	
1. Recommend reference books	10
2. Selection and utilization of other media	4
3. Collect props and resource materials	4
4. Suggest ideas for graphics	3
<u>Councils - 41</u>	
1. Recommend reference books	12
2. Selection and utilization of other media	11
3. Collect props and resource materials	8
4. Ascertain needs of teachers and students	7
5. Maintain quality control	6

TABLE 42

MAJOR COMMITTEE RESPONSIBILITIES OF STATE DEPARTMENT OF
EDUCATION REPRESENTATIVE ON TELEVISION COMMITTEES IN 19
SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND 41 COUNCILS, 1965-1966

Duty	Score
<u>Systems - 19</u>	
1. Ascertain needs of teachers and students	6
2. Determination of course objectives	6
3. Development of course content and scope	6
4. Final approval of proposed lessons	4
5. View completed lessons	3
<u>Councils - 41</u>	
1. Determination of course objectives	20
2. Ascertain needs of teachers and students	19
3. Recommend reference books	14
4. Development of course content and scope	13
5. Final approval of lessons	12

TABLE 43

MAJOR COMMITTEE RESPONSIBILITIES OF TELEVISION PRODUCER
ON TELEVISION COMMITTEES IN
19 SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND 41 COUNCILS, 1965-1966

Duty	Score
<u>Systems - 19</u>	
1. Suggest ideas for graphics	8
2. Assist in studio rehearsal and production	8
3. Maintain quality control	7
4. Collect props and resource materials	7
5. View completed lessons	7
<u>Councils - 41</u>	
1. Suggest ideas for graphics	8
2. Assist in studio rehearsal and production	8
3. Maintain quality control	8
4. Collect props and resource materials	8
5. Study lessons from other program services	7

TABLE 44

MAJOR COMMITTEE RESPONSIBILITIES OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGIST
ON TELEVISION COMMITTEES IN
19 SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND 41 COUNCILS, 1965-1966

Duty	Score
<u>Systems - 19</u>	
1. Ascertain needs of teachers and students	4
2. Develop and implement program of evaluation	3
3. Development of course content and scope	2
<u>Councils - 41</u>	
1. Ascertain needs of teachers and students	8
2. Develop and implement program of evaluation	7
3. View completed lessons	6
4. Determination of course objectives	6
5. Development of course content and scope	6

TABLE 45

MAJOR COMMITTEE RESPONSIBILITIES OF STENOGRAPHERY
ON TELEVISION COMMITTEES IN
19 SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND 41 COUNCILS, 1965-1966

Duty	Score
<u>Systems - 19</u>	
1. Develop student worksheets	1
2. Develop study guides	1
3. Write scripts	1
<u>Councils - 41</u>	
1. Develop study guides	2
2. Assist in studio rehearsal and production	2
3. Collect props and resource materials	2

TABLE 46

MAJOR COMMITTEE RESPONSIBILITIES OF SCRIPT WRITER
ON TELEVISION COMMITTEES IN
19 SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND 41 COUNCILS, 1965-1966

Duty	Score
<u>Systems - 19</u>	
1. View completed lessons	4
2. Write scripts	3
3. Development of course content and scope	3
4. Ascertain needs of teachers and students	3
<u>Councils - 41</u>	
1. Write scripts	8
2. Suggest ideas for graphics	5
3. Study lessons from other program services	5
4. Development of individual lesson content	5

TABLE 47

MAJOR COMMITTEE RESPONSIBILITIES OF TELEVISION DIRECTOR
ON TELEVISION COMMITTEES IN
19 SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND 41 COUNCILS, 1965-1966

Duty	Score
<u>Sytstems - 19</u>	
1. Assist in studio rehearsal and production	8
2. Suggest ideas for graphics	6
3. Maintain quality control	6
4. Collect props and resource materials	4
5. View completed lessons	4
<u>Councils - 41</u>	
1. Assist in studio rehearsal and production	8
2. Maintain quality control	8
3. Suggest ideas for graphics	7
4. Collect props and resource materials	6
5. View completed lessons	5

TABLE 48

MAJOR COMMITTEE RESPONSIBILITIES OF STUDENTS
ON TELEVISION COMMITTEES IN
19 SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND 41 COUNCILS, 1965-1966

Duty	Score
<u>Systems - 19</u>	
1. View completed lessons	4
2. Ascertain needs of students and teachers	4
3. Participate in post-course evaluation	3
<u>Councils - 41</u>	
1. View completed lessons	6
2. Ascertain needs of students and teachers	3
3. Participate in post-course evaluation	3
4. Suggest ideas for graphics	3

TABLE 49

MAJOR COMMITTEE RESPONSIBILITIES OF SCHOOL BOARD MEMBERS
ON TELEVISION COMMITTEES IN
19 SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND 41 COUNCILS, 1965-1966

Duty	Score
<u>Systems - 19</u>	
1. Ascertain needs of teachers and students	2
2. Determination of course objectives	2
3. Maintain quality control	2
4. View completed lessons	
<u>Councils - 41</u>	
1. Ascertain needs of teachers and students	5
2. View completed lessons	5
3. Determination of course objectives	4
4. Develop and implement program of evaluation	3

An analysis of the committee membership (Graphs 1 and 2) and the committee responsibilities (Tables 29 to 49) discloses an interesting similarity between membership and responsibility.

