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JANE ELIZABETH CHILDS
1961

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Michigan State U
Applied Science
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DOCTOR

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CRITERIA FOR APPRAISING THE USE OF TELEVISION
BY STATE UNIVERSITIES

By
Jane Elizabeth Grills

AN ABSTRACT

Submitted to the School for Advanced Graduate Studies of
Michigan State University of Agriculture and
Applied Science in partial fulfillment of
the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of Teacher Education

1959

Approved Walker & Hill

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to establish criteria for evaluating the television activities of a state university, based on the general philosophy and role of the state university and of the specific philosophy television in a state university.

The term "state university" has been used to cover the state-owned university by name which was the first to be chartered in a given state as well as the land-grant college or university of that state which was established under the Morrill Act of 1862. There is a total of seventy-one institutions in this encompassing definition.

The study provides background for the subject by tracing: (1) the history, status, and major problems of state universities and land-grant colleges, (2) the history of educational activity in radio and television, and (3) the status of higher education's activity in television.

The establishment of criteria by which one could appraise any state university television activity is dependent upon determining what the philosophy and role of the state university should be. In order to ascertain these philosophies and roles, the study develops answers to the following questions:

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1. What is the potential of television as a tool for education?
2. What are the size and scope of the audience for educational television?
3. What are the philosophy and role of the nineteenth-century state university, as they have evolved through history, as they can be derived through a critical discussion of the institutions, and how they have been affected by present trends in higher education?
4. What is the philosophy and role of the state university television activity as shown in selected state university philosophy, as determined from a study of present nineteenth-century education, and as determined from opinions of state university educational broadcasters?

By comparing and contrasting the philosophy and role of the state university with that of television in a state university and by utilizing the results of research on the educational use of television and the audience for educational television, one is able to derive a group of tenets which the state university and state university television hold in common or in which the television activity implements or supplements the philosophy and role of the university. These tenets, then, become the criteria by which television in a state university may be appraised.

In brief, these ten criteria cover the following areas: the relationship of the television activity to the administrative and academic structure of the institution; the relationship of the activity to the general public and the responsibilities it incurs due to this relationship; the activity's legal and/or moral obligation to cooperate with educational institutions and organizations, with public service organizations, and with agencies of the government; the university's responsibilities concerning the programming of its television operation and the over-all content of its programming; the major areas of research in which the activity should be engaged; and the preservation of television programming materials.

Discussion of the ten criteria and of their major implications leads to a set of questions which a state university administrator or educational broadcaster would be able to use as a basis for evaluating his institution's television activity.

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

With television now available in almost nine-tenths of the American homes and with more time spent in watching television than in the utilization of all other mass media combined, one can readily understand the considerable influence television has on 1959 living.

Certainly television has become an important medium to the advertiser; but isn't there another man with an even more vital message, the educator? Should not television be of even greater importance to him?

Educators and lay citizens, alike, are searching for answers to the speed-up and changes in all phases of education, changes which have been brought on by the technological and social revolution of the past three decades. Communities, state departments of education, and institutions of higher learning are turning, in increasing numbers, to television as an answer to some of their problems. Consequently, the nature and extent of education's involvement with television has become a matter of great concern to all Americans.

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I. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The purpose of this study is to establish criteria for evaluating the television activities of a state university based on the philosophy and role of the state university and of television in a state university.

II. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE PROJECT

Intrinsic merit. Television can be a great new instrument which a state university may use in the achieving of its traditional objectives and in the discharging of its broad civic responsibilities to all citizens. It may also be a powerful public relations instrument for a university--a strengthening of the reciprocal dependence among the state university, its immediate community, and the state to which it belongs.

However, it is essential that the state university's administration and its educational broadcasters have a clear concept of the television activity's purpose and how it implements and supplements those purposes of the educational institution, itself. Without a perspicuous philosophy, regardless of the relative size or the simplicity of the operation, the television activity becomes a mere manipulation

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The influence of the philosophy of the state university and that of its many programs permeates the whole life of the institution, providing direction for its activities and guiding principles for its approaches to its problems. Consequently, criteria providing for the evaluation of a state university's television activity based on the combined philosophies of the state university and of television activity in a state university would be one of the most valid methods for appraising the activity, itself.

Television can be a powerful tool for education--it can also be an expensive tool, especially when its potential is not being realized. Therefore, attempting to ascertain through an evaluation procedure that which is of merit in present practices, that which should be improved upon, and that which should be cast out is important to administrators and educational broadcasters of state institutions of higher learning, so that the early failure of education's venture into radio is not repeated and that full value, both educationally and financially, is received from its television endeavors.

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restricted to the state university or land-grant college television activity. Furthermore, very few inquiries have been made exclusively into the use or the problems of television in institutions of higher learning. Consequently, there have been no criteria established by which a state university's television activities may be appraised in the light of the institution's own over-all philosophy.

The majority of writers in the area of mass communications point either to a dearth of material in many areas of media research or to the conflicting information available in the aspects which have been reported. Therefore, it is easy to understand why there are very few pieces of research which have any direct bearing on this particular inquiry.

1. General survey and analysis. Of most value to this study is Richard B. Hull's Educational Television in the United States, which was published in late 1957 by the Educational Television and Radio Center and the Fund for Adult Education. This report, however, is concerned only with educational stations and not with other television activities of educational institutions not involved in station operation.

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Of greater significance than his review of the basic types, the financial support, the administration, facilities, programming, and audience of the twenty-eight educational stations then air-borne is the author's evaluation of the developments in educational television. Mr. Hull points out that, in 1957, there were five clear-cut phases within the educational television development: (1) a broadcast movement, (2) classroom or closed-circuit, (3) public relations television, (4) television as a laboratory--not associated with broadcasts to the public, and (5) student training in broadcasting and research. While the author shows that there is confusion among these various phases or movements, there have also been some important results--for example, excellent children's programming, instruction to combat illiteracy, vocational and cultural adult education, and in-service teacher training. Confusion in policy, inadequate financing, and a lack of understanding and support from other educational agencies are given as the roots of most educational television problems.

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2. Administration of television services and stations.

Two doctoral dissertations study and evaluate the administration of television services in institutions of higher learning; however, their application to this study is very small:

- a. Edward C. Lambert's "Organization and Administration of Television Programming for School Systems and Institutions of Higher Learning" shows the various ways in which any television service may be set up and administered in various types of educational systems and institutions. With regard to the seventy-two colleges and universities responding to his survey, the author points out that in fourteen cases television activities came directly under the supervision of the institution's administration; in another group of the same size, the administrator

¹Richard B. Hull, Educational Television in the United States: Status Report, 1957 (Columbus, Ohio: Educational Television and Radio Center--Fund for Adult Education, 1957).

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was the department of radio and television; in thirteen, the department of speech and drama; in eight, public relations; in communications, five; in liberal arts, three; in audio-visual aids, one; and in eleven institutions, by some combination of the above group. One must remember, however, that Dr. Lambert's dissertation was written during the earliest pioneering days of college and university television activities, even before the first educational station was on the air; consequently, many of his facts and the conclusions based on them have been outdated--even in such a short period of time.²

- b. James Tintera's "The Administration of Educational Television in Colleges and Universities" identifies and separates six aspects of administrative operation of television stations:

- 1) The formal aspect of over-all administrative responsibility belongs to the highest admin-

²Edward C. Lambert, "Organization and Administration of Television Programming for School Systems and Institutions of Higher Learning" (unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Missouri, Columbia, 1953).

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- 2) Planning of the total television enterprise involves some combination of faculty members, faculty committees, and the television staff.
- 3) The preparation and production of television programs is the responsibility of television specialists.
- 4) The budgeting of a television activity is the responsibility of one administrative official who may or may not be involved in the planning and production of television programs.
- 5) The acquisition of television equipment is directly related to the growth of television programming.
- 6) The financing of the various television operations seems to be based upon local situations and methods that create differences exceeding similarities.

For both the television facility and station, the author gives patterns of administrative and financial responsibility and a breakdown of equipment, personnel requirements, and programming costs and trends. There are some generalities

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which Dr. Tintera is able to make from these practices; but, in the main, the most outstanding result which his survey and interview technique bring out are the dissimilarities involved.

A very usable portion of this dissertation is the extensive review of literature regarding the administration and the programming of educational television, which is virtually complete to September 1955.³

The attitude of administration toward television activities in institutions of higher learning is surveyed by R. Edwin Browne in his master's thesis, "The Role of Television in Higher Education as Seen by College and University Presidents." Mr. Browne's work has direct application to one phase of this study, and his findings have been reported and compared with those of this author.⁴

³James Tintera, "The Administration of Educational Television in Colleges and Universities" (unpublished doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University, East Lansing, 1955).

⁴R. Edwin Browne, "The Role of Television in Higher Education as Seen by College and University Presidents" (unpublished M.S. thesis, University of Kansas, Lawrence, 1957).

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3. and 4. The effectiveness of television as a teaching tool and the analysis of the audience for education.

The major pieces of literature in the two other principal areas related to this study are reviewed and discussed at length in: Chapter IV--"The Educational Potential of Television" and Chapter V--"The Audience for Educational Television."

III. TERMINOLOGY

1. State university--for this study the term "state university covers the state-owned university by name which was the first to be chartered in a given state as well as the land-grant college or university of that state which was established under the provisions of the Morrill Act of 1862. Therefore, the state-supported institutions of higher learning delimited by this definition include the following:
 - a. Twenty institutions which are state universities under the precise definition of the term; and two women's colleges (Radford College in Virginia and the Woman's College of The University of North Carolina) which are part of the state university systems of their respective states.
 - b. Twenty-nine institutions which serve their states as both state universities and land-grant colleges; and
 - c. Twenty institutions which are exclusively land-

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this makes a total
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"theater"--a term
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grant colleges or universities.

This makes a total of seventy-one institutions included in this encompassing definition.

2. "Educaster"--a term denoting an administrator or a programming or production director working in educational broadcasting and/or telecasting.
3. Kinescope recording--a television film photographed directly from the television receiver screen which may be retained for future broadcast use or for filing purposes.
4. Closed-circuit television--a live television program relayed via coaxial cable or low-powered transmitter, from a classroom, laboratory, or lecture hall to any pre-arranged reception points within the building, on the campus, or among buildings of an entire school system.
5. Instructional television--systematic instruction, received either in the classroom or in the home, broadcast either over open channels or over a closed-circuit installation.
6. Education and entertain--Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary gives the following definitions of:
 - a. education--"the act or process of developing and cultivating mentally or morally;" and
 - b. entertain--"to engage the attention of agreeably; amuse; divert."

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While all will agree that engaging the attention of students agreeably is a desirable characteristic of the educational process and that amusing has value to education only in-so-far as the learning process is not slowed down beyond the maximum speed the learner is able to comprehend and retain, amusement and diversion have no real role in the process of education. Thus "amusement and diversion" and "education" are regarded as mutually exclusive.

IV. INITIAL ASSUMPTION

Non-commercial television is essential to our educational progress. There are three major reasons why this is true:

1. Good educational programs require a substantial investment in personnel, facilities, and promotion--an investment commercial stations are both unwilling and unable to provide. To achieve their goal, educational programs should be designed and produced by professionals with specialized training, adequate resources, and supporting promotion. Inherent in commercial broadcasting is the fact that, since they are not revenue producing, most educational programs are neither good education nor good television.

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2. The need for majority audiences by commercial stations results in the disadvantageous scheduling of educational programs. No responsible commercial-program director willingly schedules a program with a low audience rating, which an educational program is by definition, between two programs with potentially high audience ratings, thus losing the revenue of that specific period and diminishing the value of adjacent time segments. Therefore, the educational program is relegated to less salable times of day when all audience ratings are low or at periods which will be pre-empted whenever the time is sold.
3. Even if commercial stations would provide sufficient funds for good educational programs and would present educational broadcasts at convenient viewing periods, there could not possibly be sufficient time available on commercial channels to present the number and variety of programs necessary to adequately serve our nation's educational needs. For this a full-time educational service is required.

Four types of data

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V. SOURCES OF DATA

Four types of data have been used to provide material for this study:

1. Published materials--a search of the literature was made for:

- a) the history, philosophy, and problems of state universities and land-grant colleges; and
- b) the history, philosophy, and problems of educational television.

2. Unpublished materials--in a letter directed to the educational broadcaster in charge of a state university television activity, where known, or to the president of the institution, the author requested:

- a) an official statement of the state university's television philosophy, if such a statement were available. While replies were received from sixty-three of the seventy-one institutions included under the comprehensive definition of "state university," only twenty-six (37% of the institutions being surveyed) attested to having such a statement; and twenty-three (33%) were colleges or universities with extensive participation in television activities.

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b) statements of philosophy of state university television from both the educational broadcaster and a top administrative official of each educational institution included under the definition of "state university" used in this study. Of the sixty-three replies received, forty-seven (66%) contained statements of television philosophy from a top administrator and forty-four (62%) contained such statements from educational broadcasters.

The author did not ask for a statement of television philosophy especially prepared in answer to this inquiry but suggested that the statements be selected from materials prepared for another purpose, a talk or publication; consequently, the great majority of the statements received were excerpts from another effort.

This permissive form of query has more value in this type of study than one which is structured since:

- (1) the response is more thoughtfully prepared than a statement designed exclusively as an answer to one of a myriad of similar requests and questionnaires received by educational insti-

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- (2) the respondent is not presented with an array of tenets of philosophy which may never have occurred to him except through their suggestions from an outside source; and
- (3) the answer is not likely to be given merely to conform to the respondent's preconceived ideas as to the role the inquirer expects him to play.

A third type of unpublished material used in the preparation of this study was:

- c) oral and written testimony presented before the Federal Communications Commission in the hearings concerning reserved channels for educational television during 1951 and early 1952. This material was available from the Joint Council on Educational Television and was taken from the eight-part brief prepared by JCET attorneys for these FCC hearings.

- 3. Questionnaires--One of two questionnaires was sent to the person in charge of the television activity

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These questionnaires were constructed to determine:

- a) the nature and extent of each institution's present involvement with television;
- b) the projected television plans of each institution; and
- c) the respondents' reaction to the problems and trends of educational television.

While the questionnaires contained certain sections which were only peripheral to this study, they were included since the answers to them would possibly add illumination to the philosophy of the institution. Sixty-three questionnaires (89% of the total) were completed and returned.

The questionnaires have served three main purposes:

- (1) they have provided the author with the over-all pattern of television activity among state universities;
- (2) they have been used inductively in this study, since what a man practices is usually indicative of his philosophy; and
- (3) they point toward possible further

⁵Those institutions having either a commercial or educational television station received a slightly different form than those known to have fewer facilities. See Appendix A for copies of these questionnaires.

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4. Interviews--Between March 19 and May 1, 1957, the author visited television facilities in the following state universities: Alabama Polytechnic Institute, the University of Alabama, the University of Georgia, the University of Illinois, Michigan State University, the University of Michigan, the University of Missouri, North Carolina State College, The University of North Carolina, the Woman's College of the University of North Carolina, and Ohio State University. These institutions may be considered as typical of those which have active television programs--owning a single television station (a commercial VHF or an educational UHF or VHF), three institutions of a consolidated state university sharing a single outlet, state universities participating in a state-wide network operated by the state system of public education, and state universities having recording facilities and producing television programs regularly but having no transmission facilities.

In this way the author was able to observe directly the television facilities of the institution, to see examples of its television programming, and to

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Free, opinion-seeking interviews were held in each state university with the person in charge of television activity, his assistant, and/or the individual responsible for television programming, and a structured interview was held with one of the institution's top administrators.⁶ The material gained from observation and interviews served to clarify, supplement, and reinforce that which had been obtained by one of the other methods.

VI. METHOD OF ORGANIZATION

Briefly, the format for this project involves providing a background for the study; securing answers to questions involved in the basic problem; and, based on information gained through various research techniques, establishing criteria for appraising a state university's television activity based on the role such an activity should be assuming in a mid-twentieth-century state university.

As background to this study it is essential that one

⁶An outline of the structured interview is contained in Appendix A.

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have a comprehension of: (1) the history, status, and major problems of state universities and land-grant colleges and universities and (2) the history of educational activity in the media of radio and television, the status of higher education's activity in television, and the possible future of educational television. This information is provided in Chapters II and III of this study.

Determining what should be the philosophy and role of state university television is dependent upon the answers to some very basic questions regarding the value of television to education and the philosophy and role of the state university in our society. Therefore, the plan of organization must include the answers to these questions:

1. What is the potential of television as a tool for education? This question is answered in Chapter IV.
2. What are the size and nature of the audience for education via television? The known facts about the audience for education are discussed in Chapter V.
3. What are the philosophy and role of the mid-twentieth-century state university as they evolved through history, as they can be derived

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4. What are the philosophy and role of state university television activity as given in official statements of philosophy, as determined from opinions of prominent twentieth-century educators, and as determined from opinions of state university educational broadcasters? These tenets of philosophy are developed in Chapter VII.

While the needs of the citizenry are not exactly the same in any two states and the resources are not precisely alike in any two state universities, by comparing and contrasting the basic principles of philosophy and role of the state university with those of television in a state university, one is able to derive a group of tenets of philosophy which can be called universal. Based on these tenets of philosophy, criteria will be established by which any state university television activity may be appraised.

CHAPTER II

THE DEVELOPMENT OF STATE UNIVERSITIES AND LAND-GRANT COLLEGES IN THE UNITED STATES

Before one may judge whether education by television can serve the state university or in what form it could best serve the institution, it is necessary to look, for a moment, at the role of advanced education in a democracy and to study these institutions of higher learning, their purpose, and their function.

That a college or university education should permeate through all levels of society and extend the length and breadth of this country are goals of the American democracy. These goals are nothing new but have been expressed time and again not only by educators, but by philosophers, executives of government, executives of business, and by everyday citizens--the people who rule the democratic form of government.

The classlessness of learning has been aptly described by educator-philosopher John Dewey in The School and Society when he said:

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Any survey of purposes and functions of state universities today needs additional background material to provide a rationale for existing conditions. Consequently, let us turn back through the history of the American state university and land-grant college to select a few high points which have influenced its philosophy and its growth.

I. BEGINNINGS OF THE STATE UNIVERSITY

MOVEMENT

The history of the state university in the United States begins with Georgia in 1785 and North Carolina in

¹ John Dewey, The School and Society (Revised edition: Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1943), pp. 24-5.

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1789; but the real impetus toward each state's founding its own branch of higher learning came in 1819, when the United States Supreme Court handed down its judgment in the Dartmouth College case. With the decision that the state government had no right to control private institutions in an attempt to turn them into state universities, the individual state governments became convinced of the need to establish their own institutions of higher learning to complete their public school systems.

These state universities supported the general goals and purposes of all institutions of higher learning regardless of their eighteenth to twentieth century origin. These general goals are usually grouped under five headings: (1) the preservation and diffusion of traditional culture, (2) preparation for the professions, (3) research of all kinds, (4) the development in the fullest sense of the individual, and (5) the raising of the cultural level of the nation.

The giving of a rank order to these traditional purposes of a university depends largely on the studies that it offers, the group of people to whom the institution caters, and the amount and sources of its support.

These new state universities were to be the very top rung of the educational ladder, open to all without payment

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However, one cannot say that the twenty-one state colleges and universities which had been established up to the time of the Civil War had much more than their names in common with the institutions that exist today. The idea of a tuition-free state university was never realized; their instruction was of a nature which we would now consider more typical of that of public secondary schools; their affiliations with religious bodies had not been severed or their instruction secularized; and their support by state legislatures was pretty much at the caprice of those bodies and not provided on any regular, dependable basis.

II. MAJOR NINETEENTH-CENTURY DEVELOPMENTS

Introduction of Coeducation

With very few exceptions, the nineteenth century saw the end of separate state university facilities for men and women. While coeducation did not originate with state-owned institutions, it rather reluctantly spread to almost all of them, beginning in the Middle West, at Indiana University

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in 1867 and at the University of Michigan three years later, next in the West, and finally in the East and South, where the general policy of separate institutions had originated.

Introduction of the Elective System

The nineteenth century also saw higher education in America being created in the image of the more scholarly universities of Germany. German freedom of investigation and freedom of teaching were evidenced in the growth of laboratories and libraries. German interest in the elective system's replacing the fixed curriculum led to its inauguration in this country, with the University of Michigan becoming the pioneering state university.

This change from the inflexible, general culture curriculum of the traditional protective college to the individualized specialization allowed under the elective principle of the more non-restrictive state university is not a story which may be related in a few, simple steps; nor is the admission of women to public institutions of higher learning, with the creation of what is called "the American way, coeducation," a dull, uninteresting tale. For all the detail and color that go with the evolution of

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higher education in America, one should read Ernest Earnest's Academic Procession,² dealing with the building of the American system of higher education.

III. EARLY INFLUENCES ON THE PHILOSOPHY OF STATE UNIVERSITIES

The earliest influences on the philosophy of state institutions occurred, for the most part, before these universities were even chartered and were the opinions of the highest executives of our country. George Washington, for example, proposed in 1790 the founding of a University of the United States, a university to be created and supported by the Federal Government for the public enlightenment of the citizens of a democracy. Washington believed in this government-supported university so strongly that his will provided \$25,000 to aid in its establishment.

Jeffersonian Democracy

Both the Jeffersonian and Jacksonian types of democracy have, through the years, influenced both the internal and extension programs of all public higher education.

²Ernest Earnest, Academic Procession (New York: The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Inc., 1953).

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Thomas Jefferson's influence on public university policy was more strongly felt than was that of George Washington. Jefferson wrote measures promoting education and the establishment of a state system of public schools, a system which he felt was vital to the welfare of the state. He also felt that, because leadership is the most significant factor in any civilization, higher education should deal only with leaders or potential leaders and set standards of achievement and competence which are the basis for leadership training. Jefferson's ideals regarding public education had to be tempered with the conservative views of the legislators of his day; consequently, in its original form, with free education to students of high intelligence, Jeffersonian democracy never became a part of American higher education.

Jacksonian Democracy

The president whose influence on higher education more nearly typifies our concept of education in a democracy was Andrew Jackson; and it was not until Jackson's era that the emphasis began to fall heavily upon raising the cultural level of all the citizens. The theory behind Jacksonian democracy was that the will of the majority was the most reliable basis for a popular government and that making in-

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formation accessible to all the people was the foundation for intelligent judgments by that majority. In this case the responsibility of public higher education included not only leadership training but also the provision of educational opportunities for many individuals and groups, not the select few--the intellectually superior and the wealthy aristocracy. Jacksonian democracy also provided the fertile fields into which the seeds of the Morrill Act could be so plentifully sown and so amply harvested.

IV. THE MORRILL ACT AND ITS INFLUENCE

One cannot consider the development of American state universities without considering the influence of the Federal Government on higher education which began with the Morrill Act of 1862.

Passing of the Act

Leaders in many fields were demanding that higher learning more nearly fit the needs of our democratic society, but the two men who proposed and provided this entirely new concept of education were not among the formally trained members of our society. Justin Morrill, a Maine congressman who had been forced to drop out of school at fifteen to clerk in

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a village store, and Abraham Lincoln, the self-educated Illinois backwoodsman, proposed and signed into the law of the land this Act transporting higher education from the hierarchy of the professions and giving it to the people, whose support makes all public advanced training possible.

Development of Land-Grant Institutions

With the passing of the Morrill Act the scramble for its largess began, and in 1865 Cornell University became the first "land-grant" institution in the United States.

These land-grant institutions developed slowly at first because they lacked the prestige of the state university and because the areas of agriculture, home economics, and engineering were not well developed at the time. But with advanced knowledge in the technical and vocational fields and with the support and influence of the Federal Government, which became available with an act of Congress in 1890, these land-grant colleges showed rapid progress after the turn of the century.

In compliance with the provisions of the Morrill Act, eighteen states have used the proceeds from their grants to develop departments of agriculture, mechanical arts, and military science and tactics in existing institutions; four chose to support work in engineering and agriculture in

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private institutions; while the remaining twenty-six states established separate land-grant colleges.

Ten of these institutions have developed into state universities; and the rest are usually designated as state colleges, but many of these are also universities in fact. This development is entirely logical since the bodies of knowledge in the technical fields have been extended and since knowledge in these areas cannot be transmitted without adequate preparation in the basic arts and sciences.

The influence of this Act was by no means confined to the land-grant institution, but it rapidly affected the outlook of all higher education, public and private as well, eventually becoming "one of the chief forces in the revolution from classicism to vocationalism."³

V. STATE UNIVERSITIES IN TWENTIETH-CENTURY AMERICA

Meeting Individual Needs

When tracing the history of public higher education in the United States, it is easy to see that it was not until the beginning of the twentieth century that much of an attempt was made to tailor higher education to the particular needs

³Ibid., p. 143.

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Along with the change to vocationalism in public higher education has come the feeling that these institutions should be intimately related to the life and work of all of their constituents and that the state university should meet the needs that are not being met by other institutions which by charter have special functions. As one can readily see, being charged with such obligations tends: (1) to leave the state institution open to pressures from outside organizations and (2) to influence the college or university to spread its activities and curriculum very thinly over an almost boundless surface.

The pendulum which swung from the eighteenth-century rigid classical curriculum through its cycle to the tailored-to-a-specific-need curriculum of the second quarter of the twentieth-century is only now beginning to revert to a compromise position. The general or basic college is becoming

⁴Arguing the merits of vocationalism over classicism or vice versa is not an objective of the author; but such a shift in emphasis must be reported because of its influence as a powerful democratizing force on all higher education in America.

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Adult and Extension

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Adult and Extension Activities

One of the most significant developments of twentieth-century public higher education has been the growth of adult education and extension activities. State university work in this field began during the last decade of the nineteenth century and was pioneered in the Central and Western states. However, there was a wide gap between these beginnings and the official establishment of an extension service or its formal acceptance as a part of the university system.

Goals of higher education. A rationale for the incorporation of adult and extension activities into the organization of the state university is to be found in the concept of the role of higher education in a democracy. The President's Commission on Higher Education in 1947 reported that there were three goals of higher education that should come first in our time:

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Education for the fuller realization of democracy in every phase of living.

Education directly and explicitly for international understanding and cooperation.

Education for the application of creative imagination and trained intelligence to the solution of social problems and to the administration of public affairs.⁵

There is nothing in these three goals indicating that education is or could be a process begun or ended at any specific age. The complexities of the twentieth-century world and its problems have only proved to everyone that education is, and has to be, a life-long process.

Application of goals. References to, or discussions of, these goals of higher education may be found in speeches and writings of educators and in works of study commissions. As an example of the former, one may note that Arthur B. Moehlman has observed:

These objectives [those of the President's Commission] can only be achieved in an institution that considers instruction in its most comprehensive sense the supreme purpose for its existence and which acknowledges a fundamental responsibility to the people. Nowhere in public education is there so much moral obligation to accept leadership; it must be truly representative of all the people and not a tool for special vested interests of any sort. State universities must be free to search, to discover, and to teach their discoveries to students and

⁵President's Commission on Higher Education, Higher Education for American Democracy, Vol. I (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1947), p. 8.

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adults alike. Democracy can only be successful as public education is free to seek and teach the truth wherever it may lead. This condition can only be achieved when state universities conduct their business openly and constantly interpret their purposes, values, conditions and needs to all the people.

The broad definition of instruction . . . means that discovery and invention should be used for all the people, and not for specially privileged groups. University teaching must extend much farther than the limits of the conventionalized classroom. The university teacher . . . is also committed to translating that knowledge to students and the adult population. This functional concept of teaching also connotes responsibility for furnishing types of service to the people, which will make better government possible and improve the means of making a living and raising the general cultural level of the state. The state university so conceived and operated is one of the few impartial popular agencies which is capable of broad educational leadership of the state and community public education organizations.