On the questionnaire (Appendix B) the respondents were asked to match committee responsibilities with the committee members fulfilling them. It was therefore possible for each member to be assigned to the total number (24) of listed responsibilities. One could assume from that possibility that the more important and necessary committee members, as perceived by the respondents, would receive the highest number of responsibility assignments.

Using that assumption as a frame of reference, every member who did not receive at least a 50 per cent (chance) assignment to all 24 responsibilities was deleted from the committee roster.

In so doing it was found that seven identical members remained on both systems' and councils' committees:

1. Curriculum supervision and development specialist
2. Classroom teachers
3. Television teacher
- 4.. School District subject-matter specialist
5. Television coordinator
6. Building principal
7. Television producer-director

When the above committee roster is compared with the committee roster of nine who survived the 50 per cent membership cut (see page 67), it is found that the first seven members on that roster are identical to the members above. Further analysis discloses that all 60 respondents designated ten identical responsibilities within the first five major assignments to their top seven committee members:

1. Ascertain needs of teachers and students
2. Determination of course content
3. Development of course content and scope
4. Development of individual lesson content
5. Final approval of proposed lessons
6. Selection of television teacher
7. Suggest ideas for graphics
8. Collect props and resource materials
9. Develop study guides
10. View completed lessons

The similarity between committee members and their responsibilities in both systems and councils is an indication that a basic core of specialists can be identified as being capable of developing a course of study for television.

An analysis of the nature of the ten responsibilities discloses that they are such that could easily be fulfilled by the competencies of the designated members. However it is safe to conclude that additional refinement and sophistication could be added to the work of the

committee if their rosters were supplemented by the specialists noted to have little involvement as displayed in Graphs 1 and 2.

Although there was, as noted above, a positive relationship between the committee members and their number of assigned responsibilities, two responsibilities were notable by their absence. None of the seven committee members, for either the systems or councils, received a single assignment in "pre-testing lessons in classroom situation" or "developing student-testing."

There was an indication in the analysis of the information found in Graphs 1 and 2 that the low rating for "students" and "research and evaluation specialists" involved concepts not receiving due consideration in committee deliberations. Both of the assignments "pre-testing lessons in classroom situation" and "developing student-testing" are intrinsically germane to "students" and "research evaluation." Their lack of consideration could be viewed with concern and deserves a study in depth.

of

Number of Committees and Members
Working on the Committees

In planning a program of curriculum development, the question arises of what committees are necessary and the number and types of individuals required for their effective operation.

A study of the reported practices would indicate there is little uniformity. The size of the program seems to determine largely what is done. The number of committees used varied from 1 to 15 for the systems and from 1 to 16 for the councils. Committee population ranged from 7 to 17 for the systems and from 4 to 20 for the councils.

The number of committees for both systems and councils raises an interesting question; a small number of committees could conceivably indicate a strong autonomous curriculum control by a few people, or an interdisciplinary approach to curriculum development wherein a small number of specialists from different subject areas contribute their competencies and knowledge to a subject area other than their own. The paradox is formed when one considers that a large number of committees could indicate a democratic design involving many people or an

indifference to the interdisciplinary approach. This concept bears further investigation.

The number of members on a committee in itself is unimportant. Merely collecting individuals and assigning them to a committee does not guarantee a mature working unit. At their best, committees give their members clear, meaningful objectives, along with a sense of significance which encourages exploration of new ideas and new solutions to old problems. Meaningful group dynamics are probably far more influential than numbers in effective curriculum development.

TABLE 50

THE AVERAGE NUMBER OF MEMBERS SERVING ON CURRICULUM COMMITTEES IN 19 SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND 41 COUNCILS AND THE FREQUENCY OF THOSE AVERAGES

System	Members	Councils	Members
2	7	1	4
2	8	4	5
2	9	2	6
4	10	1	7
1	11	4	8
2	12	2	9
1	13	2	10
1	14	11	11
1	15	2	12
2	16	4	13
<u>1</u>	17	3	14
		2	15
N-19		2	15
		2	17
		<u>1</u>	20
		N-41	

Selection of Personnel for Duty
on the Curriculum Committees

The selection of committee members well qualified to work in the various phases of curriculum development is a major consideration. The nature and competency of the member in relation to his fellow committeemen requires considered judgments. Such appointments should be based upon the opinions of administrative decision makers who are concerned with the valid development of the educational program. Tables 51 and 52 reflect the kinds of people who were responsible for appointing members to the curriculum committees reported upon.

A study of all the administrative titles reported by both systems and councils, shows that 15 different people were involved in the overall selection of committee members. This could indicate that there exists no definite procedure within our educational institutions for the selection of curriculum committee members. The appointment of members in the systems was made more often through committee action than in the councils. This kind of determination could mean an exchange of ideas concerning the appointee wherein objective factors concerning the person's ability to do the job could have been more of a

TABLE 51

IDENTITY OF ADMINISTRATORS APPOINTING CURRICULUM COMMITTEE
MEMBERS IN 31 COUNCILS AND THE FREQUENCY WITH WHICH
THEY MADE THOSE APPOINTMENTS

Title	Frequency
1. Superintendent	10
2. Volunteers	5
3. Executive committee	4
4. Curriculum supervisor	4
5. Classroom teachers	2
6. Assistant superintendent	1
7. Elementary supervisor	1
8. Executive committee-Principals-Professors	1
9. Superintendents-television coordinator	1
10. Superintendents-executive committee	1
11. State Department of Education Representative- Superintendents-Professors	1
	<u>31</u>

TABLE 52

IDENTITY AND NUMBER OF ADMINISTRATORS APPOINTING CURRICULUM
COMMITTEE MEMBERS IN 15 SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND THE FREQUENCY
WITH WHICH THEY MADE THOSE APPOINTMENTS

Title	Frequency
1. Assistant Superintendent	3
2. Volunteers	2
3. Curriculum Supervisors	2
4. Subject-matter specialist	1
5. Audio visual coordinator-subject matter specialist	1
6. Superintendent-subject matter specialist	1
7. Television coordinator-director elementary education	1
8. Assistant superintendent-curriculum supervisor- television coordinator	1
9. Subject-matter specialist-television producer- television teacher	1
10. Principals-television teachers-television coordinator	1
11. Subject matter specialist-classroom teachers- television teacher-TV producer	1
	<u>15</u>

consideration in systems selection. In both organizations people were selecting members who would share peer status on the committee. This type of peer selection may not carry educational validity into the final determinations of the committee because appointments might be made more on a friendship or strategic rather than on a competency basis.

Both systems and councils have volunteers serving on their committees. Volunteer membership is of questionable value and suggests further investigation to determine the competency of the volunteer and the factors existing in an organization which lead to the use of volunteers for curriculum committee membership.

One of the systems reporting indicated that the television teacher and the television producer participated in member selection. Once again the value of this selection procedure is hard to determine. Unless the television people are concerned, well-trained, and knowledgeable in educational pedagogy it seems somewhat questionable that their selection would be in the best interests of the committee's effectiveness. On the other hand, with an otherwise sound basis of member selection, it is conceivable that the teacher and television producer could best identify those individuals with

an interest in new developments and creative ability in their execution.

A study of the information (Graphs 1 and 2) reflecting the kinds of people selected would indicate that the person, or groups of persons, making the selection is of little importance. Whether the selection is made individually, or collectively, the same kind of people are assigned in both systems and councils and from that it can be concluded that most administrators believe a basic core of educational specialists is required in curriculum development.

In-Service Preparation of Committee Members

The task of curriculum development considered from any angle is a complicated one. It involves not only knowledge but also certain highly developed skills gained only through study and experience. It involves methodology, a way of doing things. The task of curriculum development for television compounds these concerns by requiring additional competencies of the committee members so that they can more effectively relate subject matter to the unique potentialities of the television medium. Consequently, one would expect that if the committee members didn't already possess

this knowledge pertinent to television that they would have an opportunity to receive the necessary preparation. However the data in Tables 53 and 54 indicate that, in 58 per cent of the systems and 68 per cent of the councils, committee members receive no special training for their assignment. One could conclude from the responses that there might be an inadequate orientation of committee members in the instructional television services reporting.

TABLE 53

IN-SERVICE PREPARATION OF INSTRUCTIONAL TELEVISION
CURRICULUM COMMITTEE MEMBERS IN 19 SCHOOL SYSTEMS
ACCORDING TO KIND AND FREQUENCY OF PREPARATION

Element	Frequency	%
No in-service training	11	58
Conducted workshops	4	21
Possess necessary knowledge	3	15
Group discussion	1	5

TABLE 54

IN-SERVICE PREPARATION OF INSTRUCTIONAL TELEVISION
CURRICULUM COMMITTEE MEMBERS IN 41 COUNCILS
ACCORDING TO KIND AND FREQUENCY OF PREPARATION

Element	Frequency	%
No in-service training	28	68
Conducted workshops	10	24
Visit to production center	1	2
Speech at first meeting	1	2
Observation and group discussion	1	2

Frequency of Curriculum
Committee Meetings

The frequency of curriculum committee meetings is probably relatively unimportant. However in planning a program of curriculum development, consideration must be given to this particular point in a careful planning of the work. It is integrally tied up with other phases of the total educational program. If committee members have major assignments from which they will need to be released, then the frequency of meetings is limited.