The application of these purposes immediately defines the scope of university activity, which is for the physical, mental, social, emotional, and ethical education of regular students and also for a very extensive program of adult education which will reach every interested individual through resident-centers, special lectures, conferences, short-courses, radio programs, study-groups, and even more formal correspondence courses.

As an integral part of the North American public education organization, the state university is responsible for equalizing education opportunity by removing all geographic, economic, racial, social, and sectarian barriers that now prevent youth from participating in general cultural and professional public education programs.

If Moehlman had been writing several years later, he would have undoubtedly added television programs to his list of ways in which state university adult education could reach

⁶Arthur B. Moehlman, School Administration (Second edition: Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1951), p. 428.

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Dr. Moehlman's attitude with regard to the purposes of advanced education in a democracy and how they may best be carried out is a comprehensive yet terse summary of the opinions of most top administrators of state institutions.⁷

A study commission's views on the application of the goals of higher education may be found in the report of the President's Commission on Higher Education. This group put forth a very strong case for a state university's activity in extension and adult education. With regard to the place of adult education in the hierarchy of higher education, the Commission reported as follows:

Colleges and universities are best equipped of all agencies, from the standpoint of resources, to undertake the major part of the job. Education on a near adult level is their business, and they have, in some measure at least, the necessary teachers and facilities . . .

University extension is now pushed aside as quite extraneous to real university business. This state of affairs cannot be permitted to continue. The colleges and universities should elevate adult education to a position of equal importance with any other of their functions. The extension department should be charged with the task of channeling the resources of every teaching unit of the institution into the adult program.

⁷For quotations from five twentieth-century administrators whose opinions can be considered as rather representative of all state university presidents see Appendix B.

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⁹ ibid., pp. 9

. . . It should be the duty of the faculty . . . to teach . . . not just those who come to the campus, but everyone in the community or the State who wants to learn, or who can be persuaded to want to learn.⁸

After pointing out that enlarging the extension activities would necessitate increasing the job of the institution, the number of teachers and administrators, and the need for budget, the Report continues:

However, the principal obstacle to the acceptance of the program, nonetheless, is the limited concept that higher education still holds of its role in a free and democratic society.

It must broaden that concept. It must cease to be campus-bound. It must take the university to the people wherever they are to be found and by every available and effective means for the communication of ideas and the stimulation of intellectual curiosity. It must not hold itself above using all the arts of persuasion to attract consumers for the services it offers. . . . The program of adult education must be fitted in content, methods, and aims to the adult student as he is, not as the college or the professor thinks he should be.⁹

The Emerging Role of the State University

Primarily through the influence of the land-grant college, the entire state university movement has worked out several new approaches to education in service of the people.

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⁸President's Commission on Higher Education, op. cit., pp. 96-7.

⁹Ibid., pp. 97-8.

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scholarship plans, these state-supported schools have made it possible for many young men and young women to receive the benefits of advanced intellectual and vocational training--training, in many cases, for persons who could not have afforded this education in other types of institutions.

2. A combination vocational-general cultural education has been developed in the state institution. This concept has aided in making vocational education respectable, in helping each student acquire a desire for knowledge and an inquisitive mind, and in developing in each graduate some social responsibility for the world in which he lives.

3. The Morrill Act, which has spread its influence through all advanced education, has brought both a practical and a liberal education closer to the people and has taken this higher learning to the outlying portions of the country. No longer can it be guaranteed that an education acquired during one's youth will prepare him for the problems he will meet in ten years, next

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4. The state universities are now carrying a major burden of the research effort to advance knowledge in both practical and theoretical fields. Through research laboratories and institutes, experimental stations, and adult training centers these institutions have become the centers to which their citizens turn for information, analysis of their problems, and expert opinion. The state university is no longer a luxury serving only those of high intellect or great wealth, but it has become a necessity in the day-to-day existence of a flourishing society.

The committee from the National Association of State Universities, which was appointed to assay the role of the state university in our culture, reported that there are two

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peculiarly American concepts which are basic to our understanding of the place and role of the state university in higher education:

1. Our firm, well-established commitment to the principles of public responsibility for the education of our youth. We have tried steadily to improve the educational opportunities in order that the sole limitation might be the intellectual capacity of the student.
2. Our belief that educational programs must respond to the complex needs of our expanding American society. Only the tax-supported institutions can seriously aspire to cope with the ideal of university education.¹⁰

The Committee's report states further that:

The state university has a responsibility to preserve and strengthen our civilization. It cannot afford the intellectual snobbishness of proclaiming that only one curriculum, even though that be in liberal arts, offers the only hope for the survival of our civilization in the present period of international unrest.

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A state university should reflect the plans and aspirations of the people of the state from which it derives its support. The citizens of the state have every right to expect their university to bring all of its resources in teaching, research, and public service to the solution of their problems. Only in this manner can the largest number of deserving citizens receive effective education's adult and continuing education in all its ramifications.¹¹

After reading the above quotation from members of the

¹⁰Report of the Committee on the Role of the State University, Proceedings of the National Association of State Universities, 1955, pp. 142-43.

¹¹Ibid., pp. 147-48.

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National Association of State Universities, one might rightfully ask if there is any twentieth-century distinction between the state university and the land-grant college. One may state with assurance that the attitude of the two types of institutions toward their role in American democracy has grown more similar with each passing decade. Except for subject-matter emphasized, their concepts of their own roles have become almost identical; even the national associations of the two groups, the National Association of State Universities and the Association of Land-Grant Colleges and State Universities, are in the process of uniting into one national organization.

This does not mean, however, that there is absolute unanimity on this issue of "role" between administrators of the two types of institutions. As a matter of fact, Dr. Harlan H. Hatcher, President of the University of Michigan and Chairman of the Committee offering the report quoted above, was rather harshly treated by a few members of his own Committee who felt that they had neither been sufficiently consulted nor had their views been adequately reflected in the report as presented.¹²

A second point of original divergence--the state

¹²Ibid., pp. 149-57.

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institution's obligation for adult and continuing education-- is rapidly disappearing. For example, of the sixty-three, out of seventy-one, state universities and land-grant colleges responding to questionnaires sent out by the author, only one administrator stated, and he made it extremely clear, that the philosophy of his institution was that its primary responsibilities were: (1) resident instruction for students seeking degrees, and (2) research. He stated further that he considered as secondary responsibilities other cultural and information services, including non-resident instruction. These services, he said, were never to be undertaken at the risk of slighting any primary responsibilities and should be undertaken only when it is clear that these services could not be adequately provided by other agencies.

In consequence, the principal point of contention concerning institutional differences still revolves around vocational versus general cultural courses.

VI. PROBLEMS CONFRONTING THE TWENTIETH- CENTURY STATE UNIVERSITY

Let us turn now from the more historical and philosophical account of these state-supported institutions of higher learning and see how they are measuring up to the

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challenges of the twentieth century. Such a measurement may be taken by recognizing state university problems in three different areas: (1) problems of public attitude, (2) problems of the university financing, and (3) problems of equalizing educational opportunities for the people of the state. While these problems are here neatly broken down into three categories, such a subdivision or such a complete mutual exclusion is not at all possible in a discussion of them.

Problems of Public Attitude

The American people have always been most complacent with regard to the problems of higher education. This attitude has until recently prevailed to almost the same extent in connection with all public education; however, the increased birth-rate flooding both the elementary and the secondary schools has finally resulted in more vigorous and organized attention's being paid to the number, kind, and size of schools and the number, quality and pay of teachers. Even yet, after almost a decade of concerted action to raise the number and standard of these elementary and secondary schools, the public has succeeded in attaining only the first plateau in its mountain of goals. Meetings such as the White House Conference in December of 1955 have served to point up

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some of the needs of the public schools, but apathy and disinterest, in addition to sectionalism and factional causes which run through a large cross-section of the American population, have almost negated the possibility of many of the recommendations of this, or any, conference being adopted. This same complacency, disinterest, or factionalism is evidenced with regard to public-supported higher education--to an even greater extent, since not even a quarter of our population has personally received the benefits from this form of education.

Coupled with a general disinterest by the majority of citizens is the lack of respect shown the conventional college system by several important groups of people. For example, groups such as labor, farmers, and sometimes even the students themselves, do not completely respect or trust higher education in general. Perhaps this is more easily understood when one remembers that an integral part of "the American make-up" is the belief that one should be able to translate learning into something tangible--for example, efficiency, better pay, higher social class, or a bolstered ego. Consequently, it is only as higher education has been able to reach out to more and more people in terms of programs which have been especially designed to meet the needs

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of these special groups and of values which they themselves can realize and appreciate that there has been some shift in the social attitudes of these groups as to the desirability of increased education.

Furthermore, the spending of millions of dollars annually on each state university is appalling to many of the state's citizens and, of course, this is especially true of those people who feel that they, themselves, are not receiving any benefit from the institution. These are the people who fail to see that a better educated citizenry, that research, that extension services cannot help creating for them, personally, a better life.

The American people, whose tax money supports these public institutions of higher learning, have never been made to realize that a state university is not, and never can be, a "profitable business" in the usual sense of the term. One never will be able to total on paper at the end of each year the credit side of the ledger; while, in the main, the debit side is clearly marked in red ink on the books of both the state and the Federal Government. The entries on the credit side, for the most part, are in terms of values like well-being, skill, respect, enlightenment, and rectitude. There would also be an entry for the value of wealth--wealth cre-

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ated by the educated person for himself and wealth created for all the people through the endeavors of an enlightened citizenry. Many of the kinds of dividends received from this type of investment are not even received until a number of years have elapsed; therefore, a neat, precise total of returns on the investment can never be made.

Problems of the University Financing

Very much akin to the problem of public apathy is the problem of the size of legislative appropriation granted to the support of the state university annually or each biennium. The relationship is obvious. Appropriations to educate democracy's rulers have never been sufficiently large to build the buildings, buy the equipment, and hire the personnel to do the top-flight job required of an educational system charged with such a tremendous responsibility. A great deal of the success which our public institutions of higher learning have met in new fields of endeavor has been due to dedicated, hard-working employees at all levels who have stayed at their tasks, working long hours for small pay with inferior equipment, in hope that the worth of their enterprise will become noticed by the taxpayers so that a sufficient appropriation might be granted "the next, or the next, biennium." A further complication arises from the fact that,

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whereas a legislature may see fit to grant its state university the funds with which to launch into a new field of endeavor, it may, in a two or four year period, when an economy drive or "election nerves" sweeps the group, curtail or completely wipe out the budget for that activity.

Greatly needed expansion in university buildings, facilities, and personnel was undertaken in the 1940's and early '50's, when the G. I. Bill of Rights swelled the university rolls and treasury.

As veteran enrollments dropped off, university administrators all over the country made the serious mistake of underestimating their future enrollments. For, instead of the flood of students stemming when the G. I. gates were closed, the number of regular students rapidly pouring in filled the veterans' place.

Consequently, when a state university requests a budget two or three times as large as that of ten years ago, there are several factors which should explain, if not cushion, the shock to the taxpayer:

1. Federal money, ten years ago under the G. I.

Bill, was a very large percentage of the annual university budget. Increased operating costs, figuring in the Federal money, have nearly

doubled at the University of Michigan, for example, during that period.¹³

2. Due to the depression and World War II, most state universities had added very little to their physical plants over a fifteen-year period although their enrollments had increased. Consequently, with the influx of the veteran population, repair and expansion had to be tremendous and immediate.
3. A great deal of the 1950 expansion in universities has had to be "in medicine, nuclear engineering, physics, and other science fields which are extremely costly."¹⁴
4. The realization of the value of adult and extension activities and the increased feeling of responsibility for higher education throughout the state have also added their share to the university's operating cost.
5. Estimates show that the population of the United

¹³Robert Williams, Assistant Dean of Faculties, University of Michigan, "U-M Tells Why Costs Jumped," The Detroit Free Press, July 22, 1956, p. 1.

¹⁴Harlan H. Hatcher, President, University of Michigan, Ibid.

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States will grow an additional twenty-two million in the next ten years. If the same ratio of young people were to seek admission to the universities ten years from now as at the present time, our facilities would not be adequate. Moreover, each decade has shown an increased percentage of our population seeking additional academic training beyond the twelfth grade. For example, while in 1953 more than 20% of our youth were attending college; in 1963 it is estimated that 25% will seek admission, and in some states at least 35%.¹⁵ The United States Office of Education figures show that if the present trend continues, the 1955 figures of 2,750,000 in universities, colleges, and junior colleges¹⁶ will rise to 6,500,000 or 7,000,000 by 1970.¹⁷ Of this number the state institutions are expected to carry over 80%.¹⁸

¹⁵Harlan H. Hatcher, President, University of Michigan, "The Next Ten Years," National Association of State Universities, Proceedings of, 1953, pp. 77-8.

¹⁶"1955 Opening (Fall) College Enrollment," Higher Education (Washington: U. S. Office of Education, Vol. XII, No. 5, January 1956), p. 65.

¹⁷Herman R. Allen, "Money for Colleges: It's Growing U. S. Problem," The Saginaw News, November 28, 1957, p. 66.

¹⁸Hatcher, loc. cit.

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Consequently, dormitories are never adequate, classrooms never sufficient, and personnel needs never satisfied from one year to the next.

Problems of Equalizing Educational Opportunities

The process of equalizing educational opportunities began with the passing of the Morrill Act and has grown as the effect of the Act has spread. This equalization has helped to make it possible for rich and poor alike to avail themselves of advanced learning and has given the farmer, the business man, and the mechanic the same opportunity to broaden his background and to do his job better than it affords the lawyer, the social worker, and the artist. This idea of using the state university or land-grant college to teach the citizens of the state to do their own work more effectively has been an important American concept.

There are, however, certain inequalities still existing in the system.

1. A person's economic status may still keep him from advanced education. We have never been able to adopt Jefferson's theory that a state university should be absolutely free to those who are mentally capable but financially unable

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2. One's race, creed, or national origin may still exclude him from certain organizations on the campus of some state universities.
3. One may be denied admission because of sex to several state institutions.
4. An additional inequality of opportunity may be found in the distance certain taxpayers are from their state university. A survey in Minnesota in 1949, for example, showed that one out of four living within ten miles of a college attend school the first year after graduating from high school. However, only one out of seven attend when the nearest institution is twenty-five miles away.¹⁹ This represents a decrease in attendance of 43% for those living fifteen miles

¹⁹Minnesota Commission on Higher Education, Tomorrow's Resources (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1949), p. 7.

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A further indication of the fact that inequalities still exist may be seen in an observation of the President's Commission on Higher Education that:

the American people should set as their ultimate goal an educational system in which at no level--high school, college, graduate school, or professional school--will a qualified individual in any part of the country encounter an insuperable economic barrier to the attainment of the kind of education suited to his aptitudes and interests.²⁰

Their report further claimed that the time has come "to make public education at all levels equally accessible to all without regard to race, creed, sex, or national origin."²¹

This group recommended that:

1. the public school system make education through the fourteenth grade immediately available in the same manner that high school education is now available; and
2. the program of adult education be considerably expanded and be made more of the responsibility

²⁰ President's Commission on Higher Education, op. cit., p. 36.

²¹ Ibid., p. 38.

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VII. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

In the preceding pages we have seen that the American system of state-supported education reflects the interests, needs, values, and the cultural heritage of the people it serves and that it represents a livable-workable compromise between the goals set for the system by its citizens and the restrictions imposed upon it by tradition and human frailty.

American educator-citizens and lay citizens are in agreement that there is no universal, utopian curriculum; consequently, the American concept of advanced education is in a continuous state of evolution. By adapting theories which have been found good elsewhere and by devising and trying new theories in all branches of advanced education, Americans are trying to create a system of higher education best suited to the needs of their fellow citizens and their country.

²²Ibid., pp. 36-8.

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EDUCATIONAL BROADCASTING IN THE UNITED STATES

A definition of "educational broadcasting" may depend on one's background or orientation to the term. To the commercial broadcaster, educational broadcasting covers programming that in any way teaches an audience something as well as amuses them. Consequently, the term may encompass everything from educators, actors, and writers discussing the English language, where the moral is given as "better grammar pays," to the pyramiding of Dragnets, Line-Ups, State Troopers, and others, where the moral might be reported as "crime does not pay."

The term has an entirely different connotation to the educator or to the broadcaster in the employ of an educational institution, the "educaster." These people would interpret "educational broadcasting" as applying to programs having definite educational goals, beamed to a particular audience at a time convenient for that group's listening or viewing, and being skillfully, regularly, and frequently presented to assure satisfactory reception and comprehension of these

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goals. This particular kind of educational broadcasting cannot be provided by the commercial stations for a number of reasons. There is a detailed enumeration of these reasons in Chapter I; however, the following three may be considered as the major ones.

1. The number and type of programs needed to provide this service could not be taken from the commercial-caster's day.
2. The educational program's appeal is, necessarily, to a minority audience; while it is imperative that the commercial operator appeal to and keep a majority audience in order to operate a successful business.
3. The commercial station cannot be expected continuously to put as large an investment in time, money, and personnel into educational programming as would be necessary to achieve the desired educational goals.

In other words, the educator and educator see educational broadcasting as the offering of a second type of service to the American public--the operating of their own educational stations.

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education, as an institution, influences the field of broadcasting.

1. By operating its own educational stations, as previously explained.
2. By producing programs over commercial or educational stations, using the staff of the institution or its student-body. These programs may serve as a public relations or extension feature of the educational institution as well as assisting the outlet in the fulfillment of its obligation to operate in the "public interest, convenience, and necessity."¹
3. By training the personnel to man the commercial as well as the educational outlets.
4. By planning, conducting, and interpreting research in the technical and social aspects of both radio and television. Largely due to Federal grants to colleges of engineering and special research contracts with both government and industry, higher education has had considerable participation in the technical phases of both media; however, investiga-

¹"Communications Act of 1934," United States Code, Title 47 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1955), Act 303.

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tions into programming or new program types and thorough audience analyses have seldom been undertaken except under the aegis of the broadcasting network or the advertising agency. Institutions of higher learning have realized the value of such research and their obligation to participate in it, but funds have never been available to perform adequately this function.

In this chapter dealing with the history of educational broadcasting, we are primarily concerned with the role played by state universities and land-grant colleges and with points one and two given above--with the establishing of a second service and the producing of programs aired over commercial or educational stations--due to their more far-reaching social significance.

Before dealing with the part which education is playing in the development of television, it is necessary to survey the formative forces and to report the events that have influenced the development of educational television. To do this it is necessary to go back into the history of the role played by education in AM and FM radio, for it is out of the lessons learned for the inept handling of AM radio that education has entered an enlightened future in television.

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I. EDUCATIONAL AM RADIO

One of the strongest formative forces behind the development of all communication media is government regulation. While the history of this force is sketched in connection with radio, it is equally applicable and important to the medium of television, for both media come under the regulation of the same agency of the government and much of education's activity in the field has been definitely related to the amount and kind of government control.

Government Regulation As a Formative Force in Broadcasting

Government regulation of the industry has passed through several stages of development, alternating between a hands-off policy and rather strong government control. The controversy over Federal policy has usually involved interference with the principle of freedom of speech and press as put forth in the First Amendment to the Constitution:

Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press, or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the Government for a re-

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Radio Act of 1912. The Government's first step toward regulation of tele-communications came as the direct result of the Titanic disaster where rescue work was seriously impeded by the jamming of irrelevant signals. This first milestone in regulation was the Radio Act of 1912, which simply authorized the Secretary of Commerce and Labor to grant licenses. However, since the industry was small at that time, it was not foreseen that choices would have to be made between station applicants, that specific wavelengths would have to be assigned, and that engineering specifications would have to be drawn up regarding the distances between stations of different signal strength.

Radio Act of 1927. In keeping with increased technical advances in the field and with the ever-growing number of stations applying for licenses, the Radio Act was revised fifteen years later. This new Radio Act of 1927 came into being largely as the result of a series of four National Radio Conferences called by Secretary of Commerce Herbert Hoover, who was an advocate of the radio industry's composing the rules to govern itself. In addition to pro-

²"Amendments to the Constitution of the United States," Encyclopaedia Britannica (14th Ed.), Vol. **XXII**, 762C.

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viding for a five-man Federal Radio Commission, The FRC, representing Congress in the interpretation of its authority, the Act also spelled out the basic philosophy underlying broadcasting and telecasting, which is still part of the law of the land.

The hypotheses used as the basis for this philosophy have been stated as follows:

- (1) The radio waves or channels belong to the people. And, since they are a natural resource of the nation, they can be used for private purposes only if by such use the public interest will be served.
- (2) Service must be equitably distributed.
- (3) Broadcasting is a unique service and as such requires separate recognition and treatment.
- (4) Not everyone is eligible to use a channel. Licensees must qualify by meeting both general and specific tests.
- (5) Broadcasting is a form of expression protected by the First Amendment, although broadcasting is subject to certain special limitations.
- (6) The government has discretionary regulatory powers. While certain specific powers of regulation are granted by the Act, the regulatory agency is also granted considerable freedom to use its own discretion. The limit on its discretion is defined by the "public interest, convenience, and necessity."³
- (7) The government's powers are not absolute. Decisions must be made by due process of law and may be

³United States Code, Title 47, loc. cit.

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Over the years the FRC decreased, to a small extent, the number of broadcast stations; set up a classification system for local, regional, and clear channels; and attempted to equalize service in the country in proportion to the population, in accordance with the Davis Amendment to the Radio Act, which had been approved in March 1928. In 1930 Hearing Examiners were given the authority to conduct sessions much like a court, with all interested parties submitting evidence and arguments with the aid of legal counsel.

During the early 1930's there were several attempts to interest both the FRC and Congress in rulings or legislation favorable to education. However, the FRC felt that time offered by commercial broadcasters was sufficient and satisfactory for educational purposes; and since too many stations still cluttered the broadcast band, they took measures to limit the educational stations' air-time and to force these outlets into time-sharing arrangements.

At the same time Congress failed to pass a bill providing for an assignment of fifteen percent of all radio-broadcasting channels to educational institutions or govern-

⁴Sydney W. Head, Broadcasting in America (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1956), p. 131.

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Communications Act of 1934. While the majority of the working principles of the Radio Act of 1927 were proved good, there was continuous agitation in Congress to consolidate both wire and wireless communications under one law and one regulatory agency. This unification was achieved under the Communications Act of 1934. In the Communications Act, the Radio Act of 1927 was adopted in its entirety, with the Commission enlarged to seven members to care for the increased number of duties. The new group was called the Federal Communications Commission, the FCC. It is significant, and a credit to its authors, that the 1927 legislation has been sufficiently flexible and yet has offered enough control to care

⁵Robert B. Glynn, "Public Policy and Broadcasting," Television's Impact on American Culture, Ed. William Y. Elliott. (East Lansing: Michigan State University Press, 1956), pp. 67-68.

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However, here again Congress failed to pass The Wagner-Hatfield Amendment to the Communications Act of 1934, a piece of legislation favorable to education. The Amendment stated that educational, religious, agricultural, labor, and similar non-commercial associations could sell that part of their broadcast day which would make the station self-supporting.⁶ Since that day in 1934, there have been many questions regarding just what educational broadcasting is, but there has never been a question about what it isn't--it simply is not self-supporting.

It is interesting to notice that, in their 1934 plea for allocations, educators showed no united front, while commercial interests were well arrayed against them. This proved to be an excellent lesson for the educators who were able to profit by the experience when they approached the FCC for television channels in 1951.

Legislation favorable to education. The attitude of the regulatory agencies did not always remain unsympathetic to education. For example, in 1938 the AM radio stations of two land-grant institutions, Michigan State College and

⁶Ibid., pp. 69-70.

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the University of Illinois, applied to have their AM power increased to 5000 watts; this increase was granted despite complaints of interference by nearby commercial stations.

Later in 1938 the FCC allocated twenty-five channels for 100 to 1000 watt non-commercial, educational AM stations; however, a special set would have been necessary to receive these channels, which were located in the 20-42 megacycle band. Of course, no educational institution ever applied for a station in a band which no one would be able to hear.

Regulation by inference. Another formative force in educational broadcasting has not been part of the law of the land but is frequently referred to as regulation by inference.

The opportunity for those educational institutions not having their own broadcasting facilities to place their educational programming over commercial outlets has been assisted from time to time by certain "pronouncements" of government agencies. While the FCC has never suspended a commercial station because its programming was not in the "public interest, convenience, and necessity,"⁷ the agency

⁷"Communications Act of 1934," United States Code, Title 47 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1955) Act 303.

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has been able, through threatened scrutiny, to keep broadcasters cognizant of their responsibility for public service programming--a responsibility very easily fulfilled with the cooperation of educational institutions.

The most notable example of "regulation by raised eyebrow" was a publication entitled Public Service Responsibility of Broadcast Licensees which was issued in 1946.⁸ This "Blue Book," as it was promptly dubbed, had as its avowed purpose the setting up of a more thorough review of a station's programming before its license was renewed. Following the "Blue Book's" publication, there was never a test case in which the FCC flatly rejected a station's application for license renewal; but enough rumblings were heard, renewals delayed, and competitive hearings held that the educator found his services much more in demand and his programs much easier to place over "commercial air."

While the major effect, the scare of FCC surveillance, has tapered off, the "Blue Book's" standards are still applied in competitive hearings, and it has supplied an opening wedge for the placement of more programs originated by

⁸ Federal Communications Commission, Public Service Responsibility of Broadcast Licensees, (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1946.)

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History of AM Broadcasting

Early activity. Colleges and universities, through their departments of physics and schools of engineering, were occupied with wireless communications even before World War I, and some valuable technical contributions to modern broadcasting were made by these groups. Institutions of higher learning, however, did not enter the scramble for frequencies until 1921; between 1921 and 1936, over 200 broadcasting licenses were granted to 168 different educational institutions. Some of these schools applied for and received two, or even three, licenses during that fifteen-year period.

Since there was not a separate category for non-commercial, educational stations at this time, the educational institution was free to seek revenue just as the commercial broadcaster, if this were consistent with the institution's philosophy of educational programming. Some of the colleges which chose commercialism were soon swept up in their money-making endeavors and became indistinguishable from the more than five hundred other commercial stations.

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Reasons for failure. Despite the extremely large number of licenses granted, on January 1, 1937 there were only 37 educational institutions which had AM stations on the air. One certainly has the right to ask why the debacle in educational radio; but a truly comprehensive or objective answer will probably not be possible for some years to come, if ever. Writers on the subject have attributed the failure to many things, including over-zealous radio personnel who as leaders got too far ahead of their followers, unimaginative administrators who failed to lend adequate moral or financial support to the enterprise, lack of interest by pedagogues who in many cases held all broadcast activities in complete scorn,⁹ the pressure of commercial interests to acquire desirable channels--pressure not always too fairly applied,¹⁰ a lack of "know-how" on the part of programming personnel, Federal Radio Commission regulations which increased technical standards and required a high minimum number of broadcast hours daily, and the absence of a working philosophy regarding the job educational radio was to do.

⁹Robert J. Landry, This Fascinating Radio Business (Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Company, 1946), p. 109.

¹⁰C. Hartley Grattan, In Quest of Knowledge (New York: Association Press, 1955), p. 269.

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While it is undoubtedly true that all these factors played their part in the failure of educational radio, the establishing of a rank order of the causes for its demise will never be possible.¹¹

Despite assistance from foundations, the National Association of Educational Broadcasters, and the broadcasting industry itself, the cause of education by radio has never been sufficiently exploited. Many of the really important and influential educators and the institutions which they represent have never been active; consequently, the medium has not been "sold" on any nation-wide scale. In April 1958 there were only 38 non-commercial educational AM stations in the United States. Of the large AM educational radio stations still on the air at this writing, it is interesting to note that most are owned by land-grant colleges or universities which are using their outlets in large measure to serve the agricultural and home economics responsibilities of their institutions.