Most often the committee member will need to make room in an already crowded schedule for the television meetings and since there is no "professional committee member," the question needing to be answered is this: How frequently should a committee meet in order to retain interest in the work, build up enthusiasm for its responsibility and carry it to a successful conclusion? It should be anticipated that the frequency of committee meetings is contingent upon the scope of the task to be undertaken in relation to the other phases of the members' work load. Table 55 indicates a wide range of meetings were held by the television curriculum committee and it would seem that instructional television has not developed a pattern for the frequency of committee meetings.

TABLE 55

NUMBER OF INSTRUCTIONAL TELEVISION CURRICULUM COMMITTEE
MEETINGS HELD BY 36 SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND 15 COUNCILS
DURING THE SCHOOL YEAR 1965-1966

Systems	Meetings	Councils	Meetings
6	2	2	1
4	3	2	2
9	4	2	3
4	6	1	4
1	7	1	5
2	8	1	6
3	9	1	9
4	12	1	10
1	14	1	12
<u>2</u>	18	1	18
36		1	weekly
		<u>1</u>	as needed
		15	

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

This study investigated the form and function of the instructional television curriculum committees who were involved in the development of courses of study for television during the school year 1965-66.

The curriculum committees investigated were those that could be identified as being administered by independent school systems and those that could be identified as being administered by cooperatives of school systems usually called instructional television councils. A total of 32 such school systems were identified, of which 19 elected to participate in the investigation. A total of 63 television councils were identified, of which 41 elected to participate.

The study was basically concerned with the educational specialties of the various committee members, their responsibility as members of the committee and identification of various procedures used in committee operations.

Specifically the following null hypotheses were examined:

1. That no common pattern of instructional television curriculum committee membership would be determined;
2. That all the instructional television curriculum committees surveyed will lack the kind of educational specialists recommended for membership by national leaders in the curriculum supervision and development field;
3. That many duties of a curriculum committee developing a course of study and considered necessary by leaders in the field of curriculum supervision and development are not performed by instructional television committees;
4. That committee operational procedures will have no pattern of similarity; and
5. That the endeavors of the independent systems will display more organization in instructional television committee form and function than the councils.

Procedure

An open-end questionnaire was sent to selected national leaders in the field of curriculum supervision and development requesting their recommendations as to what kind of educational specialties should be represented on an instructional television curriculum committee. They were also asked to specify what responsibilities they felt

that members should assume to fulfill their duties on the committee and to specify elements appropriate to committee function.

Thirty-one (31) curriculum specialists responded and the information in their returns was analyzed and developed into the main instrument of the study. The resultant questionnaire was then mailed to the administrators of all the identifiable systems and councils in the United States.

Conclusions

The following conclusions are drawn from the findings of the study:

Concerning the kinds of specialists comprising the membership of the instructional television curriculum committees:

1. There is a common pattern of organization of the instructional television curriculum committees in both systems' and councils' program services.
2. A significant relationship exists between the curriculum committee members as recommended by the national leaders in the field of curriculum supervision and development and those found to be members of both systems' and councils' committees.

These conclusions are drawn from the following findings:

- (1) in selecting members who held positions at a frequency of 50 per cent or better on the systems' and councils committees, the following nine members were found to be represented in all:

1. Curriculum supervision and development specialist
2. Classroom teacher
3. Television teacher
4. School district subject-matter specialist
5. Higher education subject-matter specialist
6. Television coordinator
7. Instructional media specialist
8. Building principal
9. Television producer-director;

- (2) an analysis of the specialties of these nine people indicates that they form an organizational body that could adequately plan, produce, present, and utilize an instructional television series;

- (3) that both systems' and councils' committees have low representation from "students," "educational psychologists" and "research and evaluation specialists" and low representation of general resource people--"laymen" and "school board members";

- (4) in determining the rank correlation of the membership between the frequency of instructional

television curriculum committee members recommended by the national leaders in curriculum supervision and development and the committee members reported to be on the systems' and councils' committees, it was found that both systems and councils committees had coefficients of correlation statistically significant at the five (5%) per cent level.

Concerning the committee responsibilities of the curriculum committee members:

1. There is an efficient functional pattern of responsibilities being fulfilled by the committee members on all the systems' and councils' curriculum committees.
2. A significant relationship exists between the responsibilities considered necessary by the national leaders in the field of curriculum supervision and development and those responsibilities being fulfilled by the members of the committees in all systems and councils.
3. That a consideration of the concept of program evaluation has not been well accommodated by the decision-makers in either the systems or councils.
4. That consideration is not being made by the decision-makers in either the systems or councils of the research that concerns itself with learning theories or their relation to the processes of lesson development and student learning.