¹¹For a more detailed account of education in AM broadcasting, see S. E. Frost, Jr., Education's Own Stations (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1937) and Llewellyn White, The American Radio, (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1947).

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II. EDUCATIONAL FM RADIO

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As we have seen, AM broadcasting's history was marked by: (1) lack of organization on behalf of educational radio, not only among national educational groups but among educational broadcasters as well, and (2) the seemingly universal unrealistic view that government and industry would nurture and protect educational needs. While the history of FM in America is considerably shorter than that of AM broadcasting, the forces at work that have molded the educational pattern in FM are, for the most part, the same ones that were operative in AM broadcasting. There has been, however, a basic difference in the way these forces have operated and the effect that they have had since the 1940's.

Government regulation. Rulings of the Federal Communications Commission, which could be counted on to be unfavorable to education during the 1920's and 30's, finally took on a friendly pattern with the beginning of FM broadcasting. And, as the new, higher spectrum was opened in 1941, five channels between 42 and 43 megacycles were reserved for education.

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cations during World War II took effect. Following the War, in June 1945, the FCC decided to place the FM band even higher in the spectrum--from 88 to 108 megacycles. And, since there were more channels available, twenty out of one hundred channels were especially reserved for education.

A most important force favoring education was the liberalizing of the 1945 decree; a 1952 ruling permitted educational institutions to operate low-cost, 10-watt, non-commercial stations which could serve the immediate educational community, act as a training device, and yet could be operated with but a very small cash expenditure.

Organizations. By the time frequency modulation broadcasting was introduced, organizations such as the National Association of Educational Broadcasters (NAEB), which had been formed in the 1920's, had finally grown past merely "talking over mutual problems." For example, the NAEB, following an inspirational session held at Allerton House at the University of Illinois in 1949, became a group sure of its purposes and articulate as a lobby for its cause--seeking and receiving foundation monies, establishing a permanent headquarters and staff, conducting and reporting research, offering workshops, and developing a

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While the "educasters," themselves, had become better organized on behalf of their own cause, their zeal was not matched by equal enthusiasm on the part of other national educational organizations. The apathy of these groups, however, did not impede the granting of FM channel reservations for education, since the large commercial interests were not thinking of launching into a nation-wide FM program. This, undoubtedly, was the largest single factor contributing to FM's uncontested growth among the educational institutions of the Nation.

History of FM Broadcasting

It is impossible to consider AM and FM educational stations at the same time or to judge them by the same standards because of the fundamental difference in their conception. The AM outlet was designed as an extension of the institution, since, with its low position in the broadcast spectrum, increased power plus both ground and sky waves could assure a wide coverage area. However, the FM outlet,

¹²For a more detailed account of the history and work of the NAEB, see Harold E. Hill, "The National Association of Educational Broadcasters: A History" (Urbana, Illinois: NAEB, 1954). (Mimeographed.)

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due to its assignment in the upper part of the spectrum, has a coverage not much beyond the horizon--increased power having little effect since its lines of propagation are direct. These stations, therefore, were designed to serve on-campus or community needs.

The values of FM reception have never been thoroughly exploited because large commercial interests knew that too many additional outlets and relay stations would be needed to obtain the same nation-wide coverage offered by AM radio. Consequently, the audience for FM has never been as large as educators and independent commercial operators had hoped. The three major causes for the small size of the FM audience are completely inter-related: (1) too few people are quality-conscious with regard to radio reception, (2) promotion of the medium has not been adequate, and (3) AM-FM receivers are more costly, and FM receivers have not sold well.

Between 1945 and the present, however, almost one hundred and fifty FM licenses have been granted to educators--to public schools, state educational networks, colleges, or universities. Of this number 126 are actually on the air; fifty of these stations are the low-cost, 10-watt stations authorized in 1948.

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This does not mean that there are one hundred and twenty-six well-programmed, well-supported educational FM stations secure and thriving in the United States. A more familiar pattern would read as some combination of the following:

- (1) Transmitter converted from a cast-off of a nearby commercial outlet.
- (2) Equipment, principally gifts of used "gear" from commercial stations, renovated and adapted.
- (3) Personnel almost, if not entirely, enlisted from volunteer student labor.
- (4) Studio space partitioned off from other speech-radio activity areas, with materials and labor frequently donated by student personnel.
- (5) Record library gathered from the surplus of commercial stations or given by a national programming service upon receipt of fifty or one hundred dollars from the station--this amount may have been donated by the student personnel, themselves.
- (6) Budget: (a) precariously situated, with the legislative appropriations committee threatening annually or biennially to cut it down or out, or (b)

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These conditions are more universal than they are occasional and include one FM station, which the author has visited, in which all six conditions prevail.

III. EDUCATIONAL TELEVISION

Formative Forces

Government regulation. Again in television, as in AM and FM radio, one of the greatest pattern makers has been the attitude of the government as displayed in rulings which have been passed and interpreted by the Federal Communications Commission. And, although the history of television activity has been the shortest of the communication media, educational institutions have been more involved with television than with either AM or FM radio. The major reasons for this increased interest by educators will be considered in the next chapter under "The Educational Potential of Television"; but it is also evident that this increase in interest stems from a growing awakening that educational institutions must organ-

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The very same government rulings that played their role in AM and FM educational radio have had their effect on the pattern of growth in educational television; but, in addition to these older pieces of legislation, there have been several acts pertaining only to this newer medium which must also be considered.

Early rulings. Experimentation in television was legalized by the Federal Radio Commission as early as April, 1927, when space in the lower spectrum was set aside for the purpose. It soon became evident that this work would have to be boosted into the higher frequencies; for, since more than five AM radio bands can be fitted into one television channel, there were insufficient frequencies available in the lower spectrum for the wide television channels. All early work in television was limited, by the government, to experimenters; and, by 1937, there were seventeen of these experimental stations in operation.

The period of the late 1930's and the early 1940's was marked with litigation regarding standards such as lines in picture definition and frame frequencies per second. After

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the 525-line picture and the 30-frames-per-second standards were adopted in May 1941, the FCC licensed the first ten commercial stations; six of these stayed in operation serving the 10,000 sets in existence during World War II. By the time the War was over, the nineteen channels that had once been reserved for commercial television had been reduced to thirteen. In 1948 the number of VHF channels was lowered to twelve, and there has been discussion of decreasing these channels still further, due to expansion of government activities in the field.¹³

Errors in planning. In television, as it never had been able to in radio, the Federal Government had the opportunity to devise an overall plan for the medium's growth. And it was with such a plan in mind that the FCC sat in judgment on an intra-industry feud during the World War II freeze on television applications. The two major commercial networks, CBS and NBC, tried to sway the Commissioners regarding the requirements of the industry. However, because there had not been sufficient television promotional activity prior to

¹³For a more thorough coverage of these activities, see Robert B. Glynn, "Public Policy and Broadcasting," in William Y. Elliott (ed.), Television's Impact on American Culture (East Lansing: Michigan State University Press, 1956), pp. 21-46, or Sydney W. Head, Broadcasting in America (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1956), pp. 42-63.

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the War, the Commission's estimates concerning the popularity of television proved to be completely wrong. If more accurate estimates had been obtained, the FCC would have been able to see that launching nation-wide, competitive television activities with only twelve channels would be a most unworkable solution for the industry's growth.

Certain variables regarding television transmission seemed to have been known by FCC engineers: variables such as frequency, antenna height, power, and terrain. As a matter of fact, a sliding scale was devised to permit higher power and antennas with higher frequencies. However, members of the broadcasting industry, in the flurry of applying for television stations, were already beginning to feel the bind of too few channels. In an attempt to promote a more complete coverage and to appease the industry members, FCC engineers were asked to propose new standards lessening the distance between both adjacent and co-channels and legalizing the use of directional antennas in large metropolitan areas.

The report turned in by this group, the plan by which the FCC operated from November 1945 to September 1948, seemingly disregarded the fifth variable in television transmission, the important variable of interference conditions.

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Extraordinary amounts of tropospheric and ionospheric reflection caused more interference than anyone had ever dreamed; and that condition, coupled with errors in antenna-power relationships and in the accuracy of computing directional transmission patterns plus the necessity of assigning new frequencies to former Channel 1 occupants, caused the FCC to impose a new freeze on applications. Consequently, no new construction permits were granted from September 30, 1948 to April 14, 1952.

The Sixth Report and Order. The nearly four-year period of this second freeze on television applications was devoted to FCC hearings and engineering tests in an attempt to devise a plan which would give the maximum of coverage with the minimum of interference.

The plan devised was called "The Sixth Report and Order"¹⁴; and it created, in addition to the twelve existing VHF channels, seventy channels above the 300 megacycle range in the UHF spectrum, a possibility of 2,000 additional channel assignments.

A further provision of the Sixth Report was the creating of 242 non-commercial educational channels, a number more

¹⁴Federal Communications Commission, "The Sixth Report and Order," The Federal Register, May 2, 1952, pp. 4062-4064.

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recently raised to 256.¹⁵ This represented twelve percent of the total number of reservations possible. If a community had three or more channels assigned to it, one of these channels was to be used as a non-commercial, educational outlet. If a community had fewer than three assignments, no educational channel was set aside unless the community was the site of a primary educational center.¹⁶

Among the specifications to which educational applicants were required to adhere were:

1. The proposed station would have to be used primarily to serve community educational needs.
2. The station must furnish a non-profit and non-commercial broadcast service.
3. An institution applying for single ownership must make its station facilities available, without charge, to other community educational units and public service agencies or share costs with such groups on a non-profit basis.
4. An educational station must not broadcast programs for which consideration has been received, except

¹⁵85 VHF and 171 UHF channels.

¹⁶Forty-six reservations were given to communities cited as educational centers.

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shows produced by or at the expense of or furnished by groups other than the licensee.¹⁷

The Federal Communications Commission did not, however, require the educational outlet to operate on a regular schedule or keep a minimum number of hours of operation, as demanded of commercial stations. The Commission, nevertheless, reserved the right to take the number of broadcasting hours into consideration in all renewals of applications.

The Sixth Report also included a rather indefinite clause regarding the length of time the educational channels would be reserved.¹⁸ Because of its nebulous nature, this statement has been open to many interpretations, each having its own use. For example:

1. In 1952 and 1953 the FCC, educators, and educators used this indefiniteness as a goad or prod to launch educational institutions in television. They inferred that the educational channels would be open to commercial applications at the end of one year. This effect is felt to a somewhat lesser degree even up to today.

¹⁷Federal Communications Commission, loc. cit.

¹⁸"Reservations should not be for an excessively long period of time and should be surveyed from time to time." Ibid., p. 4063.

2. Commercial interests have used this lack of specificity as an opening wedge to apply for unused educational channels or to exchange less desirable channels, especially UHF, for the more powerful, more widely listened to, VHF band.

Organizations. Organizations have continuously played important roles in influencing the form which educational television has taken. For example, one cannot mention the Sixth Report without referring to the groups whose concerted efforts were instrumental in obtaining the channel reservations for education.

Leadership among organizations was provided by the Joint Committee on Educational Television, which was formed in late 1950 from a nucleus group of thirty educators, representing eight national educational organizations, who were called to Washington, D.C. by Dr. Franklin Dunham, Chief of Radio and Television in the U. S. Office of Education. In April of 1951 the Fund for Adult Education formally established the Joint Committee to consider the legal and technical problems of securing reservations for educational channels and launched its activities with a grant of \$90,000.

The Ad Hoc Joint Committee on Educational Television

crystallized education's television needs and planned the strategy for education's appeal during the months in which the FCC was considering these reservations. This appeal took the form of a procession of oral and written testimony by educators, educational institutions, cultural and educational organizations, and prominent government and lay leaders.²¹ Almost all of these testimonials sought the setting aside of non-commercial channels for education.²²

The JCET's goals were later expanded to include:

(1) seeking the finalization of the educational reservations, (2) serving as a policy, advisory, and integration group for education, and (3) developing general public support for educational television.

Organized education had learned its lesson from the fiascos in radio and had become an organized, energetic, and effective lobby for its needs in television. Among the groups

²¹Telford Taylor, "Brief of the Joint Committee on Educational Television," testimony presented before the Federal Communications Commission, October 8, 1951 to November 26, 1951 (Washington: Joint Council on Educational Television).

²²Between November 27, 1950 and the end of January, 1951, the FCC heard the testimony of 135 witnesses. Some 838 state boards of education, school systems, public service agencies, colleges, and universities submitted statements telling of the need for such reservations and their personal interest in them. Of these organizations 325 were colleges and universities. The complete record has over 14,000 pages with several thousand exhibits.

leading this crusade were the American Council on Education, the Association of Land-Grant Colleges and State Universities, the National Association of State Universities, the Council of Chief State School Officers, the National Education Association, and many other national organizations concerned with education. These groups are in addition to some whose interest was the utilization of radio and television in education, such as the National Association of School Administrators, the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, the Association for Education by Radio-Television, and the Educational Television and Radio Center. These ten organizations are the constituent groups of the Joint Council on Educational Television today.²³

The National Citizen's Committee for Educational Television, the NCCET, was a second organization established by the Fund for Adult Education of the Ford Foundation. This group, which was organized in October, 1952, had as its purpose the building of public interest in the educational television movement.

During the four and a half years of its existence,

²³The title was changed from Joint Committee to Joint Council on Educational Television in 1956, and funds are now channeled to it directly through the Ford Foundation instead of through the Fund for Adult Education.

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the NCCET secured endorsements and various degrees of promotional effort on behalf of educational television from 106 national organizations having a combined membership of over 100,000,000. The group also helped organize citizens' committees in many communities.²⁴

Gradually, during 1956, the JCET and the Educational Television and Radio Center took over the functions of the NCCET, receiving increased grants from the Ford Foundation to cover the additional expenditure.

Chronologically, the Educational Television and Radio Center, mentioned in the preceding paragraph, was not the next group to influence the growth of educational television; for, while it was organized in November, 1952, the Center's important network service did not begin until May 16, 1954. However, it is well to consider the Center at this time since it was another, the third, group to be incorporated with funds from the Fund for Adult Education of the Ford Foundation; the Center also serves as an additional way in which the FAE has sought to promote, support, and maintain non-commercial educational television stations. The ETRC, with headquarters in Ann Arbor, Michigan and New York City has undoubtedly exerted more influence on the form

²⁴ Editorial in the NCCET News, February and March, 1956.

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²⁴ Editorial in the NCCET News, February and March, 1956.

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which educational television has taken since the reservation of educational channels than any other single organization.²⁵

Even before the FCC made educational channels a reality, it was evident that the new educational station could not be expected to program a substantial broadcast day without resources beyond its local area. It was also obvious that there was an insufficient amount of good educational film available to provide these prospective stations with enough packaged program material. Consequently, the Center's primary activity has been to create and provide programs of good educational quality which are well-produced technically and of sufficient interest to supplement and enrich the programs created by local educational stations.²⁶

²⁵For a more detailed account of the history of the Educational Television and Radio Center, along with an appraisal of its activities, see I. Keith Tyler's chapter in Television's Impact on American Culture, edited by William Y. Elliott (East Lansing: Michigan State University Press, 1956) pp. 223-266.

²⁶The purposes and objectives of the Educational Television and Radio Center as stated in Article II of its Articles of Incorporation are as follows:

- A. To promote the advancement of educational television and radio for the general welfare.
- B. To create, develop, collect, and exchange ideas and information in connection with the operation and maintenance of educational television and radio stations, and to make available the same.
- C. To analyze films and recorded programs and mater-

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There are, at present, thirty-six affiliates of the ETRC. The ten state universities and land-grant colleges operating non-commercial educational television stations are among the affiliates.

In a survey conducted by the Center and reported in Broadcasting-Telecasting, it was revealed that affiliates were broadcasting an average of thirty-one hours of network programs each week during the June 1956-June 1957 period; this number represented an increase of six hours weekly over the previous year. The survey also showed that these stations were presenting approximately 58% of their programming live; this figure also included the 12% live network telecasts received from the National Broadcasting Company.²⁷

ials, and to report the results for educational purposes.

D. To create, develop, provide assistance to or acquire from outside sources television and radio programs and material or adjuncts thereto for use for educational purposes.

E. To develop, reproduce, publicize and promote the use of programs and materials, or adjuncts thereto, thus created or acquired.

F. To make available for educational purposes whether by radio or television stations, schools, adult education classes, or other groups or individuals, programs, materials or adjuncts thereto developed or acquired by the Center.

G. To engage in, support and otherwise assist research bearing upon the purposes of the Center.

²⁷"ETV Outlets Up Programming TV Average 31 Hours Weekly," Broadcasting-Telecasting, July 22, 1957, p. 66.

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One cannot overestimate the role played by foundations in the growth of educational television. In addition to its support of the Joint Council on Educational Television, the National Citizen's Committee for Educational Television, and the Educational Television and Radio Center, the Fund for Adult Education of the Ford Foundation has also poured funds into the stations themselves. The Fund for Advancement of Education, an independent organization established by the Ford Foundation, has provided money for much of the research being conducted in formal instruction by television.

There have been a number of organizations, outside the super-structure of the Ford Foundation, which have made large contributions to non-commercial educational television. Among these groups are the Arbuckle-Jamison Foundation, the Filene Fund, the Lincoln and Therese Filene Foundation, the Allan Hancock Foundation, the Kellogg Foundation, the A. W. Mellon Educational and Charitable Trust, the Payne Fund, the Alfred P. Sloan Foundation, and the Twentieth Century Fund. Without monies provided by these philanthropic groups and by corporations such as Emerson Radio and the Radio Corporation of America, there can be little doubt that the educational television movement would have scarcely "gotten off the ground."

UHF-VHF Controversy. The formative forces discussed

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heretofore may not have been in strict agreement as to the pattern which non-commercial, educational television should take; nevertheless, they have been, in all cases, forces that have favored its establishment. At the same time, however, there have been a few forces that have worked a decided hardship on the establishment of educational television, and it is well to consider these forces and their effect.

One of these negative forces has been the distribution of educational reservations with two-thirds of the channels allocated in the UHF band. This does not mean that the UHF hardship has been one worked exclusively on education; for when the UHF band was opened, following the Sixth Report, it became possible to have 1471 UHF stations.²⁸ Of this number only 171 were reserved for educational purposes, but 171 represented over two-thirds of the total number of channels, both VHF and UHF, available to non-commercial education.

The reasons why UHF allocations have not proved as satisfactory as those in the VHF band are many and varied; yet, due to the small number of engineering studies that had been made and the inaccuracies in those that were

²⁸Federal Communications Commission, "The Sixth Report and Order," The Federal Register, May 2, 1952, pp. 4062-4064.

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available, the technical superiority of VHF was not realized when the Sixth Report was issued in 1952. It has now been determined that the UHF signal will not cover as great a distance, will not be as clear as a VHF in its fringe areas, and is much more subject to interference from obstructions.

In addition to its technical inferiority, the UHF band also has suffered from being the "Johnny-come-lately" of the television world. With at least one VHF station already established in most populous areas, the large majority of set-owners have not hastened to acquire UHF reception; for regardless of whether they have acquired a UHF receiver, purchased a converter for their set, or had a repairman place a strip in the VHF set for each UHF station they wished to receive, UHF reception has always represented an additional expenditure. According to Broadcasting, latest estimates show that only 8.4% of the television sets in use at the present time are capable of receiving a UHF signal.²⁹

It follows logically that the UHF station, with its smaller audience and coverage, immediately became an undesirable "buy" for the advertiser and an unacceptable affiliate for the major network. With less money to build or buy good

²⁹"Nielsen Charts UHF Ups, Downs," Broadcasting, August 11, 1958, p. 40.

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programs and with little popular network programming, there has been little incentive for the set-owner to receive the UHF outlet. While this might seem principally the problem of the commercial station, the absence of a ready-made audience has had equally serious effects on UHF educational viewing, with few UHF receivers in the home and a populace unaccustomed to tuning the UHF band.

To date the FCC has not assured the future of UHF, with plans for deintermixture, scrapping UHF, and the military appropriating VHF channels 2 through 6 under continuous discussion, one cannot help being reluctant to invest the large sum necessary to establish and program any UHF television outlet.

A complete study of the frequency modulation and television spectrum has recently been completed by the Television Allocation Study Organization. TASO was set up late in 1956 following a suggestion by the FCC Chairman George C. McConnaughey and was underwritten by the National Association of Broadcasters, the Electronics Industries Association, the Association of Maximum Service Telecasters, the Committee for Competitive Television, and the Joint Council on Educational Television. The findings of this two-and-a-half year technical study were disclosed in March 1959. Broadcasting has this to say about the TASO report:

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The success or failure of UHF will depend on political, economic, and social factors as well as technical ones.

In general TASO found that UHF was inferior to VHF television in almost all respects. UHF showed comparable characteristics with VHF in areas where the terrain was level, and surpassed VHF in its resistance to man-made and natural interference.

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Broadcast engineers, however, mostly shook their heads as the disappointing results were unfolded.³⁰

A signal less powerful and more subject to interference, coupled with the lack of a ready-made audience and the government's reluctance to establish laws protecting and encouraging the growth of the ultra high frequencies, have, indeed, deterred education's launching of a wide program of UHF television.

Relaxation of Relay Regulations. A late 1957 move by the FCC has paved the way for more state and regional educational television networks. In August 1957 the Joint Council on Educational Television appealed to the FCC to relax regulations for educational stations regarding the operation of intercity relay systems. Up to that time, FCC rulings had required broadcasters to use the facilities of American Telephone and Telegraph Company or other common carriers when available.

³⁰"Engineering Won't Cure UHF," Broadcasting, March 23, 1959, pp. 59-60.

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Since educational outlets operate without commercial revenue, the JCET claimed they "have been deterred from participation in state-wide educational networks because of the prohibitive costs of subscribing to common carrier services."³¹ The educators sought and received permission, early in 1958, to exercise freedom of choice between operation of their own intercity microwave systems or those of common carriers from fixed and mobile locations. This relaxation of relay regulations set the stage for both state-wide and regional networks by microwave relay; such networks, for example, are now being planned in Ohio, linking nine existing or proposed outlets and are being discussed among regions of NAEB stations.

State and Regional Developments. The planning of state and regional groups for the establishment of coverage for their area is another formative force of educational television. However, this force cannot be given a single evaluation with regard to its effect on the long-range development of the educational use of the medium. The reason for this seeming inconsistency in the effect of this force is obvious when one considers that state and regional developments may be ranked from rather outstanding successes to very dismal failures.

³¹"Educators Ask for 'Freedom' to Set up Own Relay Systems," Broadcasting-Telecasting, August 5, 1957, p. 90.

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There have been two regional attempts to establish educational television coverage, and they have been of a very different nature. The Southern Regional Educational Board, already functioning to promote coordination of curriculums and facilities, has provided leadership in the utilization of television for southern educational institutions. The interest of this group is far from being new-found; representatives of the fourteen states which support this Board first met in Atlanta in 1952 to explore the possibilities of educational television for their area. At the conclusion of the first year of educational reservations, the Governors of the fourteen states petitioned the FCC to continue these reservations for another period of at least two years' duration so that legislatures would be given sufficient time to act.³²

More recently the Southern Regional Education Board has helped establish the Southern Regional Commission on Educational Television with representatives appointed by the governors of the individual southern states. This group has helped in the establishment of educational television stations, in the organization of a Liaison Committee to work

³² William K. Cumming, This is Educational Television (Ann Arbor, Michigan: Edwards Brothers, Inc., 1954), p. 5.

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with various national educational organizations, and in the organization of numerous conferences for the purpose of stimulating the activation of the educational channels granted in the southern region. It would serve very little purpose to enumerate these meetings or to recount the business transacted by the group over the past five years; however, the progress toward educational television coverage should be noted.

In a meeting held during August 1957, educators from sixteen states recommended a long-range microwave project linking the colleges and universities of the sixteen southern states. This ten-year development program would be underwritten by the states and would serve an estimated 600,000 students at an investment of approximately \$204,000,000. This sixteen-state network would seek foundation funds for necessary basic research. In addition to legislative and foundation monies, the maintenance of such relay facilities would cost an estimated \$6,900,000 each year.³³

This all-southern project is not without precedent in that area. Alabama has been operating a three-station

³³"ETV: 5 Years and \$60 Million Later," Broadcasting-Telecasting, November 11, 1957, p. 96.

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VHF network, reaching ninety percent of the State's population, since June 1956. A Georgia network with a UHF channel in Atlanta, air-borne in December, 1957, and a VHF outlet, operated by the University of Georgia in Athens, is to be launched in 1959. Florida's plans for an educational network are in an advanced stage, with VHF stations at Gainesville, Jacksonville, Miami, and Tampa already active. The State of Florida has already appropriated \$600,000 to construct a microwave network for instructional purposes connecting community colleges with state universities. North Carolina, while it maintains only one educational outlet, WUNC-TV, operated by the Consolidated University of North Carolina, is able to link the entire state for some of its educational programs. This is due to the location of the VHF outlet, in the Piedmont section of the State, and to the cooperation of the commercial stations which pick up the educational station's signal and relay it to other parts of the State.

It should be noted that in all cases but one, WETV-TV in Atlanta, these educational outlets are located on the readily accessible VHF band.

The only other attempt at regional cooperation in educational television was fraught with a seemingly insur-

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mountable problem, for it would have involved the juggling of channels, a matter involving Canada as well as the United States. The states which had attempted to establish a tri-state program in educational television were Maine, New Hampshire, and Vermont. (All three states had VHF educational allocations; however, they are not the same frequency.) The University of New Hampshire now plans to be on the air with its own outlet early in 1959.

In the discussion of regional systems for educational television, state-wide coverage plans of Alabama, Georgia, Florida, and North Carolina have already been mentioned. State-wide planning has not, however, been limited to the South; for almost three-fourths of the state governments have considered ways in which educational television could be brought to all or to the majority of the state's citizens.

As the result of measures taken four to six years ago, many states have appointed committees to study the feasibility of state-wide educational television, established a closed-circuit experiment to test television's uses, and appropriated funds to handle committee and experimental work. This slow pace in the development of state television facilities can, in many cases, be attributed to a turnover

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in state government offices or to a lack of interested, aggressive leadership from educators or lay citizens.

Those states which have progressed beyond these preliminary steps have made plans as varied as the states from which they originate and are having results equally as diverse. The nearest semblance to an over-all pattern which might apply to state-wide television plans would assemble all such attempts under two major headings: (1) state organized primarily through the public school system, as in Florida and Oklahoma, and (2) state organized through institutions of higher education, as in Kansas and Oregon.

Regardless of the nature and extent of preliminary planning, several states have not been able to bring their educational television projects to fruition. Undoubtedly the most elaborate study and plan that has not been realized was developed in New York State, where the Board of Regents of the University of New York had applied for ten outlets and had received seven construction permits. At this point the New York Temporary State Commission on the Use of Television for Educational Purposes was appointed by Governor Thomas E. Dewey. After a mass of testimony was gathered, the Commission reported, on February 25, 1953, that television for educational purposes should be developed to the broadest possible

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extent; however, the majority report did not favor the construction of state-owned and operated stations at that time. The report recommended the securing of private funds to operate one or more experimental programs and stations, and asked the FCC to continue holding channels for educational purposes. A minority report of the Commission stated there was need for state aid and urged immediate constructive legislation.