These conclusions are drawn from the following findings:

- (1) In considering only the five major responsibilities assigned to each curriculum committee member it was found that all 60 respondents designated ten identical responsibilities within the first five major assignments to their top seven committee members:
1. Ascertain needs of teachers and students
 2. Determination of course content
 3. Development of course content and scope
 4. Development of individual lesson content
 5. Final approval of proposed lessons
 6. Selection of television teacher
 7. Suggest ideas for graphics
 8. Collect props and resource materials
 9. Develop study guides
 10. View completed lessons;
- (2) An analysis of the above ten responsibilities indicates that they are basic requirements for the development of curriculum and since they are being fulfilled by the select group of seven specialists the process can be considered functional;
- (3) In determining the rank correlation of the committee member responsibilities between those recommended by the national leaders in curriculum supervision and development and those reported as being fulfilled by the committee members in systems

and councils, it was found that both systems' and councils' member responsibilities had coefficients of correlation statistically significant at the .01 level;

- (4) None of the above seven committee members received an assignment to the responsibilities of pre-testing lessons in classroom situation or developing student testing and this, coupled with the low ratings of "research and evaluation specialist" and "students," (Graphs 1 and 2) is an indication that efficient evaluation procedures are notable chiefly by their absence;

- (5) A low rating (systems 21 per cent, councils 24 per cent) for the "educational psychologist" shows little concern for educational or psychological research which indicates a possible lack of knowledge, concerning learning theory and its potential contributions to curriculum development.

In the study of curriculum committee operational procedures:

1. There is little consistency in instructional television curriculum committee operations and

no common organizational pattern in the systems and councils reporting.

2. Operational procedures are based primarily on individual situations and seem likely to remain so in existing and emerging committees.

These above conclusions are drawn from the following findings:

- (1) The number of committees within the organizations ranged from 1 to 15 for the systems and from 1 to 16 for the councils;
- (2) The number of committee members ranged from 7 to 17 for the systems and 4 to 20 for the councils;
- (3) The number of meetings held per annum by the committees ranged from 2 to 18 for the systems and from "weekly," "as needed," to 18 for the councils;
- (4) The selection of the members for the committee duty in all the organizations reporting was made by fifteen different individuals of committees;
- (5) The in-service preparation of committee members to aid them in fulfilling their responsibilities

is not considered necessary in 58 per cent of the systems and 68 per cent of the councils.

With respect to curriculum committee form and function:

1. Independent systems display no superiority over councils as there could be found no discernible difference in their committee structure, member responsibilities or operational procedures.
2. Both organizations have tendency to be more alike than different in the above respects.

This conclusion is drawn from the following findings:

- (1) Both systems and council committee membership had a rank correlation statistically significant at the .05 level with the recommendations of the national leaders in curriculum development;
- (2) The responsibilities of both systems' and councils' committee members had a rank correlation statistically significant at the .01 level with recommendations of the national leaders in curriculum development;
- (3) Both systems' and councils' top nine committee members were identical, and their top seven committee

members had ten identical responsibilities assigned to them;

- (4) Both systems' and councils' committees were similar in a negative sense as both had low representation of "research and evaluation specialists," "educational psychologists," "community resource people," "students," "school board members," and both had a total negation of the television-teacher-actor;
- (5) None of the top seven members for either councils' or systems' were assigned an involvement in pre-testing lessons or developing student-testing;
- (6) No different pattern of organizational procedures could be discerned in the systems that was not evident as operational in the councils.

Recommendations

Several recommendations can be made as a result of this study. It was found that there was much similarity in the form and function of all the curriculum committees investigated. This may be due partly to

two things: (1) that the design of the questionnaire instrument prompted decisions and altered the perceptions of the respondents, or (2) that the development of curriculum requires a framework common to all media. It is therefore recommended that a study in depth, utilizing personal interviews and observation, be made of several systems and council instructional television program services to obtain more definitive information concerning the form and function of their operations.

Learning theory literature pertaining to instructional television indicates that an appraisal of the utilization of television in the teaching-learning process is mandatory if the full potential of the television medium as an educational tool is to be realized. This charge necessitates that a knowledge of educational and psychological research be a consideration in the deliberations of the curriculum committee. Therefore, "educational psychologists" and "evaluation specialists" should receive high priority in the selection of the curriculum development team.

A review of the literature of curriculum development indicates that in most projects a very careful process of development and evaluation is used. The concept of field-testing the material with student groups is highly

regarded as being productive in the final development of an optimum product. Alexander⁵⁹ reports that the Biological Science Curriculum Study materials were eventually pretested with 165,000 children in 47 states, involving the participation of over 1,000 teachers. It seems illogical that the process of field-testing is practically non-existent in the development of instructional television programs in the systems and councils reporting in this study. It is recommended that instructional television program services should study the feasibility and effectiveness of pre-testing their program material before final presentation.