The New York State Legislature granted the Board of Regents power to charter responsible groups to build and operate educational stations, and several associations had been formed which were in various stages of planning and building toward station operation. With the development of educational television still at such a slow pace, Governor Averill Harriman suggested that further studies be made. As the result of a favorable report by this second Temporary Study Committee in 1955, the State Educational Department was granted an appropriation to install closed-circuit facilities and conduct experimentation in the uses of television. These experiments are still in progress.³⁴

Plans to provide some ETV coverage in the New York City area have just recently been completed. Since no VHF

³⁴ Joint Council on Educational Television, Four Years of Progress in Educational Television (Washington, D. C.: JCET, 1956), p. 73.

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reservation was made for education in metropolitan New York, while all commercial television in the area is on that band, the New York State Board of Regents has been interested in acquiring VHF space. An opportunity for this action was presented when a Channel 13 station in Newark, New Jersey, transmitting from the Empire State Building, needed FCC approval for a change of ownership. In December, 1957 the Board of Regents asked that the channel be reserved for education, guaranteed to pay the station's owners a fair price for the outlet, and declared that an attempt would be made to make Channel 13 operate as a bi-state educational outlet.³⁵

It was expected that such a proposal by the Board of Regents of the University of the State of New York would meet with immediate and intense disfavor in New Jersey, since Channel 13 is the only VHF outlet broadcasting in that State. This proved to be an understatement, and in February, 1958 even the New Jersey legislature adopted a resolution urging the FCC to retain Channel 13 as a commercial assignment. Finally, a month later, the New York Board of Regents withdrew its petition and stated that an announcement would be

³⁵ "New York State Seeks WATV (TV)'s CH. 13," Broadcasting, December 9, 1957, p. 66.

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made shortly including new plans for an educational television station in the New York metropolitan area.³⁶

The "new plans" were announced later the same week when tentative agreement was reached between RKO Teleradio Pictures Inc. and the New York Board of Regents to share the use of WOR-TV New York, Channel 9, beginning in September 1958. Under the proposal, the station would operate as an educational outlet from 9 A.M. until 5 P.M. weekdays and from 9 A.M. until noon on Saturdays. The agreement was contingent upon approval of the New York State Legislature, which would be required to appropriate funds for the project. It was estimated that the total cost of the educational television project for one year would be \$545,000.³⁷ On April 23, 1958, Governor Harriman signed the bill appropriating \$600,000 for educational television, including daytime telecasts on WOR-TV. Consequently, educational programming began in the New York metropolitan area late in September 1958.³⁸

³⁶ "New York State Educators Drop Request for WATV (TV) CH. 13," Broadcasting, March 17, 1958, p. 103.

³⁷ "WOR-TV Plans Switch to Daytime Education," Broadcasting, March 17, 1958, p. 102.

³⁸ "Harriman Signs Bill to Boost N.Y. ETV," Broadcasting, April 28, 1958, p. 154.

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As to New Jersey's plans for educational television, a two-year, \$100,000 experiment collapsed in New Jersey in 1954 when Governor Robert Meyner decided that a '20-inch screen should never be allowed to come between teacher and pupils during school hours.'³⁹ The Governor refused to provide additional funds to continue the experiment and the Joint Appropriations Committee of the New Jersey State Legislature backed him in his stand.

State-wide plans in New York and New Jersey are not the only ones to go awry; but, as examples, they do contain most of the elements that have been present in other failures of state-wide educational television: (1) a lack of interest in the project by the state's chief administrator, (2) a change of state administration resulting in a shelving of progress already made in educational television, (3) insufficient vigorous, influential interest in television as a tool of communication by educators or lay citizens, (4) a procession of study commissions, (5) one or a series of small appropriations for investigation into the value of television for education (information, for the most part, already available from other, similar projects), and (6) a certain timorousness about the new, the untried.

³⁹Cumming, op. cit., p. 7.

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As to New Jersey's plans for educational television, a two-year, \$100,000 experiment collapsed in New Jersey in 1954 when Governor Robert Meyner decided that a '20-inch screen should never be allowed to come between teacher and pupils during school hours.'³⁹ The Governor refused to provide additional funds to continue the experiment and the Joint Appropriations Committee of the New Jersey State Legislature backed him in his stand.

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³⁹Cumming, op. cit., p. 7.

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History of Educational Telecasting

Television's history, of course, is even shorter than that of FM broadcasting: for example, the very first home television receiver was not placed on the market until 1939. However, education is far from a newcomer to the television field; as a matter of fact, in the area of engineering, the State University of Iowa was doing technical research and trying out educational programs over their mechanical scanning experimental station, W9XX, as early as 1932 to 1939. The sound accompanying these pictures was transmitted over WSUI, the University's AM radio outlet. When it was definitely proved that the mechanical scanning system would not be good enough, this project was abandoned.

Pioneering state universities. In addition to the University of Iowa, there were three other state universities or land grant colleges involved in television activities prior to 1948: (1) Kansas State College was operating an experimental transmitter on Channel 1, (2) the University of Michigan was producing programs on commercial stations, and (3) Iowa State College had obtained a construction permit for a station.

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service, Iowa State College was the first educational institution to be on the air with its own television station, WOI-TV, which began operations in February 1950. This station was licensed and operated commercially but occupied a unique position in the early days of telecasting. Since Iowa State College had the only television license granted in its area when the FCC stopped all applications for channel allocations, WOI-TV occupied its singular position for approximately the first three years of its existence. During this period the station had affiliations with all four networks in addition to being able to refuse network broadcasts at will in favor of its own educational programs. This, indeed, was an enviable position; one that is not now tenable nor can it ever be again.

Freezes on channel allocations. One cannot recount the role of education in television without a rather thorough investigation of the freezing of channel allocations which was mentioned in the preceding paragraph. This stopping of the growth of television in 1948, however, was not the first such measure taken by the FCC.

Ten commercial stations were licensed before World War II, but, with our entry into the War, all set manufacturing stopped as well as the consideration of applications

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for channels. During this hiatus the FCC considered the problem of width of channel allocations and the distance between stations. On October 7, 1945 the FCC began its consideration of the 118 applications which had accumulated during the War.

Unfortunately the engineers' reports on which the FCC was operating were not the correct solution to the separation of stations nor was there an adequate number of channels available for the unprecedented wave of applicants.⁴⁰ Consequently, continuing to grant licenses, with tropospheric interference definitely greater than FCC engineers had ever estimated, proved foolhardy; and a new television freeze was imposed September 30, 1948. At this time there were over 100 stations with construction permits or on the air and nearly 300 applications pending.

During this second freeze on applications, from September 30, 1948 to April 14, 1952, educational broadcasters demonstrated that they could apply the lessons learned from their failures in radio. Opinion as to education's television needs and the ways of implementing them began taking shape at a seminar sponsored by the National Association

⁴⁰ Robert H. Stern, The Federal Communications Commission and Television, (unpublished Harvard University doctorate thesis), p. 277.

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of Educational Broadcasters and held at Allerton House, Monticello, Illinois, during the summer of 1949.⁴¹

Additional impetus for the formalizing of a plan for education came when the FCC shortly issued its television allocations report leaving out any provision for educational reservations. A lone minority report, filed by FCC Commissioner Frieda Hennock, provided a legal and moral basis for the educational protests and petitions which followed. NAEB attorneys immediately filed a petition with the FCC asking for educational reservations. This petition was supported by co-filings by three national education organizations: the Association of Land Grant Colleges and Universities, the Association of State University Presidents, and the National University Extension Association. The U.S. Office of Education and the National Education Association added import and prestige to the movement when they filed separate petitions asking that both UHF and VHF channels be set aside against future needs of education throughout the country.

Unity to decry the FCC allocation plan's omission of reservations for education, however, did not provide educators with a oneness of thought concerning the exact form

⁴¹ For further information concerning the NAEB meeting at Allerton House, see page 70 of this same chapter.

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educational television should take. Some held for all reservations to be in the UHF band, some the VHF, others both. Some held for non-commercial stations only, some for non-profit, others commercial if desired. A U.S. Office of Education - NAEB meeting and the appointing of an Ad Hoc Joint Committee on Educational Television under the auspices of the American Council on Education, in October 1950, provided the proper influence to unite the forces, mediate in compromising conflicting ideas, and present a united front for non-commercial educational television before the FCC.

The JCET, under the aegis of the American Council on Education and with the support of all the major education associations, organized the testimony of 135 witnesses and the statements of 838 state boards of education, school systems, public service agencies, colleges, and universities into a truly eloquent appeal for channel reservations for educational television. This appeal has frequently been dubbed, by the commercial broadcasters, as an appeal so strong that to be against educational reservations would be like being against mother love. Consequently, with the publishing of "The Sixth Report and Order," May 2, 1952, the FCC created 242 non-commercial educational channels.⁴²

⁴² Federal Communications Commission, "The Sixth Report and Order," The Federal Register, May 2, 1952, pp. 4062-4064.

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This number has more recently been raised to 256.

Getting education on the air. Despite the interest and enthusiasm that was generated in securing channel reservations for education, progress toward getting educational stations airborne set a very different pace. Educators, administrators of educational institutions, and community leaders did not have funds at their command to launch such a costly project; and, in many cases, the value of educational television had to be proved to those holding the purse-strings before the money was forthcoming. However, since the Sixth Report was so indefinite regarding the length of time the educational channels were to be retained, and, undoubtedly due also to a modicum of ego involvement, those who had championed education's cause became especially concerned with this slowdown in momentum once the reservations were secured.

Among the most interested and vocal members of the government were Paul A. Walker, Chairman, and Frieda Hannock of the Federal Communications Commission. Chairman Walker made a number of speeches urging those interested in educational stations to act with all possible speed. At a meeting of school administrators, educasters, and leaders in industry held at Pennsylvania State University, for example,

Walker stated:

"These precious television assignments cannot be reserved for you indefinitely. They may not be reserved for you beyond one year unless you can give the Commission concrete, convincing evidence of the validity of your intent. . . . This is American education's year of decision. What you do this year may determine for a long, long time - perhaps for generations - the role of education in television. The time to act is now."⁴³

Commissioner Hennock's appeal to educators was along the same line but with an additional emphasis on getting in applications for channels regardless of whether the financing and programming details had been arranged.

During the first year after the publication of the Sixth Report, educators gathered at especially called nationwide, regional, and state-wide meetings to consider the problems presented by the grant of channel reservations. At the majority of these gatherings Chairman Walker cautioned while Commissioner Hennock forewarned, implored, and cajoled educators to immediate action.

The first non-commercial station, licensed from these channels reserved for education, was KUTH (TV) in Houston, Texas, which is owned by the University of Houston and the Houston Independent School District. KUTH, a UHF outlet

⁴³ Carroll V. Newsom (ed.), A Television Policy for Education (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1952) p. 31.

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on Channel 8, was air-borne June 23, 1953. Six months later, January 15, 1954, Michigan State College began its operation of a non-commercial station, WKAR-TV, on UHF Channel 60--the first state university educational outlet.

From these beginnings forty educational stations are now on the air with three others to be activated within the next few months. Twenty-one state universities own stations, participate in state networks, or are major contributors to a community station at the present time. Not included in this tally are the two stations operated commercially by state universities.

Friends and foes of educational television. Educators, educational administrators, and educasters, either individually or as members of their various professional organizations, have always been the closest friends of educational television. However, this friendship, without the influence of outside organizations, could never have brought about the kind and the amount of educational television we have today. A roll-call of these organizations can be found on pages 81 to 87 of this same chapter.

One cannot recount the highlights in the history of educational television, however, without giving especial mention to the contributions of the Ford Foundation. The Ford

Foundation bankroll has provided money to stimulate building, equipping, and programming these stations, to train station personnel, and to do research in the utilization of the medium. The sum of \$26.4 million given to date has not been without conditions or restrictions as to its use. Most of the appropriations have been made with the provision that the sum would be matched or doubled by the group sponsoring the activity. Among the important grants from the Foundation have been: (1) programming of stations and the Educational Radio and Television Center--\$8.9 million, (2) the construction and equipping of educational television stations--\$3 million, and (3) the paying of professors' salaries for appearances on educational television.⁴⁴

Another friend of educational television is the commercial broadcaster, one whose influence is difficult to evaluate. In some cases this "friend" has proved to be an out-and-out enemy; in others, a close ally. Motives behind this relationship between commercial and non-commercial television interests could entail a lengthy discussion; but, for the purpose of this resume, it is sufficient to note that there are usually four factors playing important roles in

⁴⁴ "The Ford Foundation: Bankroll behind ETV," Broadcasting, November 11, 1957, p. 96.

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this relationship:

1. Whether or not having an ETV station in their community would greatly lessen or eliminate competition for the local sponsors' dollar.
2. The type of programming of the ETV station; the commercial station does not want competition for the majority audience.
3. Whether or not the ETV station is situated on a VHF channel desired by influential local interests.
4. Whether or not desirable channels reserved for ETV in a particular area have been activated.

Commercial broadcasters have, in many cases, given institutions of higher education and non-commercial broadcasting stations substantial gifts of money or equipment. According to Joint Council on Educational Television figures, published in Broadcasting, there have been gifts in excess of six million dollars.⁴⁵ It should be noted, however, that this valuation also covers a large percentage of gifts of used equipment which the recipient has had to repair or revamp or which has had a very short period of usefulness.

⁴⁵"Major Gifts from Commercial Broadcasters," Broadcasting, November 11, 1957, p. 100.

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A potential friend of ETV whose merit and effect remain to be weighed is the newly-formed Organization for National Support of Educational Television (ONSET). The purpose of this group is to develop specialized programs for educational television, inviting segments of industry to serve as "patrons" for appropriate program types. No control over the content of these programs is given the patron-sponsor.

The first such series of programs, World of Medicine, was filmed under a grant from the Schering Corporation, a pharmaceutical firm, and was distributed to 24 ETV stations throughout the country in February, 1958.⁴⁶ The episodes of this series open and close with a reminder that "this program has been made possible by a grant from the Schering Corporation," which conforms to FCC regulations regarding the identification of the source of each program and of its funds.

Nevertheless, as innocuous as this type of production might appear on the surface, this "patron" approach to educational television does represent the first encroachment upon the no-sponsor concept of ETV, an encroachment in terms of production costs if not in time purchases. According to Sherman H. Dryer, a board member:

⁴⁶ "Patron Plan for ETV Underway on WTTW (TV)," Broadcasting, February 10, 1958, p. 86.

By financing on a national basis with patrons from the business world, through the facilities of educational television ONSET hopes to advance significantly the quality and status of educational television programming both on educational stations and as a public service on commercial stations.⁴⁷

A Comparison of Education's Record in VHF and UHF.

In the previous section, reference was made to the bases of the relationship between the commercial and the educational broadcaster; point four was whether or not education occupied desirable VHF channels. When one considers that, to fall of 1958, only 15.5% of the 256 channels allotted to education had been activated, the charge that education is usurping a valuable commodity which should be turned back to the Government seems to have foundation. However, it is important that one analyze these figures to find their precise meaning.

Of the 85 VHF channels reserved for education, 50 are situated in areas of concentrated population. To June, 1957, 19 of these areas already had educational television air-borne; and, by the summer of 1958, the total of non-commercial VHF outlets in populous areas was 27. To summarize, physical facilities for educational television passed the half-way mark in the VHF band during 1958.

⁴⁷Ibid.

However, utilization of UHF channels has been much slower. One must remember, nevertheless, that, in the section of this chapter dealing with the UHF-VHF controversy, it was pointed out that UHF channels have been proven undesirable for many reasons. The most important of these reasons may be summarized as follows: the UHF outlet has a smaller coverage area, is more subject to interference, and has a smaller audience potential than its VHF competitor.⁴⁸ In April 1958 there were only seven educational outlets operating in that band; three others were on the air by summer of 1958. An eleventh station, owned by the University of Southern California, became educational television's first failure. KTHE went off the air less than a year after its opening.^{49, 50} In other words, only 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ % of the UHF channels allocated to education have been activated.

Commercial UHF has not been eminently more successful

⁴⁸ Chapter III, pp. 87-91.

⁴⁹ For further information, see Leo A. Martin, "The Educational Television Stations," Television's Impact on American Culture, ed. William Y. Elliott. (East Lansing: Michigan State University Press, 1956), pp. 219-220.

⁵⁰ WKAR-TV, Channel 60, Michigan State University, suspended operations June 28, 1958 and awaited final disposition of its share-time arrangement on VHF Channel 10.

than its educational brother. With almost 87% more channels available to commercial interests, only 90, or 6.92% of the total number possible were broadcasting in June 1958; and over one hundred construction permits had been dropped.

A comparison of educational and commercial UHF television in June 1958 shows that, although four times as many commercial UHF stations had been on the air at some time, over four times as many commercial outlets had failed as educational ones. (See TABLE I.)

TABLE I

Educational and Commercial Station UHF TALLY SHEET		
	Educational	Commercial
Channels that have been activated	6.49%	11.64%
Stations on the air June 1958	4.09%	6.92%
Stations that have failed	9.10%	42.00%

Inroads on Educational Reservations. Despite warnings that educational reservations might end at any time, for the first three years after the Sixth Report was issued the FCC categorically denied any petition which might have led to the deletion of an educational channel. However,

pressure from commercial interests to make changes in these educational reservations has never ceased. This pressure has increased as commercial allocations have been filled while educational ones in some of the same areas have remained unclaimed.

Undoubtedly the strongest single appeal to obtain education's unused VHF reservations, moving them to the UHF band, was made by the American Broadcasting Company. Arguing that the survival of a third network is essential to the health of commercial television, ABC pointed out that in a number of large markets there are only two VHF assignments, the two already in use by CBS and NBC; yet, in those same markets there is an educational VHF channel not presently granted or in use.

At first glance, one would hasten to point out that this solution which might aid the health of commercial television, particularly that of the American Broadcasting Company, would certainly aid in the destruction of the future of educational television. On more thorough analysis, one can see that this would not be the solution for ABC since all of the VHF ETV channels in the first twenty markets are in use or under construction, and there are only five reserved and unused or unclaimed VHF ETV channels remaining

in the one hundred largest markets.

Actually, educational television faces a more serious threat from a gradual, one-by-one, change or deletion in reservations than from any wholesale onslaught wiping out the remaining reserved channels.⁵¹

The first such change in channel assignments was granted by the FCC in July 1956. At that time the Commission ordered Channel 3, which had been reserved for education in College Station, Texas, shifted to Channel 48. The justification for this deletion of a VHF reservation was given as the inactivity on the part of Texas educators to utilize the channel.

In February 1957, educators in the St. Petersburg-Tampa area were asked to agree to a similar shift from Channel 3 to Channel 48. In this case, however, the UHF channel had been occupied by a commercial station, operated by the City of St. Petersburg, which claimed that over ten percent of the sets in the area had been converted to UHF reception.

⁵¹A detailed account of the beginnings of inroads on educational reservations may be found in:

Robert B. Glynn, "Public Policy on Broadcasting," Television's Impact on American Culture, ed. William Y. Elliott, (East Lansing: Michigan State University Press, 1956), pp. 89-91.

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The commercial outlet, in its desire to jockey itself into more even competition with the two VHF stations in the area, proposed turning over its 270 kilowatt transmitter and antenna, valued at \$200,000, to the educators as soon as the exchange of frequencies was passed by the FCC. The exchange was not agreeable to the exponents of educational television, and the changeover was not accomplished.⁵²

On January 30, 1957, Channel 5, which had previously been reserved for education in Weston, West Virginia, was deleted and made available for commercial use. This decision was made despite formal opposition by West Virginia University, the Broadcasting and Film Commission of the National Council of the Churches of Christ of the U. S. A., West Virginia's Research Center, Inc., and the Joint Council on Educational Television. The FCC released the following statement regarding the deletion: "We do not believe that Channel 5 should continue to be set aside for education when there are no prospects for its use in the foreseeable future in the light of the need for commercial television services."⁵³

⁵²"St. Petersburg Asks Educators to Exchange," Broadcasting, February 4, 1957, p. 9.

⁵³"Channel 5 - Weston, West Virginia," JCET Factsheet and Box Score (Washington, D. C.: Joint Council on Educational Television, February, 1957), p. 2.

The third time the FCC removed a channel from the educational reserved list, September, 1957, Channel 9 in Eugene, Oregon was made available for commercial use. The Commission stated that continued reservation of the channel could not be justified "in the absence of substantial evidence that the educational interests" of the Eugene area had made any attempt to activate the channel.⁵⁴ However, a proposal to reassign educational Channel 7 at Corvallis, Oregon to the Eugene-Corvallis area for commercial use was denied because a construction permit had been issued to the Oregon State Board of Higher Education. The State Board's station, KOAC-TV, began its programming in October, 1957.

To date, in all other cases where educational reservations have been in jeopardy, the Joint Council on Educational Television has been able to fend off successfully the deletion of those channels or the necessity of changing them for less desirable frequencies.

Co-licensing. The Sixth Report and Order was very explicit concerning the non-commercial operation of all

⁵⁴"Oregon ETV Deleted for Commercial Use," Broadcasting-Telecasting, September 30, 1957, p. 79.

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educational reservations.⁵⁵ Any attempt to commercialize any of these channels would undoubtedly meet with violent opposition from the commercial broadcasters, and the outcome of any resulting litigation would surely be very much in question.

In seeking ways to strengthen education's position, two attempts have been made to gain FCC approval for the granting of a television station licensed between educational and commercial interests. These have, however, sprung from completely different reasons and have met with considerably different reactions on the part of the FCC.

One of these suggestions for co-licensing was not a mutual attempt at licensing but was the proposal of a UHF commercial outlet in Des Moines, Iowa in June 1955.⁵⁶ In appealing to the FCC to pre-empt the educational reservation for Channel 11 and substitute UHF Channel 23, the commercial operator, Rib Mountain Television, Inc., offered as an alternate proposal a mutual commercial-educational assignment permitting cooperative programming. At that time there was no organization in Des Moines to take up the educational part of the assignment; and, with

⁵⁵For further information, see pages 78 and 79 of this chapter.

⁵⁶Glynn, loc. cit.

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opposition to the proposal filed by Iowa educational groups and the Joint Committee on Educational Television, the Federal Communications Commission denied Rib Mountain's petition by a four-to-three vote.

Co-licensing was mutually proposed at approximately the same time by Michigan State University and the Television Corporation of Michigan, who were applying for unreserved Channel 10 in Onondaga-Parma, Michigan. Michigan State University had been operating non-commercially on commercial Channel 60 since January 14, 1954; however, it was estimated that UHF conversion in the Lansing-East Lansing area was considerably less than fifteen per cent, with the only other UHF outlet nearby having gone off the air in 1956.

Under the plan submitted to the FCC over one-third of the station's programming, $38\frac{1}{2}$ hours, would be provided by the educational licensee. Each interest would maintain its own production facilities while the University's transmitting facilities would be used by both. The commercial licensee would agree to pay Michigan State University twenty per cent of its profits before taxes were deducted.⁵⁷

⁵⁷Statement by Armand Hunter, Director of Radio and Television Development, Michigan State University, in a personal interview, April 23, 1957.

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In what might have been a policy-setting statement, the FCC handed down its initial decision in favor of the co-licensing on March 6, 1957. However, over a year later, the case was still awaiting further oral argument. The tentative awarding of Channel 10 to the co-owners came in May 1958; and Michigan State University officials suspended the operation of WKAR-TV, their high cost-low audience UHF outlet, on June 28. This award was confirmed by the FCC on September 4, 1958;⁵⁸ however, the situation was fraught with additional delay when a circuit court injunction, sought by an unsuccessful applicant for the channel, restrained University officials from awarding construction contracts on October 24. In this instance the enjoinder required clarification of University funds being used in the project; this injunction was lifted November 10, 1958.⁵⁹ Michigan State University and a private owner, WMSB and WILX-TV, commenced telecasting on Channel 10 on March 15, 1959--the only combined educational and commercial operation in the United States.

The major differences between the Rib Mountain and

⁵⁸"MSU to Share Channel 10," The Flint Journal, September 4, 1958, p. 2.

⁵⁹"MSU Given Approval to Build TV Station," The Saginaw News, November 11, 1958, p. 2.

Michigan State cases must be again pointed out:

1. In the Rib Mountain case an attempt for co-licensing was being attempted on an educational channel; in other words, an educational channel would be commercialized. However, Michigan State University and its commercial partner were seeking permission for co-licensing on a commercial channel.
2. In the Rib Mountain case there was no organized educational group prepared to immediately take part in television activities; consequently, it was feared that educational participation in the station would be slighted. However, Michigan State University had a large staff trained in television programming and production and ready to assume its educational share of the broadcast schedule.

It is not the purpose of the writer, at this time, to discuss the merits of the co-licensing of educational and commercial stations, but co-licensing is important to the history of educational television as one of the possible answers to the problem of station financing which educators are continuously seeking.

Present Status of Channel Usage. An inventory of the educational television channels shows that there are forty-one outlets now on the air; this number includes one station operated by the Department of Education of Puerto Rico located at San Juan, Puerto Rico. Nine state universities and land-grant colleges, plus one state board of higher education, and one consolidated state university (composed of the state university, the land-grant college, and the woman's college of the university) are among the single station owners; two of these stations are UHF outlets. Of the forty educational stations within the continental limits of the United States, nine are located in the ultra high frequencies; four of these are in the midwestern states of Michigan, Ohio, and Wisconsin. (See TABLE II.)

TABLE II
NUMBER OF EDUCATIONAL TELEVISION STATIONS
ON THE AIR

STATIONS within continental limits of U. S.	VHF	UHF	Total
Over-all	31	9	40
Owned and operated by a single state university	7	2	9
State universities producing all or large percentage of station's programming	16	2	18

Thirteen recipients of construction permits, issued in the two years immediately following the release of the Sixth

Report, have not established stations. A breakdown of this group shows that:

1. Eleven of the thirteen are located in the UHF band.
2. The two VHF construction permits not used were issued to Kansas State College in Manhattan and the University of Kansas in Lawrence, Kansas.
3. The thirteen holders of construction permits include the two VHF in Kansas, three UHF in Connecticut, and seven UHF in New York, states which at one time contemplated networks.
4. Three of these construction permits are in the possession of state universities or land-grant colleges (Kansas State College, the University of Kansas, and the University of Michigan).

(See TABLE III.)

TABLE III

INACTIVE CONSTRUCTION PERMITS FOR NON-COMMERCIAL
EDUCATIONAL STATIONS

Date Issued	VHF	UHF	TOTAL
1952	1	6	7
1953	1	4	5
1954	...	1	1
(Total number inactive)			13
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Inactive permits held by state universities	2	1	3

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A breakdown of the forty educational television stations now on the air into organizational types would show that there are ten principal categories into which ETV stations fall. There are stations owned and operated by: (1) a state educational network, (2) a state department of education, (3) a state department of higher education, (4) an area educational television association, (5) a community educational television association, (6) city or county public school systems, (7) a state university or land-grant college, (8) a consolidated state university, and (9) a state university as a co-licensee with a private commercial owner. (See TABLE IV, page 127.)

In addition to owning and operating outright ten of these educational television stations, state universities and land-grant colleges are also active in the operation and programming of the following: (1) the Alabama ETV network, (2) KTCA-TV in St. Paul-Minneapolis, Minnesota, (3) KETA-TV in Oklahoma City and KOED-TV in Tulsa, Oklahoma, (4) KOAC-TV in Corvallis, Oregon, and (5) KCTS-TV in Seattle, Washington.