The investigator is concerned that most of the respondents indicated that their committee members received no formal preparation to introduce them to the potentialities, limitations, and requirements of the television medium. All media require different knowledge and competencies as they relate to curriculum development and pre-service training then becomes a mandate. It is recommended that all educators who are to become involved

⁵⁹ William M. Alexander, Changing Curriculum Content (Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, N.E.A., Washington, D. C., 1964), p. 9.

in instructional television planning be provided an opportunity to attend a media workshop or institute to better prepare them for their assignment.

It was impossible to extract from the information contained in the questionnaire whether or not an "instructional systems" approach to curriculum development was being utilized in the program services reporting. It can be inferred, however, due to the large number of specialists assigned to the "occasional member" category, that some kind of systematic approach was being taken. A study is in order to determine what kind of systems approaches are being used in the development of courses of study for television, and subsequent study and experimentation with those that look promising.

The investigator feels that a pre-determined and well-defined organizational approach to instructional television programming is the most likely to pay dividends in terms of improvement of instruction, and the professionalization of those who develop it. To that point he proposes as a recommendation a paradigm for the procedures in instructional television course development.

The analysis will be undertaken in three parts:

- (1) a listing of specialists and their responsibilities whom the investigator feels are necessary to function as team members within the paradigm;
- (2) a display of the working diagram (Table 56);
- (3) the construction of the individual specialized teams in relation to their insertion into the procedure.

Committee members and responsibilities:

Curriculum supervision and development specialist:

Develops objectives, purpose, content and degree of programs. Helps to establish the guidelines and parameters of supportive services. Assesses curriculum needs and policies and maintains balance of articulation with other educational aspects of the school program. Stimulates and leads people to consider ways and means of appraising the diffusing information concerning desirable curriculum practices.

Classroom teacher: Determines the appropriateness of lessons as to grade, maturity, interest and vocabulary level of the learners. Determines scope, frequency and length of lessons. Reacts to kinds of demonstrations, illustrations and experiences that cannot be done in the classroom. Suggests classroom utilization patterns and defines classroom limitations.

Television teacher: Receives advice and direction from other members of the committee. Undertakes the final development of the program. Refines the script and plans for visuals. Develops study-guides and classroom utilization and evaluation techniques.

School district subject-matter specialist: Develops objectives, purpose, duration and degree of programs. Outline subject matter content areas to ascertain compatibility with other aspects of the school program. Gives a sense of direction to the group, linking the television curriculum with the overall aims and objectives of the school. Assures relevancy and accuracy of content, method and materials of the subject matter as they relate to the total scope and sequence of the school curriculum.

Higher education subject-matter specialist: Discovers and classifies new knowledge which is basic to the creation of new curriculum content. Modifies and refines subject matter.

Television coordinator: Administers the total direction of all programs and people involved. Coordinates and chairs all curriculum team meetings.

Instructional media specialist: Applies learning and communication theories to instruction. Specializes in resources management. Advises and provides materials which enhance teaching and learning.

Building principal: Evaluates all curriculum proposals made in terms of the needs of pupils in his building in regard to the maintenance of a balanced program and in terms of practicability of their implementation in his building.

Evaluation specialist: Devises, conducts and interprets evaluation and research procedures which will assist in the appraisal, improvement and planning of instructional activities and related methods and materials.

Community resource person: Advises as to what community resources are available for integration and utilization. Offers a different point of view and frame of reference as to community needs.

State department of education representative: Gives leadership to the area of curriculum development including planning and evaluation of new programs.

Supplies the motivation for the leadership of committees appointed to produce new curriculum programs.

Television producer: Coordinates entire series of lessons. Sees that all the work of the committee is developed into television presentations. Advises as to the limitations and potentialities of the medium and suggests effective uses of its singular facets which can be exploited to enhance the lesson. Serves as business manager and legal consultant. Evaluates during walk-throughs and rehearsals.

Television director: Assures that what is planned is practical and feasible for televising. Determines the best way to visualize ideas for television. Orchestrates all materials into the final on-air presentation.

Educational psychologist: Helps in the formulation, interpretation and application of a statement of principles of learning on which can be based procedures that should result in the accomplishment of the desired educational objectives.

Stenographer: Records pertinent information which is developed at meetings.

Script-writer: Assists the television teacher in developing a functional script which can be accommodated by the television medium.

Students: Consumers of the product. Reactors to ideas.

For a display of the working diagram of procedures of course development see Table 56.

The construction of the individual specialized teams:

The formation of the following teams would permit specialized groups of people to work in the specialized

areas. Instead of one large committee assuming control of the total program, ten small task forces would move into the paradigm at appropriate stages. The following are the area titles and the teams with their components:

Needs--Objectives

1. *Superintendent
 2. Curriculum supervision and development specialist
 3. Classroom teacher
 4. Principal
 5. Higher education representative
 6. State department of education representative
 7. *Community representative
 8. *School board member
 9. Evaluation specialist
 10. Stenographer
- *First meeting only

Approach (Selection of media)

1. Curriculum supervision and development specialist
2. School district subject matter specialist
3. Classroom teacher
4. Principal
5. Higher education subject matter specialist
6. State department of education representative
7. Evaluation specialist
8. Educational psychologist
9. Instructional media specialist
10. Stenographer

Objectives: Television Series

1. Instructional television coordinator
2. Curriculum supervision and development specialist
3. School district subject matter specialist
4. Classroom teacher
5. Higher education subject matter specialist
6. Television teacher

7. Television producer
8. Instructional media specialist
9. Educational psychologist
10. Evaluation specialist
11. Stenographer

Research

1. Instructional television coordinator
2. Television producer
3. Educational psychologist
4. Evaluation specialist
5. Instructional media specialist
6. Stenographer

Lesson Content

1. Instructional television coordinator
2. Curriculum supervision and development specialist
3. School district subject matter specialist
4. Classroom teacher
5. Television producer
6. Instructional media specialist
7. Higher education subject matter specialist
8. Community resource
9. Educational psychologist
10. Evaluation specialist
11. Stenographer

Design--Prepare

1. Instructional television coordinator
2. School district subject matter specialist
3. Television teacher
4. Television producer
5. Television director
6. Instructional media specialist
7. Script-writer
8. Stenographer

Field--Test

1. Instructional television coordinator
2. School district subject matter specialist

3. Television teacher
4. Television producer
5. Television director
6. Classroom teacher
7. Educational psychologist
8. Evaluation specialist
9. Students
10. Stenographer

Presentation

1. Television teacher
2. Television producer
3. Television director

Utilization

1. Instructional television coordinator
2. Classroom teachers
3. Students
4. Principal
5. Instructional media specialist
6. Educational psychologist

Evaluation

1. Instructional television coordinator
2. Educational psychologist
3. Students
4. Classroom teacher
5. Curriculum supervisor
6. Subject matter specialist
7. Instructional media specialist
8. Television teacher
9. Television producer
10. Stenographer
11. Evaluation specialist

A Look Ahead

It is evident that there has been much activity in the development of instructional television up to this time and all indications point to greatly expanded use in the future. The educational significance of that expansion will be largely dependent upon the quality of educational planning for its effective use. It is hoped that this study's focus on curriculum development procedures appropriate to instructional television will contribute in some measure to improving the quality of courses and lessons appearing on television.

APPENDICES



APPENDIX A

CLASSROOM TELEVISION COUNCIL — *small east Lansing michigan*

40823

DALE E. GIBSON
Director Instructional Services
Muskegon County
CHAIRMAN

RUSSELL L. SCHNEIDER
Administrative Assistant, Lansing
VICE CHAIRMAN

DR. COLBY LEWIS
General Manager, WWSB
SECRETARY

BEN F. AHLSSCHWED
Assistant Superintendent, Battle Creek

WILLIAM J. BALLARD
General Manager, WUCM

DAVID E. BANT
Superintendent, Linden

KENNETH T. BEAGLE
Superintendent, Grand Ledge

MURIL B. CONNOR
Superintendent, Belding

WILLIAM C. DEMPSEY
Exec. Vice President
General Manager, WZLW

REV. DONALD EDER
Assistant Superintendent
Lansing Catholic Diocese

WILLIAM A. GRAY
Superintendent, Marshall

BASIL E. JOHNSON
Superintendent, Delton Kellogg

WILLARD KIDDER
Superintendent, Northwest

DR. NORMAN TAYLOR
Science Coordinator, Jackson Union

I am the coordinator for an instructional television endeavor that involves over 300,000 pupil enrollments in over 100 school systems in Michigan.

As I become more knowledgeable of the work done in instructional television, I become concerned with the methods by which television lessons are developed. It appears to me that too often the television teacher and the television producer-director are given a carte blanche in determining the content of the lessons by 'Curriculum Committees' whose members have questionable educational qualifications in relation to the subject matter under consideration.

From this concern has emerged a dissertation project from which I hope to be able to make recommendations that will help in directing the formation and in defining the functions of instructional television curriculum committees.

The most important part of my research involves gathering a consensus of twenty-five national leaders in curriculum supervision and development. Your name has been recommended to me by several sources as one of these people.

To that point I am sending to you a questionnaire which I hope you will put near the top of your work-to-do-file. Since my sample is very small, I would appreciate your consideration of its completion and return. Your name and opinions will be published only with your permission.

I hope that you will consider this request not as an imposition, but rather as a pat-on-the-back from friends who value your judgement. Your help will be appreciated.

Sincerely,

Charles S. Ruffing, Coordinator

APPENDIX A (cont.)