State universities will become active when two additional stations are expected to become air-borne late in 1959. Included in this group are the University of Georgia and the University of New Hampshire; both of these

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TABLE IV

EDUCATIONAL TELEVISION STATIONS BY ORGANIZATIONAL

TYPES

TYPES	NUMBER	STATIONS	
State ETV Network	3	Alabama ETV Commission (Adalusia, Birmingham, Munford, Alabama)	
State Dept. of Education	3	Louisiana (Monroe); and Oklahoma (Oklahoma City and Tulsa)	
State Dept. of Higher Education	1	Oregon State Board of Higher Education (Corvallis)	
Area ETV Association	3	Florida West Coast ETV, Inc. (Tampa); Bay Area ETV Assn. (San Francisco, Calif.); and Twin City Area ETV Corp. (St. Paul-Minneapolis, Minn.)	
Community ETV Assn.	12	IDEH Educational Foundation, Boston, Mass.; Chicago ETV Foundation, Chicago, Ill.; Greater Cincinnati ETV Foundation, Cincinnati, Ohio; Council for ETV Ch. 6, Inc., Denver, Colorado; Detroit ETV Foundation, Detroit, Mich.; Educational Television, Inc., Jacksonville, Fla.; Community TV Foundation, Memphis, Tenn.; Greater New Orleans ETV Foundation, New Orleans, La.; Philadelphia Educational Radio and Television, Philadelphia, Pa.; Metropolitan Pittsburgh ETV (2 stations--UHF and VHF), Pittsburgh, Pa.; and St. Louis ETV Commission, St. Louis, Mo.	
City or County Public School Systems	7	Bd. of Education, Atlanta, Georgia; Bd. of Instruction of Dade County, Miami, Florida; Independent School District, Houston, Texas; Louisville Board of Education, Louisville, Ky; Vocational and Adult Education, Milwaukee, Wisc.; Oklahoma City Board of Education, Oklahoma City, Okla.; and Sacramento Board of Education, Sacramento, Calif.	
State University	9	Univ. of Arizona, Tucson, Ariz.; Univ. of Florida, Gainesville, Fla.; Univ. of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.; Univ. of New Mexico, Albuquerque, N.M.; Ohio State Univ., Columbus, Ohio; Univ. of Utah, Salt Lake City, Utah; Univ. of Washington, Seattle, Wash.; and Univ. of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisc..	
Consolidated State U. Co-Licensed	1 1	Univ. of North Carolina (Studios-Chapel Hill, Greensboro, and Raleigh) Michigan State Board of Agriculture, East Lansing, Mich.	

institutions will become station owners.

Two state universities own and operate commercial stations: (1) Iowa State College, WOI-TV, Channel 5, an ABC affiliate; and (2) the University of Missouri, KOMU-TV, Channel 8, an NBC and ABC affiliate.

Immediate Future of Educational Television. In considering the future of educational television one is leaving the realm of fact and entering the field of supposition. However, there are developments which are certain to occur and others which will definitely influence the pattern educational television is to take whether or not they become a reality.

Technical improvements in the medium, that are expected within a few years or have already been made but will be available at a more moderate cost, are definitely important to the future of educational television. Among these technical advances, four will undoubtedly have the greatest influence: (1) the greater portability of sets, (2) a larger size television screen, (3) an improved and cheaper video tape recorder, and (4) the greater use and lowering cost of color television.

1. According to the set manufacturers, themselves, the television sets of the future will be lighter in weight, the picture tubes will become shorter in length until the set may be mounted on the wall

as a picture. At the same time, the cost of sets will keep decreasing.

2. It is also predicted that the size of the television screen will become large enough to rival that of the standard home projection screen.
3. Video tape recorders, which have already been proven superior to kinescope recording and which also reproduce colorcasts, will be technically improved and become increasingly inexpensive.
4. As colorcasting becomes less expensive, its use will be extended from the medical and dental colleges to other branches of instructional television helping the learner with his concepts of the world outside the classroom.

The meaning of these technical advances to educational television is obvious. There will be more and cheaper home receivers, including several sets in a home to satisfy individual needs and tastes in programming; better and less expensive sets available for in-school reception; classroom viewing that will approximate life-size, so that each pupil has the equivalent of a front row seat; tape improvements to make recorded shows less expensive, to facilitate more and better programming, and to make it possible to rebroadcast for con-

venience, for benefits of repetition, and for saving on production costs; and better quality reception which will be more interesting and more life-like with the widening use of color.

Changes of legislation affecting the television industry generally or educational television specifically will, of course, make changes in the future of educational television. Among the measures now being discussed are the following:

1. Measures to change or throw out the present Television Allocations Table. On September 11, 1957 the FCC voted to hold up action on a plan to retain educational reservations but to make all other applications for channels subject only to specific mileage separation rules and some other technical requirements.⁶⁰

A course of action was to be determined after the results of the research by the Television Allocations Study Organization (TASO) was submitted; as previously reported these results were expected

⁶⁰This measure was actually a modification of the controversial Craven Plan, submitted by Commissioner T. A. M. Craven in December, 1956, which would have wiped out the entire television table of allocations and handled all applications on a case-by-case basis.



late in 1958 but were not available until mid-March 1959.⁶¹

2. Legislation to change or kill the Federal Communications Commission. There is no need to discuss here the controversy which has recently surrounded the FCC, Channel 10 in Miami, or ex-Commissioner Richard A. Mack. However, as a result of the outcry which has occurred since the Subcommittee on Legislative Oversight of the House Committee on Foreign and Interstate Commerce began its investigation of the regulatory agency, a bill to abolish the FCC and replace it with a Federal Communications Administration and a special Communications Court of Appeals has been drafted for study and possible action. The bill was drafted at the order of Senator Warren G. Magnuson, Chairman of the Senate Commerce Committee, and was based on an idea of ex-Senator Clarence C. Dill, who co-authored the Communications Acts of 1927 and 1934.⁶²

⁶¹For further information concerning the TASO report, see pages 90 and 91 of this chapter.

⁶²"Magnuson Drafts Bill to Kill FCC," Broadcasting, March 17, 1958, p. 44.

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While this bill, and companion ones introduced in the House of Representatives, did not pass during the 85th Congress, similar measures have been introduced this year; furthermore, they are all indicative of a growing discontent with the regulatory system for the entire communications system.

3. Regulations to allow boosters for UHF stations.

A proposal to permit boosters in remote areas for UHF stations has been temporarily shelved by the FCC until completion of the TASO research.⁶³

Such a move would help improve the position of the UHF outlet since its signal would be amplified or retransmitted to give a wider and better coverage.

A similar proposal for nationwide VHF booster station operation was opposed by the National Association of Educational Broadcasters since there would be danger that such a system would cause interference particularly to those educational stations not yet using maximum power.⁶⁴

⁶³"Comments Back Plan for UHF Boosters," Broadcasting-Telecasting, August 12, 1957, p. 73

⁶⁴"NAEB Seeks Safeguards in FCC Booster Plans," NAEB Newsletter (Urbana, Illinois: National Association of Educational Broadcasters, Vol. XXIII, No. 2, February 1958), p. 3.

4. Attempts to secure more VHF channels for education. In November 1953 the Joint Council on Educational Television petitioned the FCC to review all channel allocations as a first step toward the reservation of VHF channels in some of the Nation's largest cities. Principally because UHF service has proven generally less satisfactory, cities such as Baltimore, Cleveland, New York City, and Washington, D. C. are without their own educational outlet. The JCET's petition included, with its proposal for a general investigation of all allocations, a specific request for VHF channels for five cities: the Norfolk-Portsmouth-Newport News, Virginia area; Panama City, Florida; Rochester, New York; Reno, Nevada; and Waycross, Georgia.⁶⁵

While it is extremely doubtful FCC action will be forthcoming until decisions are made based on the TASO reports, such a move on the part of the JCET shows the growing activity in community and area educational television and the increase in organized appeals on behalf of educational interests.

⁶⁵"FCC Asked to Review Channel Allocations," NAEB Newsletter, (Urbana: National Association of Educational Broadcasters, Vol. XXIV, No. 1, January 1959), pp. 10-11.

5. Federal funds for educational television. Some financial aid to educational television has recently become available with funds appropriated under the National Defense Education Act, which was passed during the concluding days of the 85th Congress. The Act was designed to aid states in stimulating science, mathematics, and foreign language education; and within this measure was a four-year authorization for \$18 million for research in new communications media.⁶⁶

Projects developing educational television's uses in this area are only now being designed to qualify for grants under this Act. These projects are becoming the first recipients of direct Federal aid to educational television.

6. Legislation to provide Federal aid for educational television. On May 17, 1957 Senator Warren Magnuson, Chairman of the Committee on Interstate and Foreign Commerce, introduced a bill calling for the appropriation of up to a million dollars to each state and territory "to establish or improve tele-

⁶⁶"Federal Aid for ETV," NAEB Newsletter, (Urbana: National Association of Educational Broadcasters, Vol. XXIV, No. 1, January 1959), p. 10.

vision broadcasting for educational purposes."^{67,68}

Hearings on this bill were held with officials of both educational and commercial television testifying.⁶⁹ A similar bill was introduced in the House of Representatives by Rep. Stuart L. Udall of Arizona. The Magnuson bill was passed by the Senate of the 85th Congress; and it was approved, in a slightly amended version, by the House Commerce Committee. However, it did not reach the floor of the House before adjournment.

⁶⁷"Federal Aid to Educational TV Sought," Broadcasting-Telecasting, May 27, 1957, p. 64.

⁶⁸Senator Magnuson's proposal "would require the state to provide the land, buildings, and cost of operation and maintenance of the educational television station. The states in turn, could get grants for the purchase of actual equipment and facilities required for the stations. To be eligible for a grant, the states would have to:

- (1) Secure an authorization from the FCC.
- (2) Apply for monetary assistance to the U. S. Commissioner of Education.
- (3) Place operation of the station under the control of the state agency or officer responsible for supervision of public schools.
- (4) Use the station for educational purposes only.

Under the provisions of the bill, a state may receive more than one grant but the total amounts of such grants to any state shall not exceed one million dollars. The money also could be used for closed circuit television." Ibid.

⁶⁹"ETV Subsidy Hearing is April 24 in Senate," Broadcasting, March 24, 1958, p. 68.

The bill was re-introduced in the 86th Congress, co-sponsored by Senator Magnuson (Democrat of Washington) and Senator Andrew Schoeppel (Republican of Kansas) in the Senate and by Representative Stuart Udall and others in the House. Following hearings held in late January, the measure was unanimously reported out of the Senate Commerce Committee. Both witnesses and senators hearing the testimony stressed these points:

(1) Lack of money has kept ETV from reaching its potential (there currently are 35 ETV stations operating); (2) Federal assistance is a must if the potential ever is to be reached; (3) ETV stations must get on the air if they are to withstand attacks on educational-reserved channels by commercial operators; (4) ETV would be just as valuable for adult education as for students; (5) The FCC should make more educational VHF channels available in heavily-populated areas; and (6) ETV could help alleviate the classroom-teacher shortage.⁷⁰

The bill was amended to limit its life to five years with each state and territory eligible for federal grants administered by the Commissioner of

⁷⁰ "Educators Plead for ETV Funds," Broadcasting, February 2, 1959, p. 55.



Education.⁷¹ The schedule for House action on the measure has not been announced to date.

During the 85th Congress, the principal opposition to the federal aid bill was launched against its provision that, to receive financial assistance, educational television stations must be under state public school supervision.⁷²

One cannot over-estimate the importance to educational television of the passage of such legislation.

Predicting the Future of Educational Television. In predicting the future of educational television one must remember that even the past and the present of the medium are scarcely of long enough duration to be called an average "trial run"; hence, historians will be referring to this "future of educational television" as part of its pioneer days. Predictions concerning pioneering stages have an even greater amount of speculation involved than predictions that can be based on years of research and long periods of trial and

⁷¹"Magnuson Bill Progressing," NAEB Newsletter (Urbana: National Association of Educational Broadcasters, Vol. XXIV, No. 3, March 1959), p. 6.

⁷²"Hearings Open on ETV Subsidy," Broadcasting, April 28, 1958, p. 96.

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According to the latest figures from the U. S. Bureau of Census, more than four out of five households have a television set, and about one in fourteen has two or more sets.⁷³ Therefore, one can say with certainty that technical advances in television, bringing about further reductions in the cost of receivers, higher quality reception, and greater flexibility and portability in sets, will continue to add to the medium's audience and put pressure on the broadcaster to supply a more personalized type of service.

One cannot reach such definite conclusions regarding the affects of new legislation on educational television. If educational reservations are not protected by law, the future could become very dim indeed. Legislation such as the federal aid bill would strengthen present educational outlets plus pave the way to supplement classroom and adult education programs through educational television throughout the entire country.

In an attempt to predict the future, the station managers of the present affiliates of the Educational Television and Radio Center have issued a long-range forecast for non-

⁷³"83 Pct. of Homes have Television Sets," The Flint Journal, April 27, 1958, p. 2.

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commercial, educational television. Their prediction foresees by 1968 a total of one hundred stations linked together by a live national network to serve eighty per cent of the country's population.⁷⁴

With a reasonable amount of protection and encouragement from the Federal Government and its agencies, with insight and resourcefulness from state and community governments and their agencies, and with courage, imagination, and unstinting hard work on the part of educators and educators, the future of non-commercial, educational television can be unlimited.

⁷⁴"ETV Directors Predict National Network," NAEB Newsletter, (Urbana: National Association of Educational Broadcasters, Vol. XXIII, No. 4, April 1958), p. 5.

CHAPTER IV

THE EDUCATIONAL POTENTIAL OF TELEVISION

The importance of reviewing the research which has been done concerning the educational potential of television cannot be overestimated. One could not recommend that institutions of higher education invest time and money in an educational television station or network unless it can be proved that the television medium is:

1. An effective teaching tool equal or superior to classroom instruction.
2. Superior to other communication media as an aid to instruction.
3. Able to provide: (a) information, education, and culture to a group unlikely to enroll for formal study at the university, and (b) a satisfactory additional opportunity for formal higher education.
4. Sufficiently interesting as an educational medium to attract and hold a large audience.

In this chapter we shall consider the findings of research with

regard to the first three of these hypotheses; research into the size and character of the audience for educational television will be discussed in Chapter V.

I. RELATIVE EFFECTIVENESS OF CONVENTIONAL AND TELEVISED INSTRUCTION

A brief review of the background of the research in this area shows that the basis for studies in television learning is to be found in the battery of learning experiments conducted during the past thirty years in the motion picture and radio media, especially those completed under the aegis of one of the branches of the armed forces. Research as to the effectiveness of television as a tool for learning began in 1952 with the armed services again leading the way, either in experiments with service personnel or through government research contracts with institutions of higher education. Over one hundred institutions of higher learning are now experimenting, either independently or as a part of some government research project, with closed-circuit television in a search for at least a partial answer to spiralling costs, building shortages, and the scarcity of competent instructors.

The studies carried on to date have dealt almost

exclusively with: (1) the comparative teaching effectiveness of traditional classroom instruction versus instruction by closed-circuit telecasting and (2) attitudes of administrators, faculty, and students toward the television presentation. It is with the first of these, the comparative teaching effectiveness, that we are now concerned.

In order to assay the effectiveness of instruction given by television, it is necessary to turn to the research conducted both with on-the-air telecasts and with closed-circuit television.

Research in the relative effectiveness of conventional classroom and televised instruction may be divided into two classifications: (1) experiments with academic subjects and (2) experiments with technical subjects.

Experiments with academic subjects. The following is some of the major research in this area:

1. In the learning of General Psychology at Iowa State College, in 1953, it was discovered that the television class did better than any of the three conventional classes taught by the same instructor.¹

¹Richard W. Husband, "Television Versus Classroom for Learning General Psychology," American Psychologist, Vol. IX, No. 5, pp. 181-183.



2. In studies with the programming of elementary biology and elementary psychology over KUTH-TV, in 1954, University of Houston psychologists reported that there was no significant difference in the average scores of any of the course groups.²
3. Western Reserve University research, in 1954, showed that television students in Elementary Psychology and Comparative Literature had a median grade thirteen points higher than those having conventional instruction by the same teacher.³
4. In a project sponsored by the Fund for the Advancement of Education at Pennsylvania State University and completed in 1955, it was found that the difference in the amount of information learned by the two methods was not statistically significant.⁴

²Richard I. Evans, H. Burr Roney, and Walter J. McAdams, "An Evaluation of the Effectiveness of Instruction and Audience Reaction to Programming on an Educational Television Station" (Houston, Texas: University of Houston, 1954). Mimeographed.

³Western Reserve University, Telecourses at Western Reserve University (A summary report of the first three years, 1951-1954. Cleveland, Ohio: Western Reserve University, 1954). Mimeographed.

⁴Project Number One of Instructional Television Research, "An Investigation of Closed-Circuit Television for Teaching University Courses," (Pennsylvania State University, 1955). Mimeographed.

5. Reports on the Chicago City Junior College credit courses offered over WTTW in 1956-57 show that, in each of the four courses offered, television students "earned 10% higher final grades in identical examinations than did over 2,500 classroom colleagues."⁵

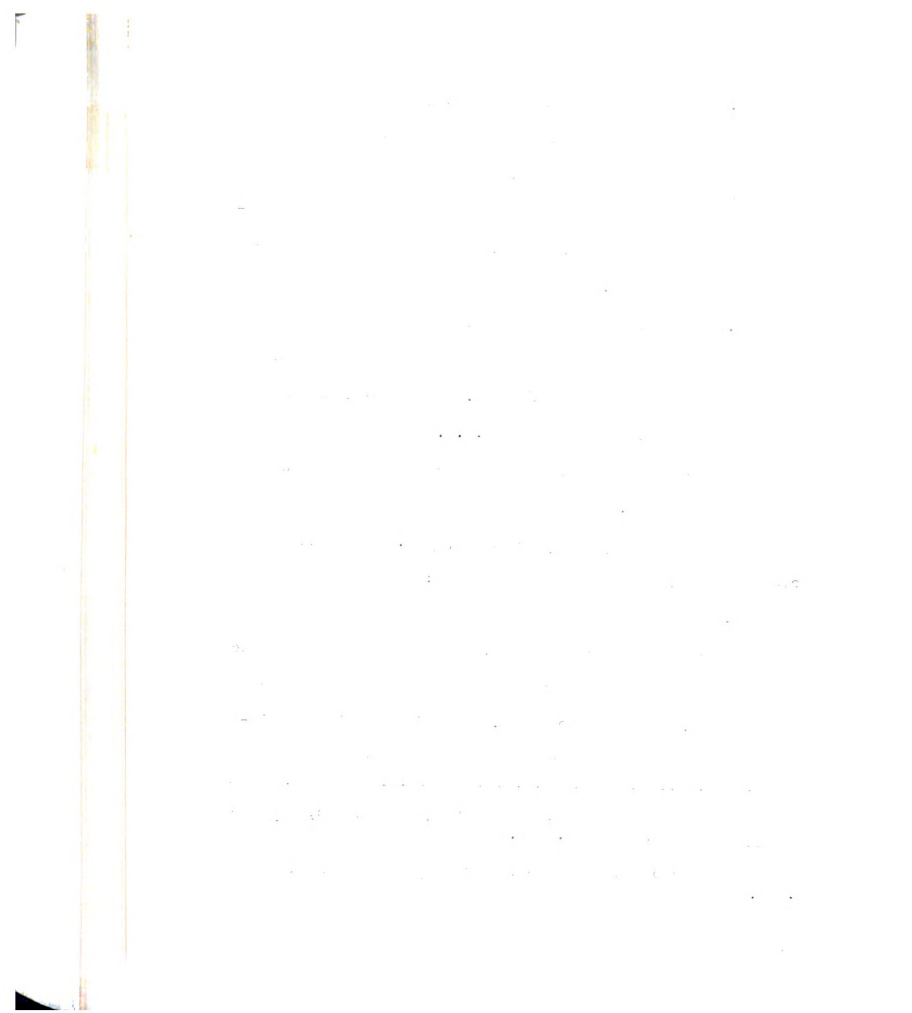
6. During 1957-58 the Ford Foundation sponsored 49 high school studies in mathematics and science in the State of Oklahoma. This research "showed that gifted youngsters . . . moved along much more swiftly with TV instruction by hand-picked teachers."⁶

Experiments with technical subjects. The following is some of the major research in this area:

1. In 1954 the American Red Cross televised its course in home nursing, and results of performance and written tests of television and conventional classes were compared. In this case it was discovered that there was no difference between the

⁵"Fund Drive Scheduled for WTTW (TV) Chicago," Broadcasting, March 4, 1957, p. 104.

⁶"TV Schooling Any Good?" Newsweek, October 6, 1958, p. 86.



written test scores of the two groups but that the television group did slightly less well in the performance test, work in which conventional class students had received some practice.⁷

2. In a fundamental electronics course, the U. S. Air Force proved television instruction equally as effective as conventional instruction.⁸
3. Results of an experiment conducted by the Human Resources Research Office of George Washington University for the Department of the Army in 1954 proved that televised instruction of army basic subjects was at least as effective as regular instruction. Television instruction proved even more effective among lower-aptitude groups.⁹
4. In a 1954 study comparing regular and televised

⁷ Benjamin Shimberg, "Effectiveness of Television in Teaching Home Nursing," Research Bulletin 54-19 (Princeton, New Jersey: Educational Testing Service, 1954). Mimeographed.

⁸ E. C. Dowell, "An Experiment in Training by Television," Project 53-32 (Keesler Air Force Base, Mississippi: 3380th Technical Training Group, U.S.A.F., 1953). Mimeographed.

⁹ Joseph H. Kanner, Richard P. Runyon, and Otello Desiderato, "Television in Army Training," Technical Report HUM RRO 14, (Human Resources Research Office, George Washington University, Department of the Army, 1954.) Mimeographed.

instruction, the Quartermaster Training Command of the Department of the Army determined that the effectiveness of instruction by television in Food Service Activities appeared to be equal to that of classroom instruction in that third-year Quartermaster ROTC Course.¹⁰

5. A. U.S. Naval Academy experiment to evaluate the Academy's television system in the educational process was conducted in 1954, using a segment of a required electronics course as subject matter. The difference between the group receiving instruction by television and that following the regular classroom procedure was small, about 2%, computed on the basis of the maximum attainable score. In terms of attained learning demonstrated on retention tests, the television groups had the final advantage.¹¹

6. Results of research conducted by Fordham University

¹⁰Robert M. Allen, Educational-Television Study, A report prepared by the United States Army (Fort Lee, Virginia: Quartermaster Training Command, 1954). Mimeographed.

¹¹William R. Boehm, Report of an Evaluation of the U.S. Naval Academy Educational Television System, (Annapolis, Maryland: U.S. Naval Academy, 1954). Mimeographed.

for the U. S. Navy Special Devices Center in 1955 showed that army reservists from privates to colonels made significant learning gains after receiving television instruction. Both officers and enlisted men retained a substantial amount of the material over a period of from three to six weeks.¹²

7. In 1958 the U. S. Army conducted a study comparing the effect upon learning of thirty-eight hours of continuous television training over a five-day period with that produced by a similar period of regular classroom instruction. It was discovered that teaching effectiveness was essentially the same whether televised or regular instruction methods were used. Television was also as effective as regular instruction on retention test scores.¹³

These thirteen reports are far from all the studies completed in the area comparing television and conventional classroom instruction. They are, however, representative of

¹²R. T. Rock, J. S. Duva, J. E. Murray, "Training by TV - A Study in Learning and Retention," Technical Report SDC 476-02-3, (Port Washington, L. I., New York: U. S. Navy Special Devices Center, 1955). Mimeographed.

¹³J. H. Kanner, Sanford Katz, and P. B. Goldsmith, "Television in Army Training," (Washington, D. C.: Army Pictorial Service Division, 1958). Mimeographed.

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research in the field and show an accurate cross-section of the results that have been recorded.

The first thorough appraisal of classroom television as a way of learning was recently completed by the Ford Foundation's Fund for the Advancement of Education in a series of studies involving 100,000 pupils in 250 schools throughout the nation. This research showed in every case that the students exposed to television study did significantly better than those undergoing straight classroom presentation.¹⁴

A summary of the research undertaken to date shows that:

- (1) On written test scores, television students have always scored equally as high, and in many cases significantly higher, than those who have studied in the conventional classroom.
- (2) When comparing raw test scores of telecourse students with those of on-campus classroom groups, the telecourse students tend to have substantially higher scores. (One cannot, however, make truly valid comparisons between these scores since age, motivation, and any number of outside factors enter into the results.)

¹⁴"TV Schooling Any Good?" Newsweek, October 6, 1958, pp. 86-8.



- (3) When considering retention of the material learned, the television student seems to have a slight advantage over those in the conventional classroom.
- (4) With regard to the relationship between television instruction and student intelligence, one may generalize that those of average intelligence learn at least equally as well by television, those of lesser intelligence learn better, while those of higher aptitude are able to accomplish more when instructed by capable television instructors.

II. COMPARATIVE EFFECTS OF THE VARIOUS MEDIA OF COMMUNICATION

In any comparison of the effects of the various media of communication one immediately discovers that the findings in formal pedagogy vary with the subject being taught, the relationship between the text and film, and the like. However, there are some general principles which have been discovered through research done in informal pedagogy or persuasion which apply, generally, to any study of the educational value of the various media.

face-to-face discourse, transmitted voice, and print are compared as instruments of persuasion, it has been found that:

1. Personal address is superior to mechanical aural appeal.
2. Mechanical aural appeal is superior to printed appeal due to differences in content, audience coverage, or psychological aspects of the communication situation.

When the mass media are supplemented by face-to-face contact, it has been found that:

1. Regardless of whether film is used as an introduction or as a review, it makes the discourse more pedagogically effective.
2. The combined use of mass media and face-to-face contact has been highly successful in propaganda campaigns.¹⁵

Relative merits of radio and television. Both radio and television have a number of characteristics which make them desirable instruments for education:

1. They cut across barriers of geography and social

¹⁵For a thorough discussion of this research into the relative merits of the mass media see: Joseph V. Klapper, The Effects of Mass Media (New York: Columbia University Bureau of Applied Social Research, 1949). Mimeographed.

class.

2. People have faith in information given over these media.
3. Interest in programming is heightened because of:
 - a) A special glamour the audience attaches to performers.
 - b) A group feeling in which individuals in the audience feel themselves members of a gigantic group engaged in listening or watching the same program.
 - c) An illusion of intimacy created by their quality of immediacy and their reception in familiar surroundings.
4. These media are able to distribute information with tremendous speed.
5. The audience receives a sense of dramatic participation with the product of "the magic box."
6. The audience receives a sense of personal access from these media which represents an approach to a face-to-face contact. This is, of course, even more especially true of television.
7. Both media are selective in their presentation, weeding out the irrelevant and the distracting while heightening appeals and providing a con-

tinuity both in structure and mood.

However, as an educational tool television is superior to radio in that:

1. Television focuses both sight and vision, allowing less possibility of distraction.
2. Television makes programming materials concrete, not abstract, since it adds sight to sound.
3. Television is a more powerful medium because it mobilizes more attention and attracts more time from its audience.
4. Television is more spectacular as a medium; therefore, it can make a more vivid and lasting impression.
5. By means of television one is able to combine the advantages of all forms of presentation and all mass media.
6. By means of kinescope recording and film tape one is able to:
 - a) Present programs which would be impossible to produce live at the time of broadcast.
 - b) Preserve programs to be presented at more than one time segment or to be held for future pre-

sentation.¹⁶

From this summarization of research findings, one may conclude that television combines the effectiveness of personal address, the impact of print, and the dramatic appeal and selectivity of radio and the motion picture. Television is, in itself, a multiple-media exposure which makes it a superior tool for the conveying and retention of both simple and complex materials. Because of its superior quality as an instrument for conveying knowledge and because it attracts and mobilizes more time from its audience, television is the most important mass medium in the cultural, social, and economic life of this nation.

III. ABILITY TO PROVIDE A CULTURAL SERVICE TO A GROUP NOT LIKELY TO ENROLL AND AN ADDITIONAL OPPORTUNITY FOR FORMAL HIGHER EDUCATION

The warp and woof of the American educational system has been woven on a general consensus of opinion that all children, regardless of the wealth or status of their parents, are entitled to an equal chance to acquire an education suited to their individual needs and capacities. In 1947 the Presi-

¹⁶For a more detailed account of the characteristics of radio and television, see Leo Bogart, The Age of Television (New York: Frederick Ungar Publishing Company, 1956), pp. 24-40.

dent's Commission on Higher Education gave further meaning to this principle when it declared: "Equal educational opportunity for all persons, to the maximum of their individual abilities and without regard to economic status, race, creed, color, sex, national origin or ancestry, is a major goal of American democracy."¹⁷

Since individuals are not granted equal native endowments, "equality of educational opportunity" refers to an equal chance to acquire an education varying with the individual's needs, wants, and abilities.¹⁸ One must realize that the fortunes of birth are the chief obstructions to this type of equal opportunity, principally one's family income and status or the distance one lives from an institution of higher education.

Following the pattern set by the U. S. public education system in elementary and high schools, there has been increasing pressure for and expectation of the opportunity to go to college. This "go to college" movement is largely due to:

1. The larger number of students now completing high

¹⁷ President's Commission on Higher Education, Higher Education for American Democracy, Vol. II (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1947), p. 3.

¹⁸ M. H. Willing et al., Schools and Our Democratic Society (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1951), p. 139.



school.

2. The increase in birth rate which will inevitably produce more high school students capable and desirous of a college education.
3. Adults in any given class expecting their children to receive the "same" or "better" education than they, themselves, received.
4. Higher wage and salary levels making it economically possible for more children to attend college.¹⁹

It is important, therefore, that state university educational television provide: (1) information, education, and culture to a group unlikely to enroll for formal study at the university, and (2) a satisfactory additional opportunity for formal higher education.

A cultural service to the state. The ever-increasing number desiring higher education is not exclusively confined to those presenting themselves at "the college door" nor to those of the customary "college age," but institutions of higher learning are discovering a growing desire for the extension and diffusion of their services throughout society.

¹⁹W. Lloyd Warner, Robert J. Havighurst, and Martin B. Loeb, "Curricula-Selective Pathways to Success," Readings In Education, Faff and Grambs, editors (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1956), p. 182.

The roots of a rationale for university extension are to be found in the rationale of the place of a university in a democratic society. In other words, it is based on the Jacksonian approach to educational problems.²⁰

While the university extension movement did not begin until 1876, adult education, itself, emerged from a long cultural tradition of expanding educational opportunity. And, since World War II, it has been the most rapidly growing segment of American education -- faster than elementary schools which have reflected the postwar birth rate and faster than colleges and universities which responded to G. I. benefits.²¹

Adult education in institutions of higher education has grown chiefly for three reasons:

1. There has been a rise in the general educational level; consequently, more adults recognize the value of further education.
2. Our rapidly changing culture has made it important, if not essential, to continue learning throughout life.

²⁰ A consideration of Jacksonian education may be found in Chapter II, pp. 28-9.

²¹ Homer Kempfer, Adult Education (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1955), p. 4.

3. An individual receives much personal satisfaction from his association with others in an educational situation.

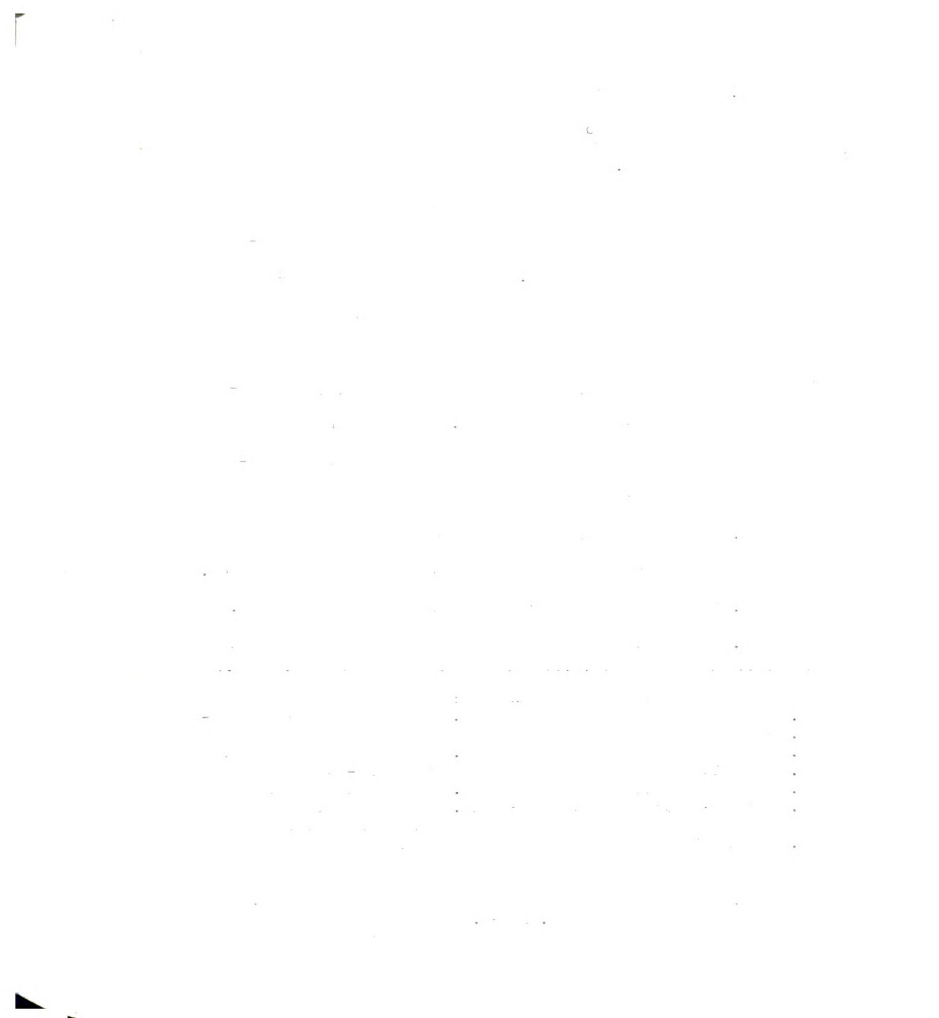
Broadcasting services, which include both radio and television, are only one of eleven activities generally ascribed to university extension.²² Actually, university-operated television can fulfill many of the functions of four additional extension services: (1) correspondence teaching, (2) lecture services, (3) extension classes, and (4) evening-school and resident-center activities. This does not mean that these would or could be entirely eliminated from extension work, but that:

1. A great deal of duplication could be eliminated and the money saved could be spent to expand the service.
2. The best teachers could be given a wider audience.
3. Additional offerings could be made where personnel

²²Extension activities include:

- | | |
|--|---|
| "1. Correspondence teaching | 8. Film and visual-aid services |
| 2. Lecture services | |
| 3. Summer-school programs | 9. Conferences, institute, and short-course activities |
| 4. Extension classes | 10. Broadcasting services |
| 5. Press and publication services | 11. Special services for communities, institutions, and other interest and professional groups" |
| 6. Evening-school and resident-center activities | |
| 7. Library lending services | |

C. Hartley Grattan, In Quest of Knowledge (New York: Association Press, 1955), pp. 194-5.



or equipment problems prevent the physical "taking the course to the people."

4. Small communities would receive improved extension services.

Opportunity for formal higher education. State university educational television can provide an opportunity for formal college credit to those who cannot avail themselves of on-campus study.

The free public school system has done much to improve the disadvantageous position of the poor even though there are still discrepancies in facilities, quality of teachers, and courses of study offered. At the same time, state-owned institutions of higher learning have always held student fees at a minimum in an attempt to equalize educational opportunity throughout the entire public education system. However, regardless of the minimal cost in state-owned institutions, a college education is far from free; and, of course, the most expensive item is room and board. Any attempt at providing telecourses to assist those finding it difficult or impossible financially to attend college would help in equalizing educational opportunity; this would apply, especially, to those general college courses which are universally required.

In addition to assisting in equalizing educational dif-



ferences caused by insufficient family resources, state university educational television would also be able to minimize handicaps caused by the distance which one lives from an institution of higher learning. Surveys over the past thirty years have definitely shown a close relationship between the distance one lives from a college or university and college attendance. Quoting from studies made in California, Michigan, Minnesota, and New York, Jesse Bogue²³ points out that approximately one-fourth of the young people who live within ten miles of an institution of higher learning attend college the first year after high school graduation. The number decreases until only one of seven attends among youth living more than twenty-five miles from such an institution. The Michigan studies showed further that in counties with high per capita incomes, but without a local institution of higher education, the percentages of students continuing their education beyond high school were among the lowest in the State.²⁴

From the information available, Bogue concludes that while finance is an important factor [in college attendance],

²³Jesse Parker Bogue, The Community College (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1950), pp. 63-66.

²⁴Ibid., p. 65.

even in communities with colleges, geographical location of students with respect to institutions appears to be even more important."²⁵

As an additional opportunity for formal higher education, telecourses are being offered for credit over educational stations and networks and over commercial stations and networks by municipal, private, denominational, and state-supported colleges and universities.²⁶ A precise count of the number of telecourses now being aired is quite impossible; however, a compendium of these offerings, based on information received from two hundred colleges and universities and forty-eight state superintendents of public instruction, has been made in the office of Dr. Lawrence McKune, Television Coordinator for Continuing Education at Michigan State University.²⁷ Telecourse activity in forty-three of the seventy-one institutions being considered in this study are reported in this volume, Telecourses For Credit. Dr. McKune points out, in the Foreword, that the 1957-58 listings show an increase

²⁵Ibid., p. 66.

²⁶Continental Classroom, a telecourse in physics, is offered by the National Broadcasting Company with the cooperation of private and state-supported colleges and universities throughout the country; however, since the educational institutions do not originate the series, it is not considered in the following discussion of telecourses.

²⁷"Telecourses for Credit" Volume 5 (East Lansing: Michigan State University Continuing Education Service, September 1, 1958).



of 112.6% over the total of the listings from 1951 to 1957.²⁸

In the discussion of telecourses which follows, only 1957-58 statistics for open-circuit courses given for credit by colleges and universities will be considered.

1. Subject-matter of Telecourses. In analyzing telecourses by subject-matter, one would see that the largest single category of offerings was the social studies; the second largest, but almost a third less, English language and literature; these were followed closely by education and science. Other large categories of college and university telecourses for credit during 1957-58 were, according to the frequency of presentation, mathematics, language, psychology, religion, business, speech, and music.

Among the more unusual telecourse offerings were: Remedial Math and High School Driver Training by Ohio State University, Workshop for Writers by the University of Cincinnati, and Landscape Gardening by Fresno State College. It is also interesting to note that all eight telecourses offered by the University of Nebraska during the 1957-58

²⁸Ibid.

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

DEPARTMENT OF CHEMISTRY

PHYSICAL CHEMISTRY

1950

RESEARCH REPORT

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

DEPARTMENT OF CHEMISTRY

PHYSICAL CHEMISTRY

RESEARCH REPORT

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DEPARTMENT OF CHEMISTRY

PHYSICAL CHEMISTRY

RESEARCH REPORT

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

DEPARTMENT OF CHEMISTRY

PHYSICAL CHEMISTRY

school year were on the secondary school level.

2. Cost of Telecourses. The cost of courses ranged from \$2, for Ohio State's Remedial Math aired on the University's WOSU-TV, to \$75, for any New York University offering over "Sunrise Semester" on WCBS-TV.²⁹ Several other private and municipally-owned institutions offered credit courses with tuition of \$40 and over, including Colby College and the University of Houston. The average cost of a course at Western Reserve University (which, incidentally, has been in the telecourse "business" longer than any other college or university) was \$27.

The tuition charged by state universities and land-grant colleges extended from Ohio State University's \$2 and the University of Nebraska's \$5.75 to the University of Illinois' \$20 and Michigan State University's \$21 to \$27. Actually the most frequent credit enrollment fee for these state-supported colleges and universities was \$10 to \$14. Non-credit fees for these same institutions ranged from \$2 to \$5.

²⁹New York University is charging \$90 tuition for telecourses during the 1958-59 school year.

3. Audience for Telecourses. Students may register for credit or as auditors (paying less fee) or can listen free (in which case there is no tabulation as to the number of listeners). To date, the largest credit registrations for one course are from California in 1954: 300 at the University of California at Berkeley and 291 at the University of Southern California. The largest number of paid auditors was 800 for one course at the University of Minnesota. It is estimated that for every credit viewer enrolled there are 1000 non-credit viewers.³⁰

A standardization of requirements for telecourses has become a natural outgrowth of the experimentation in this field. All institutions of higher education require the same prerequisites to receive telecourse credit as for the same course when taken on campus; only catalogue-listed, campus-taught classes are offered as telecourses; to receive credit one must submit a transcript of high school or college grades and be officially admitted just as any other student; and ordinarily, except for extenuating circumstances, television

³⁰Credit Courses by Television (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1955), p. 37.

ts must come to the campus or an off-campus center to
the final examination for the course.

IV. SUMMARY

For centuries educational institutions have shared
churches a virtual monopoly with regard to the responsi-
for the interpretation and transmission of cultural
. This monopoly ended with the advent of mass communica-

While television is definitely the most effective
of mass communication, to suggest that television alone
shoulder the burden of education for the scientific
, of course, absurd. However, research has shown that
sion can be a fine instrument to convey ideas and an
ant tool for education. Higher education by univer-
television could also serve a definite need in helping
alize the opportunity for formal and informal learning
the usual twelve years in the public schools.



CHAPTER V

THE AUDIENCE FOR EDUCATIONAL TELEVISION

Television's qualifications as an instrument of education were discussed in the previous chapter where it was found that not only is television a fine tool for teaching, the best of the mass media, with tremendous drawing and holding appeal, but that it could also provide a cultural service in both formal and informal education.

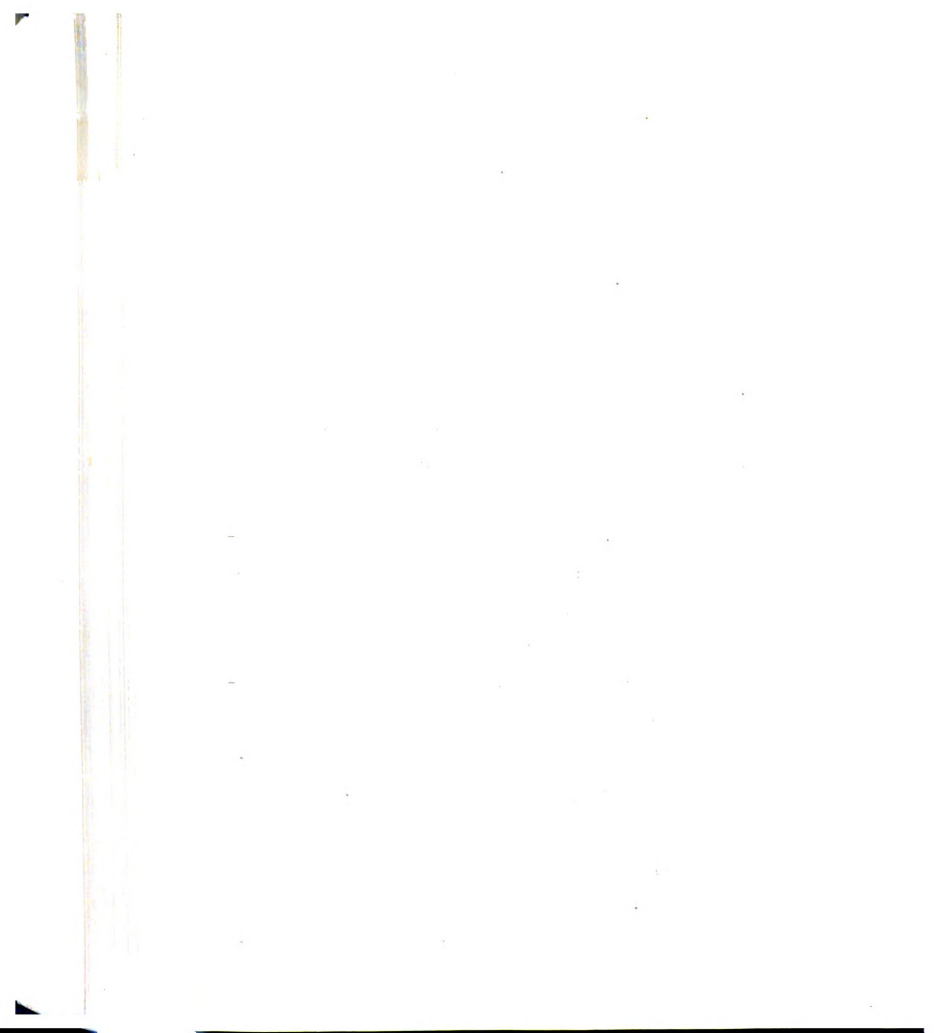
However, regardless of the universality of television's appeal as a medium, there remains the question of the exact nature of the audience for television when the programming is education, not entertainment. It is necessary to know the composition of this audience, its characteristics, its size, and its taste in programming to help in ascertaining if the group who would avail themselves of this service, when provided by a state university, would be sufficiently large or important to warrant a state-owned institution of higher learning's expending the amount necessary for some form of television programming.



I. STUDYING THE AUDIENCE

Importance of the audience. An audience is the basis of any medium of mass communications; it is the source of its support, the inspiration for its programming, and the receiver of its message. The audience for television is not a homogeneous group but is composed of many diverse groups which are brought together from time to time out of a common interest. If there is value to educational television and if the principal reason for its modicum of success is lack of audience, then the primary concern of every station owner and administrator should be the nature, the needs, and the desires of the American public. These are to some extent already evidenced through surveys of: (1) the present audience for public service and educational programs on commercial stations and (2) the viewers already among the ranks of the educational telecasting audience; for the nucleus of the educational telecasting audience of the future will undoubtedly be found in the select few, the educational television audience of today.

Scarcity of information about the audience. Material of this type which applies to educational television is rather difficult to find, since any type of audience study or survey is a costly venture. Consequently, the principal audience reports available have been prepared by: (1) commercial sta-



tions or networks in an attempt to prove to a sponsor that a particular program or time segment has a high audience rating, or (2) a sponsor or his advertising agency in an attempt to discover the worth of his television investment. Research dealing exclusively with the audience for educational television is even more scarce; and, for the most part, these studies have been conducted by institutions of higher learning and financed by one of the foundations interested in the promotion of educational television.

Limitations and restrictions on interpretation of data.

There are five very important considerations which must be taken into account before other data from an audience survey becomes meaningful and may be accurately interpreted. First, a station operating on an Ultra High Frequency channel (UHF) could not possibly have as high an audience rating as one appearing in the Very High Frequency (VHF) band. In communities where the only UHF station is the educational outlet the likelihood of any survey's being accurate is indeed slight, since even contacting the set owners, or knowing how many there are in the vicinity, would be a physical impossibility.

Secondly, one must take into account whether the survey is based on listeners to a commercial or non-commercial outlet. A commercial station, with its higher-budgeted programming,



its primarily entertainment features, and its network affiliation, has a much higher "drawing power" than its non-commercial, slimly budgeted, non-affiliated competitor. Furthermore, even if the non-commercial station programmed a feature which would compete for the majority audience, the American public has not proved to be a discriminating, selective, dial-twisting audience which will automatically tune to another channel for a particular program. Unfortunately our audiences are, for the most part, composed of creatures of habit.

In the third place, in studying data on audiences of educational telecasting, one must remember whether the material he is interpreting is based on the regular audience to the station's programming, on the telecourse registrants, or on the telecourse auditors. There are several reasons why this breakdown is important; for example, the telecourse registrants are necessarily a smaller group since they have to be formally cleared for admission to the institution and eligible for college credit. The registrants must be far more interested than the average listener in that they have scheduled that period for their undivided attention each class meeting over an extended period of time. With a fairly large sum of money invested in enrollment, a syllabus, and books, members of this group will almost always be better

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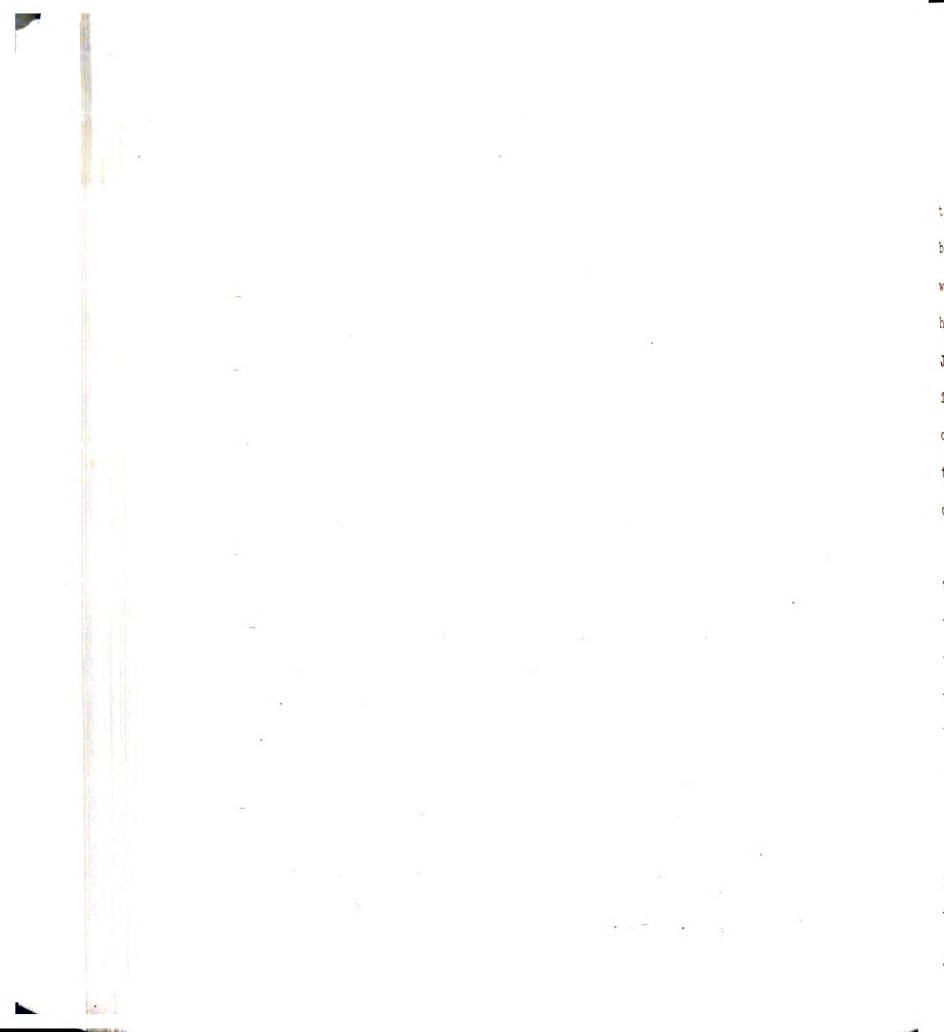
educated and from a higher economic level than the regular listener or the telecourse auditor.

The fourth consideration in the interpretation of audience data is the difficulty in accurately interpreting findings based on one city or section of the country and projecting them for other cities or sections, or giving them universal application. Companies involved in nation-wide rating services for commercial broadcasting and telecasting have discovered that: (1) different cities prefer very different types of programs; however, the size of a city does not seem to determine viewing tastes; (2) the time a particular program is offered may greatly influence its popularity; and (3) viewing habits in the various sections of the country are very different.¹

Fifth, and finally, one must analyze the survey methodology itself: the procedure, the size of the sample, and the type of deductions reached from the material at hand. Inaccurate statistical procedure can invalidate any survey.

Let us now turn to the information that has been learned about the audience for educational and cultural television.

¹"Those Roller Coaster Ratings," TV Guide, September 6-12, 1958, pp. 17-19.



II. AUDIENCE DATA

Size of audience. No one can deny the popularity of television or the size of audience it is possible to reach by this medium. In a short seven years, a television set, which has never been an inexpensive item, has become a household necessity. U.S. Bureau of Census figures show that, in January 1958, there were 41,924,000 television households; in other words, 83% of American homes had television, an increase of 71% since the 1950 census.² These figures do not take into account the 3% of American homes which are still outside the range of television.

One should bear in mind, however, that regardless of the number of television sets available in American homes there will always be a number of factors imposing limitations on the creation of a universal audience for any television programming. Among these factors are limits created by age, sex, educational background, occupation, economic status, and place of residence.

Studies by the Television Bureau of Advertising have shown that: (1) in homes with an income under \$3,000, 29 hours a week are spent watching television; while (2) in

²"U.S. TV Sets: How Many and Where?" Broadcasting, April 15, 1958, p. 76.



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²"U.S. TV Sets: How Many and Where?" Broadcasting, April 15, 1958, p. 76.

homes with incomes over \$10,000, 50 hours a week are spent with the medium.³ While televiewing does vary with the seasons of the year, data compiled by the A. C. Nielson Company has shown that the number of hours spent viewing has continuously increased over the past three years, averaging 4.9 hours per day for 1955, 5.0 hours in 1956, and 5.1 hours in 1957.⁴

The general public should neither be surprised nor discouraged if the size of the audience for educational television does not begin to compare with that obtained by commercial stations. One only needs turn to the audience polls for the British Broadcasting Corporation's Third Programme to find an excellent precedent for the small audiences for programs of culture. Although its audience had always been a very distinct minority, postwar broadcasting plans of the BBC estimated that the Third Programme would receive ten percent of the total listenership. This has, however, proved to be a highly unrealistic assumption since the British audience has never favored "the programme" with more than 1%, 376,000 listeners. Frequently the audience has numbered less than 20,000.⁵

³"TVB's TV Vision is a Bright one," Broadcasting-Telecasting, August 26, 1957, p. 98.

⁴"Perspective '58," Broadcasting, February 24, 1958, p. 120.

⁵Burton Paulu, British Broadcasting: Radio and Television in the United Kingdom (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1956), pp. 368-9.

The size of the audience for educational television is also much more difficult to compute and must be figured on a completely different scale from that used by commercial telecasting. In the first place, with only forty educational television stations in operation, and almost all of these located in large communities, the opportunity to receive educational programming is strictly limited. Secondly, there will be few, if any, of the audience for educational television who will keep dialed to educational programs for their entire televiewing day. These factors must be remembered when one considers, for example, the results of a study conducted by the Educational Television and Radio Center in 1957 showing an audience of over twelve million for the twenty-six educational outlets then on the air.⁶ The audience for edu-

⁶ Ryland W. Crary, "The Audience for Educational Television," NAEB Research Fact Sheets, Series IV, Number 13, February 1958, pp. 1A-4A.

These findings, released by Dr. Ryland W. Crary, director of education for the ETRC, were based on six audience studies completed under the Center's program of grants-in-aid for research. Research in all six areas indicated that the ETV audience could be estimated at from thirty to sixty percent of the setholders in the station's coverage area. Dr. Crary's figure of an audience of twelve million is based on the lowest, the thirty percent, estimate. This number does not include ETRC programs viewed over commercial stations, NBC series produced in cooperation with ETRC and aired over NBC outlets, the viewing of ETRC programs as part of a film service and not over television, the audience for locally produced educational programs on commercial stations, and the audience for commercial stations owned and operated by educational institutions.

cational stations has more recently been estimated as over fifty million.