ITV CURRICULUM QUESTIONNAIRE

Assume you have been given the responsibility of appointing a committee to develop a series of elementary (i.e. science/art/music) instructional TV lessons. The series will be supplementary to the existing classroom curriculum, and the number and length of the lessons will be determined by that purpose. In view of this assignment, please answer the following questions:

- I. What educational specialties would you require for representation by the people that you appoint to such a curriculum committee?
- II. What do you believe the committee assignments for these people should be?
- III. What operative procedures for committee functions should be considered?
- IV. What in-service preparation do you feel these people should undertake in readying themselves for this assignment?

APPENDIX B

STATE OF MICHIGAN

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

Lansing, Michigan 48902



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I am working on one of the final stages of my doctoral thesis, that of collecting data as to the development of curricula as it relates to instructional television. I need to determine the specialities of the personnel involved in making decisions pertinent to instructional television development and their responsibilities to the committee.

With no intent to be obsequious, my work in the field makes me aware that you are one of the few people who can make considered judgments concerning this aspect of ITV. Consequently, I need to call upon you for this information.

Since my sample will be small, I hope that you can take five minutes of your time to respond to the enclosed questionnaire.

All returns will remain confidential, unless otherwise requested, and a copy of the final study will be sent to you.

Sincerely,

Charles Ruffing, Chief
Instructional Materials Center
Television Consultant

Encl.

APPENDIX B (cont.)

The purpose of this investigation is to study instructional television curriculum committees' structures and their involvement in decision-making as to content and production of courses of televised instruction at the K-6 level.

Please respond to the questions as you perceive them in your role as administrator of your instructional television endeavor.

Most Important

IN REFERRING TO YOUR CURRICULUM COMMITTEES, PLEASE USE AS A FRAME OF REFERENCE THE FIRST YEAR THE LESSON SERIES WERE PRODUCED AND UTILIZED, AND ONLY THOSE SERIES YOU WILL TELEVISION DURING 1966-67.

APPENDIX B (cont.)

Form A

Check below, the educational specialities of the people who are/were members of the curriculum committees who develop(ed) the elementary instructional television lessons used in your programming.

1. School-board member
___Permanent member ___Occasional member ___Not required ___Not available
2. TV Producer-Director (As a dual assignment. Note questions #3 and #4.)
___Permanent member ___Occasional member ___Not required ___Not available
3. TV Producer
___Permanent member ___Occasional member ___Not required ___Not available
4. TV Director
___Permanent member ___Occasional member ___Not required ___Not available
5. Curriculum supervision and development specialist
___Permanent member ___Occasional member ___Not required ___Not available
6. Classroom teachers
___Permanent member ___Occasional member ___Not required ___Not available
7. Higher education subject-matter specialist
___Permanent member ___Occasional member ___Not required ___Not available
8. Building principal
___Permanent member ___Occasional member ___Not required ___Not available
9. Students (consumers)
___Permanent member ___Occasional member ___Not required ___Not available
10. ETV Coordinator
___Permanent member ___Occasional member ___Not required ___Not available
11. Librarian
___Permanent member ___Occasional member ___Not required ___Not available
12. Script-writer
___Permanent member ___Occasional member ___Not required ___Not available

APPENDIX B (cont.)

Form A

13. School district subject-matter specialist
___Permanent member ___Occasional member ___Not required ___Not available
14. State Department of Education representative
___Permanent member ___Occasional member ___Not required ___Not available
15. Superintendent of Schools
___Permanent member ___Occasional member ___Not required ___Not available
16. Educational psychologist
___Permanent member ___Occasional member ___Not required ___Not available
17. TV Teacher-Educator (Note question #18 before answering.)
___Permanent member ___Occasional member ___Not required ___Not available
18. TV Teacher-Professional Actor
___Permanent member ___Occasional member ___Not required ___Not available
19. Instructional-media specialist
___Permanent member ___Occasional member ___Not required ___Not available
20. Research and evaluation specialist
___Permanent member ___Occasional member ___Not required ___Not available
21. Stenographer
___Permanent member ___Occasional member ___Not required ___Not available
22. Community resource person
___Permanent member ___Occasional member ___Not required ___Not available
23. Other _____

APPENDIX B (cont.)

On the left of the page are listed possible curriculum committee members. Above are listed possible duties of the total committee. In the squares opposite the members' designation (serving on your committees) check the squares that correspond to that member's responsibilities.

A large grid of graph paper, consisting of 20 columns and 20 rows of squares, intended for drawing a picture.

APPENDIX B (cont.)

Form C

1. What is the official name of your organization? _____
2. How many curriculum committees were involved in your total program? ____
3. How many school districts are represented on these curriculum committees?
4. How were the members selected for duty on the curriculum committees?
5. Considering all your committees, what was the average number of members on each committee? _____
6. What formal in-service training did the members receive to better prepare them to fulfill their committee responsibilities? _____
7. Considering all your curriculum committees, how many times a year, on the average, did they meet? _____

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