With regard to formal education presented on commercial stations, there have been more surveys prepared on the University of Michigan Television Hour than on any other single venture. This is a weekly, hour-long, three-section program produced on kinescope and available to interested commercial stations. While there are many differences (1) in methodology between the polls which have been completed on this series and (2) in thoroughness between studies made for newspapers and periodicals and J. E. Lynch's doctoral dissertation,⁷ all research has brought out basically the same conclusions. For example, writers agree that: (1) when the program is presented over a single Detroit commercial station it has an audience estimated at 100,000 to 150,000, (2) approximately one-half the television set owners in the Detroit area have viewed the program, (3) one-fourth of those who have seen the program watch once or more each month, and (4) viewers actually do not represent a cultural minority but are from all age groups, educational backgrounds, and economic status.

⁷J. E. Lynch, "A Study of the Size and Composition of the Viewing Audience of an Educational Television Program in the Detroit Metropolitan Area" (Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, 1955).

There have been no significant differences shown between viewers and credit enrollees except that enrollees are required to pass university entrance requirements; this necessitates a slightly higher educational level and implies a higher status occupation.

During the 1957-58 school year, New York University and WCBS-TV offered a college-credit course in literature at 6:30 A.M. week-days, charging \$75 tuition for credit-seeking viewers. During the first semester, an estimated 125,000 persons watched this course for pleasure while 177 received NYU credit for completing the sixteen-week course. During the second semester of comparative literature, 113 received credit and an additional 34 paid \$35 just to get certificates signifying satisfactory completion of the course. The "Sunrise Semester" project was expanded to a full hour for the 1958-59 school year and is offering courses in history and literature, mathematics, a "great books" series, and a course in government.

Viewing habits. Again the five-hour-per-day type of viewing household would be extremely unusual in the realm of educational television. Consequently, in discussing regular viewing of educational programming, there is a question as to what would be called "steady" viewing. Dr. Wilbur

Schramm, of the Institute for Communications Research at Stanford University, states that six programs per week should be considered as minimal steady viewing.⁸

Let us analyze, therefore, the viewing habits of those over thirty percent who watch educational television at least occasionally:

1. A 1955 audience study in Pittsburgh showed that the average WQED viewer watched their programming between four and five hours weekly, or an hour per day on those days on which the station's services were used. Only 13% of the sample viewed WQED ten hours or more per week.⁹
2. A 1957 survey of the same Pittsburgh station's audience showed that about half the interviewees watched WQED occasionally or regularly and half watched rarely or never. The exact breakdown of these groups shows that: 25% tuned in only rarely, 38% watched occasionally, while 10% were regular WQED viewers.¹⁰

⁸Crary, op. cit., p. 3A.

⁹Ibid.

¹⁰Lewis Diana and Howard Rowland, The WQED Audience: An Analysis of Three Audience Surveys - 1955, 1956 and 1957 (Pittsburgh, Pa.: University of Pittsburgh, 1957), p. 6. (Mimeographed.)

3. In the Houston, Texas area approximately 60% of the set owners are estimated to be sometime viewers of KUHT-TV. Of this number, the University of Houston claims 21% as frequent viewers.¹¹
4. A 1957 study of the San Francisco Bay Area showed that viewers watched KQED on the average of 2.7 programs per week. 35% said they tune in one KQED program weekly. 40% saw three or more programs each week; while only 9% tuned to KQED for six or more programs each week.¹²
5. In a 1957 study of the KUON-TV audience, it was determined that 44% of the sample interviewed stated that they viewed the University of Nebraska's station occasionally while only 23% reported regular viewing.¹³

It must be remembered that the audience for educational

¹¹Richard I. Evans, "An Analysis of Some Demographic and Psychological Characteristics of an Educational Television Station Audience" (Houston, Texas: University of Houston, 1956), p. 2. Mimeographed Abstract.

¹²Wilbur Schramm, "The Audience for Educational Television in the San Francisco Bay Area," NAEB Research Fact Sheets, Series IV, Number 14, February 1958, pp. 1B-4B.

¹³Clarence Flick, "A Study of the Educational Viewer in the KUON-TV Area," NAEB Research Fact Sheets, Series IV, Number 14, February, 1958, pp. 1D-4D.

television is automatically reduced in number when the outlet telecasts on a UHF frequency. Latest figures estimate that only 8.4% of the television sets in operation are capable of receiving the UHF band.¹⁴ This audience is even smaller when the educational UHF station operates in an exclusively VHF area.

Audience statistics from this type of UHF outlet are usually comparable to the following study of Michigan State University's WKAR-TV, while it was operating on UHF Channel 60 during 1956. It was estimated that the station was viewed at least occasionally by 28% of the television households capable of receiving a UHF signal. Among these Channel 60 households who viewed at least one program regularly, the average number viewed on a regular basis was given as four. The maximum number of programs viewed by any one household was seventeen.¹⁵

Social class. American democracy has always had a type of class hierarchy. With the industrialization of the nation, class

¹⁴"Nielson Charts UHF Ups, Downs," Broadcasting, August 11, 1958, p. 40.

¹⁵Irving R. Merrill, Benchmark Television-Radio Study, Part I: Lansing (East Lansing, Michigan: Michigan State University, December 1956), p. 8. Mimeographed.

lines and their surrounding social movements have increased. There are three bases for differentiation of the class groups: (1) status and prestige, (2) power - which frequently is closely related to status and prestige, and (3) sentiments and interests.¹⁶

In general, five distinct social classes have been delineated in American communities; each merges with the one above and the one below it.¹⁷ While sociologists may refer to these groupings by different names, the class structure of communities remains comparable. Parker, Barry, and Smythe in The Television-Radio Audience and Religion use the following breakdown into social classes:

1. wealthy families, often inherited wealth, heads of households are leaders in business and professional pursuits;
2. adults are almost all college graduates, males occupy high managerial positions. (well-to-do people but usually no substantial inheritance);
3. vast majority of small proprietors, white collar office people, and sales workers; frequently have some college background (church, lodge, and family are their social life);

¹⁶Wilbur B. Brookover, A Sociology of Education (New York: American Book Company, 1955), p. 80.

¹⁷W. Lloyd Warner, Robert J. Havighurst, and Martin B. Loeb, Who Shall Be Educated? (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1944), pp. 19-27.

• The first step in the process of identifying a problem is to determine the nature of the problem. This involves a thorough understanding of the situation and the factors that may be contributing to the problem.

• The second step is to identify the causes of the problem. This involves a detailed analysis of the situation and the factors that may be contributing to the problem.

• The third step is to develop a plan of action. This involves identifying the steps that need to be taken to address the problem and the resources that will be required.

• The fourth step is to implement the plan. This involves putting the plan into action and monitoring the progress of the work.

• The fifth step is to evaluate the results. This involves assessing the effectiveness of the plan and the impact of the work.

• The sixth step is to review the process. This involves reflecting on the experience and identifying areas for improvement.

• The seventh step is to communicate the results. This involves sharing the findings of the work with the relevant stakeholders.

• The eighth step is to conclude the work. This involves finalizing the report and ensuring that all necessary documentation is in place.

• The ninth step is to follow up on the work. This involves checking back on the progress of the work and ensuring that the problem has been resolved.

• The tenth step is to reflect on the experience. This involves thinking about what has been learned from the work and how it can be applied to future projects.

• The eleventh step is to share the results. This involves presenting the findings of the work to the relevant stakeholders.

• The twelfth step is to conclude the work. This involves finalizing the report and ensuring that all necessary documentation is in place.

4. semi-skilled factory workers predominantly older members not completed high school (family, union, neighborhood, and lodge are their social life); and
5. semi- and unskilled workers, adults not completed elementary grades (family flat, street, or neighborhood social agencies are their social life).¹⁸

One could surmise that television set ownership might be associated with class 1 or 2 membership, since the purchase of a set still represents several weeks' to a month's income for members of the other three classes. However, in all studies completed to date, it has been proved that there is no correlation between higher income and set ownership; actually quite the reverse is true. In Parker's survey of the New Haven, Connecticut area, which was made during late 1954 and early 1955, only 50.5% of the class 1 families were set-owners; and TV ownership increased steadily through social classes 2 and 3 to social class 4 where 80.7% were set-owners. The percentage of ownership in social class 5 was somewhat less, 75.8%, possibly because incomes in this group are quite low; but even here the percentage of set-owners was half again as high as in social class 1.¹⁹ During the

¹⁸ Everett C. Parker, David W. Barry, and Dallas W. Smythe, The Television-Radio Audience and Religion (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1955.), p. 159.

¹⁹ Ibid., pp. 161-2.

three years following the completion of Parker's survey, there has been a gradual narrowing of the differences in set ownership among the various sub-groups of the population.²⁰ Group five is only very slightly behind in set ownership at the present time.

The listener's educational and economic level should be considered as adjuncts of his social class. With regard to educational level, Market Research Corporation reports show that those having a high school education were the first to become television set owners while college and grade school educated lagged behind. However, the percentage of the college educated group now equals that of the high school, and it is only the least educated who are now behind in set ownership.²¹

Most of the researchers studying the educational level of ETV's frequent listeners have concluded that the educational television audience differs little, if any, from the infrequent or non-viewer. However, there is agreement amongst them that the ETV fan has more intellectual and cultural curiosity--possibly reading more books, seeing more

²⁰Leo Bogart, The Age of Television (New York: Frederick Ungar Publishing Company, 1956), pp. 13-14.

²¹Ibid., p. 15.

plays, and indulging in more classical music than his non-viewing counterpart. Another distinction in education may also be drawn in that the more formal education one has the more likely he is to be a frequent viewer of educational television.

With regard to formal educational programs offered over commercial stations, in analyzing the educational background of listeners to a course in tailoring offered by the University of Wisconsin over a commercial station, WTMJ-TV in Milwaukee, it was discovered that 1.9% had less than an eighth grade education, 18.6% had an eighth grade education, 56.3% one to four years of high school, and 21.8% some formal education past high school.²²

A similar set of findings resulted from two surveys of the Western Reserve University offerings. However, since the course content came from the liberal arts, the educational level of the viewers ranged slightly higher; in this case the average listener had slightly more than a year of college education. This series was given in the morning when the audience is primarily composed of women, and the poll showed that the viewers' husbands had an average of two and

²²Polloch and Meloche, Tailoring a Coat (Madison: University of Wisconsin Press, 1954), p. 3.

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²²Polloch and Meloche, Tailoring a Coat (Madison: University of Wisconsin Press, 1954), p. 3.

one-half years of college education.²³

Information about the listeners' economic level may be gained from James Lynch's doctoral dissertation. The author points out that those working as professionals, proprietors, or managers plus craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers are the most likely to view the University of Michigan Television Hour; but in no occupation group was the level of viewing below 40%. Dr. Lynch points out that viewers of that program cannot be considered strictly as a "cultural minority" but tend to be a group rather evenly distributed among all segments of the population. However, actual enrollees for the telecourses tended to have higher-status occupations.²⁴

Age and Sex. Most of the data available on the age and sex of the audience for culture is to be found in the information from telecourse surveys such as Scothern and Harwood's report on Dr. Frank Baxter's telecourse, "Shakespeare on TV." The authors found the typical enrollee to be a forty-year-old married woman with three children and two

²³N. G. Halpern, Western Reserve Telecourse Audience (Cleveland: Western Reserve University, 1955), p. 2. Mimeographed.

²⁴Lynch, op. cit., pp. 110-3.

years of higher education.²⁵

This same picture (female, married, a mother and forty) is consistent throughout the literature--with this one additional factor, female telecourse viewers exceed male viewers by 30 to 80%.

Explaining this predominantly female audience is not difficult: (1) The bulk of the surveying has been done on programs broadcast during the day. Even Garry Moore's daytime program, a far cry from culture, reported only 14% male viewers at 11 A.M.²⁶ (2) The majority of the educational outlets operate on abbreviated schedules during the academic school year, many going off the air early in the evening and most closing down over week-ends. And, since the FCC does not insist on a round-the-year schedule for educational stations, some even go off the air for a portion of the summer months. Not only does such a practice make building an audience next to impossible, since the television audience has come to expect regularity; but it also makes the station almost inoperative at the precise time when the male audience would be the greatest. (3) Statis-

²⁵R. Scothern and K. Harwood, "Students of 'Shakespeare on TV'," Journal of the AERT, 15: No. 1, 1955, pp. 12-15.

²⁶Statement by Garry Moore, over the CBS-TV network, January 11, 1957.

tics for evening programs are most frequently derived from telecourse audiences which have a high percentage, over 33 1/3%, of teachers, librarians, and nurses--occupations filled largely by women.^{27, 28}

Program preferences. To occupy a position in the academic world is to owe a cultural responsibility. In the case of state university television, it must assume this responsibility not just to those who are already taking advantage of the cultural opportunities offered by the institution through its on and off-campus activities but also to the even greater masses who can be stimulated into seeking more information and widening their educational backgrounds. Where educational television is not interested in gaining an all-day audience, it must: (1) discover the educational needs of the potential audience which can best be filled by the television services of a state university; (2) find the general programming preferences and the academic level of the group who would or could be attracted to a particular program; and (3) meet its intended, or target, group at the time most convenient for the majority of the group to

²⁷Scothern and Harwood, op. cit., p. 112.

²⁸D. B. Harris, Credit Courses in Child Psychology (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota, 1955). Duplicated.

listen.

There is great need for research into this "public"--its cultural desires and its attitudes toward formal and informal education. However, even such insight into program preference as can be gleaned from an audience's taste in commercial programming can be applied by an educational broadcaster. For, since it has been shown that the audience for education is not too different from the majority audience, much of the preference information can assist the educator in beginning, like the teacher, "where the pupil is" and not over his head. One of the most commonly used commercial station techniques for discovering program preference is through determining socio-economic and educational levels for the majority audience according to a time-of-day, day-of-week scale.

Certain types of programs have been found to cut across the socio-economic levels--comedy programs, news broadcasts, sports programs, mystery stories, and popular music fall into this category.²⁹ And if one will look at commercial American television, he will find that the major part of its programming falls into these five categories.

The various social strata disagree concerning their

²⁹Paul Lazarsfeld and Patricia Kendall, Radio Listening in America (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1948), p. 23.

enjoyment of the following types of programs: (1) serious music and discussions of public issues, which are selected twice as frequently in the college group as in the grade school group; (2) hillbilly music, religious programs, and daytime serials, which are particular favorites of the lower socio-economic strata; and (3) the quiz program, which is most frequently mentioned by the middle strata, those who have attended high school but not college.³⁰

Parker points out that music viewing, in general, is distributed with remarkable evenness through all social classes.³¹ Consequently the programmer is faced with a single problem in this case, one of elevating the level of taste. Other program preferences by class agree remarkably with the Lazarsfeld and Kendall analysis.³²

However, it would be well to remember the experience of the British in trying to force such an elevation in taste. Some have always contended that a wider appreciation for fine drama and great music would be developed if more stations scheduled such programs at convenient hours and promoted them as diligently as they do their light entertainment shows.

³⁰Ibid., p. 26.

³¹Parker, Barry, and Smythe, op. cit., p. 187.

³²Lazarsfeld and Kendall, op. cit., pp. 25-27.

Paulu points out that the EEC has always given prime evening hours and excellent publicity to important cultural and educational programs; however, the British audience for these programs is no larger, proportionately, than the American audience for our own highly infrequent, poorly scheduled, and badly publicized programs of culture.³³

III. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Audience surveys have shown the educational television viewer to be the average citizen **apparently** no different from his non-viewing neighbor. He does, however, show an intellectual curiosity; may be interested in more community, state, and national affairs; and, if an enrollee for university credit, will have a slightly higher level of education.

Except for the educational outlets operating on a UHF channel, the audience for education is not the microscopic minority critics had predicted. Based on previous estimates, viewers of the forty educational television stations now on the air would number well over fifty million. However, this is by no means the maximum number that should be served by these stations; and, furthermore, it does not represent the regularity of viewing which could be considered most desirable.

³³Paulu, op. cit., pp. 380-1.

An educational station must constantly be striving to discover the reasons for a nation-wide antipathy toward programs of culture, attempting to discern the appeals and effects of all television programming, and trying to present both visual and aural proof that culture and education are neither dull nor useless.

CHAPTER VI
THE PHILOSOPHY AND ROLE OF THE STATE UNIVERSITY
IN THE MID-TWENTIETH CENTURY

In the preceding chapters, it has been shown that: (1) television can be a powerful tool when used for education; and (2) adults, in large numbers, will turn to educational television to extend or supplement both their formal and informal education.

However, even if one grants that it is possible for television to be of such great value in the education of adults, there remains the question of the precise role that television should play in the program of a state university or land-grant college.

In order to answer this and other pertinent questions concerning a state university's involvement in television, it is necessary to develop criteria by which the over-all television operation of a state university or land-grant college may be appraised. In this way one will be able to obtain a basis for comparison of these facilities and programs, which are so different in type and size, and to eliminate, or strictly curtail, the amount of personal opinion involved in the evaluation procedure.

Such criteria may be established best by:

1. Comparing and contrasting the philosophy and role of the modern state university with that of television in the modern state university; and
2. Translating those tenets held by state universities, which may be implemented through the medium of television, into a ranking of tangible characteristics of state university television operation which could then be deemed necessary or desirable for any state university participation in television.

I. THE NATURE OF EDUCATION AND ITS ROLE IN A DEMOCRACY

Before establishing criteria dealing with the use of television, in an attempt to improve and extend higher education, it is important to review several cogent points concerning education, itself, and the role the American citizenry has assigned it.

The nature of education. For every writer or philosopher in the field of education, there has been a definition of the term "education"; however, there have been but few basic differences in the ideas which have been incorporated into these definitions. Consequently, let us create a composite of the major points covered in these definitions, which will provide an insight into the consensus of opinion

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regarding the use of the term. This new definition would read as follows: Education is a natural, progressive, and systematic development of all of an individual's powers preparing him for a reciprocal union with society.

The informal educational process runs the gamut from the thousands of different things to be learned within the family circle and in one's relationships with doctors, clergymen, employers and bosses, politicians, authors, and artists to a more structured form of education such as that found in adult and continuing education programs. In this case, the informal process is organized at various levels, from grade school through university, and includes material of a remedial, vocational, cultural, recreational, and informational nature; this type of education comes after formal education but is related to it in many ways. Meanwhile the formal educational process, through the compulsory attendance public school system, provides for the orderly transmission of social experience, assists the learner in adjusting to cultural changes, and provides a means by which our culture may be consciously improved.

Very few people believe, today, that any person's education is complete upon reaching the age of sixteen, upon graduating from high school, receiving a college degree, or upon any arbitrary deadline or attainment. To the contrary, education for twentieth-century living is a

life-long process--a continuum, not a fait accompli. As far back as the 1930's, educational leaders, such as Lyman Bryson, were saying:

Because there is so much to be learned for anyone who wishes to be at home in the modern world, and because so little of it can be counted on to have validity over a long period of time, education can no longer be considered a terminal phase of life. . . . Learning becomes a necessary element in the life process, continuing as long as life itself continues.¹

Control of education in a democracy. The final control of this educational function in a democracy rests in the people of the individual states. Throughout the formal education system, the American citizenry has the right to vote on the policies and personnel most closely affecting the educational system or the right to attend or to send their children to private (protest) schools.

The nature of adult education. The importance of formal education in a democracy cannot be over-emphasized--nor can formal and informal adult education. If one takes as his definition of "adult" Webster's "grown to full size and strength," then, literally speaking, all formal education beyond the twelve years of elementary and secondary

¹ Lyman Bryson, Adult Education (New York: American Book Company, 1936), p. 6.

schooling would be considered as the education of adults. However, most educators would not allow the inclusion of regular college study in their category of "adult education."

Adult education, according to a commonly accepted definition by Lyman Bryson, is "all activities with an educational purpose that are carried on by people engaged in the ordinary business of life."² While half of this definition would not exclude the average college student as being a recipient of adult education, the majority of college adults in regular attendance are not also engaged in the ordinary pursuits of their livelihood and, consequently, could not qualify under the definition.

Educational needs of adults 18 to 50. Many adults discover a definite need for the high school education they did not complete, the college education they did not receive, the practical and academic courses that did not fit into their formal education program, the material that would bring them or keep them up-to-date, or the information that might provide mental stimulation. While there has been a gradual recognition of these needs for a continuous educative process for everyone, there has been an ever-increasing realization that this need has even a greater application to the older generations; therefore, it would be well to consider

² Ibid., p. 3.

the problems of this group in greater detail.

Educational needs of adults 50 and over. The educational needs of the 19 to 50 adult group may be thought of as relatively constant when compared to those of the nation's older population. Science has made it possible for everyone to live longer; consequently, the number of older people is increasing rapidly. At present eight per cent of the population of the United States is 65 years of age or older. By the year 2000 A. D. there will be at least twelve million more in this category and from 15% to 20% of the total population will fall in this older age group.³

Sheer increase in numbers does not, however, constitute the bulk of the oldsters' problems. In addition to the physical changes which occur to all people as they get older, the problems of the aged arise from our own society: from retirement, group expectancies of what the aged should and should not do, from the outdating of their wisdom and accumulated experience by rapid technological changes, the growth of their children, and from the shift of family living to apartments and small houses.

Regardless of all the changes in the social and physical conditions affecting the older generation, society

³ "Experts Consider Problems of Aging," The Saginaw News, July 9, 1956, p. 2.

is still oriented toward youth; and this, despite the fact that nearly one-half of the adult population is now middle-aged or older.

The state university's role in adult education.

Actually, the college or university is concerned with both the education of adults, as defined by Webster, and adult education, as defined by Bryson.⁴ This is most particularly true of the state-owned institution of higher learning which feels that advanced public education is the apex of the entire public education program and that, as a state-supported public agency, it has an obligation to democracy and to the people.

The American ideal in education. As pointed out in previous chapters, a basic tenet in the American educational philosophy is the opinion that every individual is entitled to an education suited to his needs and capacities.⁵ Summing up American education in terms of American idealism, James B. Conant has stated that "the development of our schools and colleges has been motivated by our desire to move constantly toward two goals: equality of opportunity

⁴ For a more thorough discussion of adult and extension activities in state universities, see Chapter II, pp. 33-37.

⁵ Chapter II, p. 40 and Chapter IV, pp. 155-6.

for all youth, equality of respect for all honest citizens."⁶

Quite obviously, the complete fulfillment of this ideal of equal opportunity would put many obligations on public advanced education. It would require the elimination of inequalities in educational opportunity caused by differences in race, creed, age, sex, and national origin as well as inequalities induced by the fortunes of one's economic status and the accident of his place of residence.⁷

Growth affecting higher education. Of great import to the state-owned institution of higher learning, with its obligation to adults, is the fact that the adult population of the United States is continuously increasing both with the ever-growing population of our Nation and with the lengthening of an individual's life expectancy. For example, during the past sixty years the median age of our population has changed from 20.9 to 30.2 years; while, during the same period, life expectancy has risen from 30 years to 69 years for men and 75 for women.⁸

⁶ James B. Conant, The Citadel of Learning (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1956), p. 28.

⁷ For a more thorough discussion of the inequalities in the American educational system, see Chapter II, pp. 50-53.

⁸ Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, Statistical Bulletin, June 1954, p. 4.

Coincident with the increasing number of adults of all ages and in keeping with the philosophy that human capacity should be the only restriction on educational opportunity, the enrollment in American institutions of higher learning has already increased over one thousand per cent since the beginning of the century. Of even greater significance is the fact that at the conclusion of this same span of time, with the tremendous increase in population that was coincident with it, proportionately 5 3/4 times as many persons are availing themselves of higher education as were at the turn of the century.^{9,10}

These changes, both in the composition of the population and in the percentage of people desiring higher education, will have a long-range effect not only upon every level of state-owned education but upon every social institution.

II. DEVELOPMENT OF THE PHILOSOPHY OF THE STATE UNIVERSITY

Chapter Four showed that: (1) television is definitely the most effective medium of mass communications,

⁹ Frederick Eby, The Development of Modern Education (Second edition: New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1952), p. 667.

¹⁰ For a more detailed account of the increase in desire for higher education, see Chapter II, pp. 48-50.

(2) television can be an effective instrument to convey reasoning, (3) television heightens interest through dramatic appeals, and (4) television brings the clarity and detail of a front row seat to every viewer. Consequently, provided the medium is used skillfully by intelligent, imaginative people, one would have to say that television can have great value as an educational tool.

In the previous section of this chapter, it was shown that: (1) Americans believe in the value of education in a democracy, (2) Americans believe that the only limitation on a person's right to an education should be his native ability, and (3) there has been a tremendous and continuing increase in the number of Americans taking advantage of our higher education program.

If television is such an important educational tool and if our state-owned educational institutions should be offering educational opportunities to an ever-increasing group of people, the questions remain as to what part a state university should take in the utilization of the television medium, and how television might best be used to help the state university carry out its objectives.

In seeking the answers to these questions, we must develop criteria by which the television operation of a state university may be measured to see:

- I. To what extent a particular state university program in television is consonant with the

philosophy of the function of a modern state university. This may be determined from a study of the philosophy and role of the university:

- A. As it has evolved through American history,
- B. As represented by official statements of these institutions, and
- C. As represented by the opinions of prominent twentieth-century educators.

II. To what extent a particular state university program in television is consonant with the role of television in a state university. This may be determined from a study of the philosophy and role of television in a state university:

- A. As represented by official statements of these institutions.
- B. As represented by the opinions of prominent twentieth-century educators, and
- C. As represented by the opinions of educational broadcasters.¹¹

The philosophy and role of state-owned institutions of higher learning are created, grow, and are modified through the events of history which have an effect on edu-

¹¹ Section II, the development of the philosophy and role of television in a state university, is discussed in Chapter VII.

cational development, through the statutes conceived by the institutions, and through the influence of the opinions of educational administrators and educators with regard to the precise nature of these state universities.

A. As It Has Evolved through American History.

The philosophy and role of the mid-twentieth-century state university cannot be determined simply by considering the state-owned institution as an isolated entity stripped of its historical background and its position in contemporary society. Consequently, it is essential to learn the major influences on the state university that have patterned the thinking both of educators and lay citizens regarding their institutions of higher learning.

1. The significance of general goals to all advanced learning. Three general goals are commonly assigned to all higher education and form the nucleus for the activities of all colleges and universities and the basis for decisions affecting their philosophy and role in society. These general goals are:

- a. To conserve knowledge:
- b. To expand knowledge:
 - (1) Through research and
 - (2) Through productive scholarship; and
- c. To transmit knowledge.

A fourth goal is frequently added to these universally accepted ones:

d. To promote the use of the information acquired for the benefit of mankind.

2. The influence of the formal, organizational relationship between the state university and the citizens of the state. The philosophy and role of state-owned institutions of higher learning have a basic general determinant in the enabling acts which have been passed or the charters which have been granted by legislative or other legal bodies. These documents indicate the institution's purposes and also imply the limits beyond which they may not legitimately attempt to operate. One of the truly great strengths of the American state university or land-grant college is its formal, organizational relationship to its people; it is a corporation or representative of the people.
3. The influence of Jacksonian democracy on American higher education. Undoubtedly one of the strongest influences on the nature of American higher education has been the adoption of the Jacksonian form of democracy with its emphasis on the raising of the cultural level of all citizens, not only of

the select few.¹² The Jacksonian theory that an enlightened citizenry is the best safeguard of our democratic rights and freedoms along with better, cheaper printing, easier, faster travel, and increased mobility between social classes has contributed in large measure toward making the possession of learning a relatively classless matter.

4. The passing of the Morrill Act in 1862 and the changes it has made in the concept of a state university. The Morrill Act may be considered as an extension and a verbalization of Jacksonian democracy. This is true because this Act took the limited concept of higher education primarily for the professions and widened it to include advanced education and training for people in all technical and vocational fields; the Act also put the land-grant institution under a special obligation to serve the entire state.^{13, 14}

¹² A more detailed account of Jacksonian democracy can be found in Chapter II, pp. 28-29.

¹³ A more detailed account of the Morrill Act and its influence on American higher education can be found in Chapter II, pp. 29-31.

¹⁴ President Eisenhower, in a speech before the Association of Land-Grant Colleges and State Universities, paraphrased material from one of Justin Morrill's speeches urging the enactment of his bill, saying that:

One of the Purposes [of the Morrill Act] was to bring education to the outlying portions of the country, to bring education closer to the people--

5. The growth of adult and extension activities. These activities began in state-owned institutions in the last decade of the nineteenth-century but actually had their roots in the Jacksonian approach to educational problems. During the first half of the twentieth-century state university adult education and extension activities became intimately related to the life and work of all the supporting groups. The present complex variety of courses and services offered came into being in the early 1940's with the pattern being established by the University of Wisconsin.¹⁵ Encouraged by the report of the President's Commission on Higher Education¹⁶ which attested that these institutions should elevate adult education to a position of equal importance with any other college or university function,

higher education, and at a price they could afford. And, moreover, he [Morrill] said 'not only a practical education but a liberal education.'

Dwight D. Eisenhower, Association of Land-Grant Colleges and State Universities. Proceedings of: Sixty-eighth Annual Convention, 1954, p. 23.

¹⁵ A list of extension activities will be found in Chapter IV, page 159, footnote 22.

¹⁶ President's Commission on Higher Education, Higher Education for American Democracy (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1948).

adult and extension activities have come to play an integral role in the program of state-owned higher education.

6. The similarity between concepts of modern twentieth-century state universities and those of land-grant colleges. The twentieth-century state-owned institution of higher learning is one intimately related to the life and work of its constituents, meeting the needs that are not being met by other institutions which by charter have special functions. The state university and the land-grant college (or university), whether they are housed under the same administrative roof or are physically and administratively separated from each other, have progressed more and more toward a unified view of their philosophy and role.¹⁷ In the emerging role, these state-owned institutions of higher learning: (1) have developed a combination vocational-general cultural education; (2) have become centers to which the state's citizens turn for information, analysis of their problems, and expert opinion; and (3) have taken higher learning to the outlying por-

¹⁷ For a more detailed account of the growing similarity between the philosophies and roles of state universities and land-grant colleges, see Chapter II, pp. 37-42.

tions of the state they are under obligation to serve. Both the state university and the land-grant college or university are now responsible for discovering and transmitting knowledge in all its forms to the people from whom they get their support wherever and whenever it is physically and economically feasible.

In summary, the history of the United States had a major influence on the philosophy and role of the American university. Some of this influence is in concrete form, such as specific pieces of legislation; the remainder, not tangible, but of equal importance, is in the form of influence borne by the American people and their times--in other words, by history, itself. A literal translation of these general beliefs and goals into a more tangible form would result in the following basic tenets held by all state universities and land-grant colleges:

1. A state university must conserve, expand, and transmit knowledge;
2. A state university must promote the use of information acquired for the benefit of mankind;
3. A state university has a formal, organizational relationship to its people;

4. A state university is pledged to raising the cultural level of all citizens, not only of the select few;
5. A state university has a special obligation to serve the entire state; and
6. Adult and extension activities have an integral role in the state university.

B. As Represented by Official Statements of These Institutions.

One must realize in the consideration of any official pronouncement of philosophy or role of a state university that, where such a statement does reflect the general policy and attitude of the institution, it is usually tempered in practice by general opinion and common sense. This process of moderating tends to overcome some of the shortcomings of the written statement, such as a lack of flexibility. However, such a pronouncement does represent in the main the underlying principles by which the institution is governed and, consequently, is a basic consideration in the determining of a state university's philosophy and role as it is operative at the time the statement is made.

In selecting documents of these state universities which are a matter of official record, the author has

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chosen: (1) statements from the bulletin or catalogue of the institution regarding its philosophy and role; and/or (2) statements regarding the philosophy and role of an institution made by its president, or the chairman of its governing board, and presented before the Federal Communications Commission's hearings on the setting aside of television channels for educational purposes, October 8, 1951 to November 26, 1951.^{18,19}

The search for statements of philosophy and role in official bulletins or catalogues of state universities resulted in consulting sixty-two such instruments.^{20,21} Of these sixty-two, only thirty-three (47%) had such statements.

In either oral or written testimony before the FCC, sixty-three of the seventy-one institutions were repre-

¹⁸ For a more detailed account of this oral and written testimony presented before the FCC, see Chapter III, page 82, footnote 22.

¹⁹ Telford Taylor, Seymour Krieger, and James M. Landis, "Brief of the Joint Committee on Educational Television," Washington, D.C.: Joint Committee on Educational Television, 1951. (Mimeographed.)

²⁰ There are seventy-one state universities and land-grant colleges in the forty-nine states which fall under the definition of "state university" as given in Chapter I, pp. 10-11.

²¹ All bulletins and catalogues used in this study were for the 1957-58 or the 1958-59 school year.

sented; and eight of the nine institutions whose catalogues had not been available were represented.²² Of the sixty-three institutions represented, forty-one had some statement concerning their philosophy or role as a state university. A composite list, formed from the group of institutions having statements of their philosophy and role as state institutions of advanced learning in either their official announcements or their FCC testimony shows that forty-five individual state universities have made such statements in at least one of these forms--this represents 63½% of the total number of such institutions.²³

Before analyzing these statements of philosophy and role, it is important that one remember that in neither the catalogue nor FCC presentations was there anything to suggest that the materials given were complete statements of the institutions' beliefs. However,

²² The exception was the University of Alaska.

²³ A further breakdown of the sample which might be of interest is as follows:

1. Of the forty-nine land-grant institutions, forty (82%) have some statement of philosophy and role in one of the two sources; and
2. In the twenty-eight institutions which are both the state university and the land-grant institution, twenty-five (89%) have such a statement in one of the two sources.

one could infer from its very inclusion that these materials contained some of the major principles in these institutions' philosophy.

In both the catalogues and FCC materials there are also the limitations imposed by the necessity for brevity. Consequently, those general purposes and goals which apply to all higher education or to all state-supported higher education (as the general goals of instruction, research, and conservation of information) are most frequently omitted from print or discourse. This does not mean, however, that they are not still the nucleus around which the remainder of the philosophy is oriented; rather it means that these beliefs are the core and are integral to the building of the philosophy and role. Therefore, such unstated general goals and purposes are implicit in any statement of philosophy or role.

Nine major tenets of the philosophy and role of the state university are revealed in official statements of these institutions.

1. A state university has three basic purposes:
 - a. to conserve knowledge, b. to expand knowledge, and c. to transmit knowledge. These general goals of all higher education are implicit in the statements of all state universities. However, with but slight differences in terminology, nine institutions spelled out

these goals.²⁴

2. A state university has the obligation to help people make their maximum contribution to society. This goal, in some form, is frequently expressed along with the three basic purposes and is implicit in the philosophy of all state universities. Nine additional institutions, however, voiced this tenet in some form; three typical examples follow:
 - a. "The main business (of the University of Delaware) is to foster intelligent growth of students so they can make a maximum contribution to society."²⁵
 - b. The University of New Mexico Catalogue states that "the ultimate goal of college or university education is to equip the maximum number of citizens with the understanding and wisdom which will aid them in becoming useful and responsible members of a democratic society."²⁶
 - c. The North Carolina State College announce-

²⁴ A complete list of sources for each of these tenets of state universities will be found in Appendix C.

²⁵ University of Delaware Bulletin, 1959-61, pp. 59-61.

²⁶ University of New Mexico Catalogue, 1957-58, p. 32.

ment says simply "man is first a citizen and then a specialist."²⁷

(While there is a basic similarity in these concepts, the University of Delaware's statement expresses its chief concern with the preparation of students for membership in society; the University of New Mexico's, with citizens of the State, implying that adult education is a primary concern; and North Carolina State College's statement, with good citizens before technical competency.)

d. Without specific reference to its large adult and continuing education program, Michigan State University's catalogue details that institution's aim in education as follows:

The University hopes to provide an education which will enable its graduates to contribute to the economic well-being of the state and nation to the limit of their creative and productive skills; to contribute to social stability by their understanding of the world around them; to contribute to the moral fabric of society by a sense of personal integrity, belief in deity, and devotion to American principles of government; to contribute to the political welfare of the state and nation by a reasoned and thinking approach to public affairs; in brief, to be truly educated men and women, effective citizens, well qualified to assume leadership in their communities, in the state, and in the nation.²⁸

²⁷ North Carolina State College, 1957-58 and 1958-59, p. 13.

²⁸ Michigan State University Catalogue, 1958-59, p. 17.

3. A state university is a part of the public educational system of the state. This, too, is such a well-established concept that it is implied in any state university's philosophy. Six institutions, however, have put this concept into the official documents examined; for example,

a. "The University of Maine is part of the public educational system of the state."²⁹

b. "Oregon State College is the oldest and largest unit of the Oregon State System of Higher Education."³⁰

4. A state university has a formal relationship to the people of the state. Here, again, is an established fact which in most cases is implied in other writing; this relationship was, however, spelled out in six state university announcements. The following examples are typical of the ways in which this relationship is explained and the simplicity and the complexity with which it may be expressed.

a. The State of North Carolina provided for its state-supported system of advanced learning by a simple statement in its state constitu-

²⁹ University of Maine Bulletin, 1958-59, p. 10.

³⁰ President A. L. Strand, Oregon State Agricultural College, Brief of the Joint Committee on Educational Television, Part V, p. 150.

tion in 1776: "All useful learning shall be duly encouraged and promoted in one or more universities."³¹

- b. The State of Texas provided for its state university in an enabling act. A portion of the preamble to that act is as follows:

Whereas, from the earliest time, it has been the cherished design of the Republic of the State of Texas that there shall be established within her limits an institution of learning for the instruction of the youths of the land in the higher branches of learning and in the liberal arts and sciences, to be so endowed, supported and maintained as a place within the reach of our people, whether rich or poor, the opportunity of conferring upon the sons of the State a thorough education as a means whereby the attachment of young men of the State and the liberties of the people might be encouraged and increased, and to this end liberal appropriations have been made and whereas the increase of population and wealth of the State, and the tendency of events, indicate the fitness of now putting the cherished design into effect; therefore³²

5. A state university must equalize the opportunity to obtain a college education by lessening: (a) the hardships caused by the distance one lives from the

³¹ University of North Carolina Bulletin, 1957-58, p. 67.

³² University of Texas, General Information, 1958-59, pp. 15-16.

university, (b) the differences in economic status, and (c) the inequalities caused by one's race, creed, sex, or national origin. This particular concept is closely linked to the one which follows, and it is inherent in statements of philosophy from all land-grant institutions. However, the clearest and most succinct phrasing of the five expressing this tenet comes from the University of Colorado announcement:

An integral part of the American dream is the belief that every qualified and interested youth should have the opportunity to obtain a college education. It was this belief that led to the concept of state support for higher education and to the establishment of state universities across the nation.³³

6. A state university has a special obligation to serve the entire state through a general cultural program, research, and extension. If frequency of occurrence has any influence on the value of a tenet, then this one, and number seven, would rank most important. Forty-two institutions referred to this obligation, eleven of them strictly state universities not affiliated with land-grant institutions.
 - a. The University of Massachusetts states simply:
"The University serves the commonwealth in the three important fields of resident instruction,

³³ University of Colorado Catalogue, 1958-60, p. 3.

research, and extension."³⁴

- b. The announcement for Montana State College narrows the primary concern of its extension responsibility when it states that: "The College serves the State through resident instruction, research, and the state-wide educational work of cooperative extension."³⁵
- c. A typical statement is from the Bulletin of the University of Kentucky:

The major function of the University is that of instruction. It also contributes to the welfare of the State through research, experimentation, and public service.³⁶

- d. A statement which deserves especial consideration is that of the University of Nevada, which points out that it is the only institution of higher learning in Nevada--a position unique in the forty-nine states. The University, consequently, "serves, within the scope of its resources, all educational needs beyond high school of an entire State."³⁷

The University's function is fivefold:
(a) Instruct youths and adults seeking

p. 11. ³⁴ University of Massachusetts, Bulletin of, 1957-58,

³⁵ Montana State College Catalogue, 1956-58, p. 35.

³⁶ University of Kentucky Bulletin, 1958, p. 5.

³⁷ University of Nevada Catalogue, 1958-59, p. 2.



higher learning in the liberal arts, the sciences, and the professions; (c) Increase and apply, through research, knowledge of value to mankind and particularly to the residents of the State; (d) Serve the people everywhere in Nevada as an intellectual, scientific and cultural resource; (d) Provide and develop competent leadership for the people of Nevada in their continued improvement of the State as a good community in which to live; (e) Strive, above all, to develop in its students, at all levels, those qualities of mind and body and spirit which are necessary for life as a worthy human being in a democratic society.³⁸

7. Adult and extension activities have an integral role in the state university. The overlapping between the university's obligation to serve through extension and the integral role of adult and extension activities is obvious. Thirty-two state universities noted this tenet in either their bulletin or FCC materials; nine of these institutions have no affiliation with the land-grant institution in their state. Typical of the manner in which this tenet is phrased are the following:

- a. The University of Idaho Catalogue states:

The University has three functions, as incorporated in the State Constitution: (1) to train the State's future

³⁸ Ibid., pp. 2-3.

citizens to their highest usefulness in private life and public service, (2) to conduct research in all fields that promise to assist in the development of the State's resources, and (3) to carry the fruits of that research and of University service to all parts of the State.³⁹

- b. An obligation to carry extension over state lines is expressed by the University of North Dakota's President, John C. West:

The University wants to enlarge and broaden its educational program to better serve a large area of North Dakota and of Minnesota for which the University of North Dakota is the educational center.⁴⁰

- c. The following statements refer to the universities' legal obligation for extension work:

- (1) "As Utah's Land-grant College, it has been charged by law with providing education for persons of all ages in all parts of Utah through the Cooperative Extension Service."⁴¹
- (2) "The University as a land-grant institution has the prime obligation to carry knowledge from the classroom and the results of research

³⁹ University of Idaho Catalogue, 1957-59, p. 5.

⁴⁰ President John C. West, University of North Dakota, Brief of the Joint Committee on Educational Television, Part IV, p. 110.

⁴¹ President Louis L. Madsen, Utah State Agricultural College, Ibid., Part V, pp. 136-7.

and experimentation to the citizens of the State."⁴²

- d. The Michigan State University Catalogue makes that institution's position with regard to adult and extension activities absolutely clear when it states under the University's aims and objectives:

to bring the service of the institution to the people of the state wherever and whenever there is evidence of need which the resources of the university can best satisfy.

• • • • •
The campus of the University is the state of Michigan, and it is the objective of the entire institution in all phases of its varied programs to be of immediate service to the people of the state in increasing their knowledge of science and the arts and in making practical applications of this knowledge to agriculture and industry.⁴³

8. A state university should teach people how to do their work effectively. This tenet is applicable to an institution which is exclusively a state university, to one combined with a land-grant college, or to one solely a land-grant college or university; however, in each case the term "work" is defined in terms of the aims and purposes of the defining institution of higher learning. In a state university, without a land-grant affiliation, "work" may be medicine, dentistry, law,

⁴² President William S. Carlson, University of Vermont, Ibid., Part I, pp. 4-5.

⁴³ Michigan State University Catalogue, 1958-59, p. 17.

engineering, and architecture; while to those institutions allied to land-grant colleges, "work" would include agriculture, home economics, veterinary medicine, and the mechanical arts. The Morrill Act endorsed agricultural and mechanical education in each state and, through the establishment and support of the land-grant colleges, made the job of teaching people to work effectively a legal as well as moral obligation of these institutions. Typical of these references by land-grant colleges to teaching people to do their work are the following:

- a. Iowa State College and the State College of Washington mention the technical and industrial movement of which they have been so much a part.

(1) The Bulletin of Iowa State College states:

In initial influence and aim, the Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanical Arts was an outgrowth of the industrial movement in education which sought to provide a training in harmony with the new economic and social order resulting from profound changes in industry and agriculture.⁴⁴

- (2) The State College of Washington's catalogue states:

The University was a great new experience in higher education. . . a break from the purely classical education for a few scholars. . . this was the character of the movement that fostered the establishment of the State College of Washington in 1890.⁴⁵

- b. Kansas State College's catalogue lists as an objective of the educational program of the College:

To prepare the student adequately in a technical sense for an occupation or a profession which includes an organized body of information and theory, and educe his creative potentialities in the field of his choice.⁴⁶

9. A state university must use the best and most efficient means of imparting a liberal education. The terms "best" and "most efficient" indicate that the state university does not subscribe to any one formula as providing the ideal university education; it also implies that educational methods, themselves, are subject to constant reappraisal. Thirteen institutions have stated this tenet as part of their philosophy and role.

- a. The University of Colorado Catalogue states:

The University was dedicated to providing the best and most efficient means of imparting to young men and women, on equal terms, a liberal education and thorough knowledge of the various branches of literature, the arts and sciences, with

⁴⁵ State College of Washington, 1958-59, 1959-60, p. 1.

⁴⁶ Kansas State College, 1958-59, p. 8.



their varied applications.⁴⁷

b. Michigan State University states as an objective:

"To provide an education to fit the times for young men and women who enroll here. . . ."⁴⁸

The extension of this tenet to include the use of various communication media has been advanced, for example, by:

a. Chancellor J. S. Williams of the University of Mississippi who said:

The primary consideration of the state-supported university is the interest, convenience, and necessity of the people within its spheres; and to fulfill this obligation, it must make use of every effective educational device available.⁴⁹

b. President Harry K. Newburn of the University of Oregon stated:

The University of Oregon is a state university charged with the responsibility of employing all possible media for its educational programs.⁵⁰

⁴⁷ University of Colorado Catalogue, 1958-60, p. 3.

⁴⁸ Michigan State University Catalogue, loc. cit.

⁴⁹ Chancellor J. S. Williams, University of Mississippi, Brief of the Joint Committee on Educational Television, Part VIII, p. 249.

⁵⁰ President Harry K. Newburn, University of Oregon, Brief of the Joint Committee on Educational Television, Part V, pp. 152-3.



C. As Represented by Opinions of Twentieth-Century Educators

In the discussion of the philosophy and role of the state university as revealed in the official statements of these institutions, it was pointed out that in actual usage these documents are tempered by general opinion and common sense. The strongest influence on the stated philosophy or role is, of course, played by the educational administrator or educator. It would be absolutely false to suppose that purposes can exist apart from individuals and how they "see them." However, in seeking out an educational philosophy and the role of the state university, the author is striving for a commonness of belief rather than an actual philosophy or role as interpreted by any one person or group.

1. A state university has a moral obligation to take its services to the people throughout the region it serves as formal instruction and as services to the general public. The place of the state-owned institution of higher learning at the apex of the pyramid of public education is undisputed throughout educational literature.⁵¹

⁵¹ For a detailed description of the structure of the American public education system see: Arthur B. Moehlman, School Administration (Second edition: New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1951), pp. 424-32 or H. G. Good, A History of Western Education (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1947), pp. 454-7.

This sequence in American public education has been most aptly expressed by Robert D. Calkins in a speech before the National Association of State Universities:

The state university was conceived as an integral part of the system of public education. . . .The state university was created to occupy the top of the pyramid of public education. It was put under non-sectarian control and maintained at public expense for the advanced instruction of the most talented youth.⁵²

As a unit of public education the state university automatically assumes the obligations of any publicly supported institution to make its resources and discoveries available to the general public from which the institution receives its support. While it is true that one of the primary functions of any institution of higher learning is to serve the needs of its community, to help the general public with the solving of each of its problems, in the case of a state university or land-grant college, its community extends far beyond the town or city in which it is situated; its community is from state-line to state-line.

⁵² Robert D. Calkins, Director, General Education Board for the State University of New York, "State Universities: A Mid-Century View," National Association of State Universities, Proceedings of: 1950, p. 55.

Typical of the opinions of prominent educators and educational administrators regarding their attitude towards a state university's responsibility to democracy and to the people are the following:

- a. Frank Porter Graham stated in his inaugural address when he became President of the University of North Carolina: "A state university must carry the truth to the people . . . The state universities come from the people and should go out to the people."⁵³
- b. Alexander G. Ruthven, in welcoming the people of the state to the University of Michigan campus, said that a state university "serves all the people of the state and countless others beyond the boundaries of its campus."

Coupled with its place at the pinnacle of the public education system and its responsibility to democracy and to the people is the state university's obligation to take the university to the people. Illustrations of the state university's view with regard to this obligation can be found, for example, in John A. Hannah's testimony before the Federal Com-

⁵³ These speeches of Frank Porter Graham and Alexander G. Ruthven are quoted in more detail in Appendix B, quotations 2 and 4.

munications Commission. As President of Michigan State College, Dr. Hannah pointed out that American universities founded along classical European lines have long ago "surrendered to the idea that formal collegiate training is not to be imparted on the campus alone but must be made available throughout the region each institution serves."⁵⁴ This opinion was expressed even more strongly in the report of the President's Commission on Higher Education when the group challenged the state-owned institution of higher learning to broaden the concept of its role in a free and democratic society. The state-owned institution

must cease to be campus-bound. It must take the university to the people wherever they are to be found and by every available and effective means for the communication of ideas and the stimulation of intellectual curiosity. It must not hold itself above using all the arts of persuasion to attract consumers for the service it offers.⁵⁵

2. A state university is responsible for equalizing educational opportunity by removing all geographic, economic, racial, social, age, sex and sectarian barriers. The only limitation on the opportunity to obtain higher

⁵⁴ This portion of Dr. Hannah's testimony is reported in context in Appendix B, quotation 5.

⁵⁵ President's Commission on Higher Education, op. cit., p. 97.

education should be ability. Here, again, the President's Commission on Higher Education set the ultimate goal at the ideal--the elimination of all inequalities and discrepancies keeping the attainment of higher learning in the hands of only a portion of those capable and desirous of further education.⁵⁶

Eight years later a committee studying the role of the state university reported to the National Association of State Universities that the state university has "tried steadily to improve the educational opportunities in order that the sole limitation might be the intellectual capacity of the student. . . . Only the tax-supported institutions can seriously aspire to cope with the ideal of university education."⁵⁷

Equality of educational opportunity is not only the ultimate goal set for some indefinite future; it is the tangible goal that educators are striving to achieve in their everyday operations. Arthur B. Moehlman phrased it thusly: "As an integral part of the North American public education organization, the state university is responsible for equalizing educational opportunity by

⁵⁶ Ibid., pp. 36-8.

⁵⁷ Harlan Hatcher, Chairman, Committee on the Study of the Role of the State University, National Association of State Universities, Proceedings of: 1955, pp. 142-6.

removing all geographic, economic, racial, social and sectarian barriers that now prevent youth from participating in general cultural and professional public education programs."⁵⁸

Howard L. Bevis, former President of Ohio State University, speaking before the National Association of State Universities as the group's president, said:

There is no doubt that the major responsibility for providing educational opportunity--on the university level--for the rapidly increasing number of young men and young women who include college and university training as necessary preparation for their careers rests with the state universities.

.....
It is our responsibility to do our utmost to furnish educational opportunity to all those capable of benefiting from it--regardless of race, economic situation, or family standing.⁵⁹

Dr. Bevis also introduced another, all-too-frequently operative, factor which tends to keep the state-owned institution of higher learning from equalizing educational opportunity, the availability of resources.⁶⁰

3. Adult and extension work is a vital, integral part of any good state university program. Statements that state universities have a moral obligation to take their ser-

⁵⁸ Moehlman, op. cit., p. 429.

⁵⁹ Dr. Bevis' speech is quoted in context in Appendix B, quotation 3.

⁶⁰ Ibid.

vices to the people and to equalize educational opportunity also imply that there is a need for adult and extension programs. For, actually, these programs are an implementation of these stated goals--a manner in which they may be effected. Here, again, there is great unanimity among educators as to the importance of adult and extension services to the state university. Quotations from educators range from a casual remark such as that made by Dr. Wilson H. Elkins, President of The University of Maryland, when he was quoted in Harper's as saying that "extension work is a vital part of any good state university program,"⁶¹ to full statements on the importance of these activities, as exemplified by a quotation from L. S. Rowell, Dean of Administration at the University of Vermont.

A state university not only has a responsibility to those who attend its classes but it must also exert a much wider influence. It must share itself with all the people--with those who have completed college work and desire knowledge in areas other than those they studied as students; with those who are in the lower grades and high school to stimulate thirst for further knowledge and to supplement their work; and with those who have not had the opportunity for college work to let them improve themselves and to

⁶¹ Bayard Webster, "The Fall and Rise of the University of Maryland," Harper's, October 1956, p. 68.

expand their horizons.⁶²

The President's Commission on Higher Education again pointed up the American ideal when it reported that:

University extension is now pushed aside as quite extraneous to real university business. This state of affairs cannot be permitted to continue. The colleges and universities should elevate adult education to a position of equal importance with any other of their functions. The extension department should be charged with the task of channeling the resources of every teaching unit of the institution into the adult program. It should be the duty of the . . . faculty . . . to teach . . . not just those who come to the campus, but everyone in the community or the state who wants to learn, or can be persuaded to want to learn.⁶³

This same feeling concerning the importance of adult and continuing education programs was given voice in the report of the Committee on the Study of the Role of the State University.

A state university should reflect the plans and aspirations of the people of the state from which it derives its support. The citizens of the state have every right to expect their university to bring all of its resources in teaching, research, and public service to the solution of their problems. Only in this manner can the largest number of deserving citizens receive effectively higher education's adult and con-

⁶² L. S. Rowell, Dean of Administration, The University of Vermont, in a letter to the author dated March 26, 1957.

⁶³ President's Commission on Higher Education, op. cit., pp. 96-7.

tinuing education in all its ramifications.⁶⁴

4. State universities should teach people how to do their work more effectively. Undoubtedly there would be more differences of opinion among educators over this concept than on any one or any combination of the previous three; however, among educators allied to state-owned higher education, there would be little conflict. The state university and the land-grant college have grown side by side, and in some places are one and the same; consequently, they have been influenced, for the most part, by identical factors. Each has developed its own curriculum and program of education activities to meet its own individual needs. The original points of divergence between the two types of institutions, their responsibility to American democracy and their obligation for adult and continuing education, have almost entirely disappeared, leaving the difference largely one of subject-matter areas.^{65,66}

⁶⁴ Harlan H. Hatcher, President, University of Michigan, Chairman, Committee on Role of State University, National Association of State Universities, Proceedings of: 1953, p. 147.

⁶⁵ For a more detailed account of the differences between state universities and land-grant colleges see Chapter II, pp. 41-2.

⁶⁶ William D. Carmichael, Jr., Comptroller, The Consolidated University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, North Carolina, in an interview with the author, March 23, 1957.

This concept of teaching the state's citizens to do their work more effectively is part-and-parcel of the adult-continuing education program. It has been working with increasing effectiveness since the turn of the century. In 1941 Lincoln Steffens assessed the state university's role in Wisconsin, saying that:

The University of Wisconsin is as close to the intelligent farmer as his pig pen or his tool house. The University laboratories are a part of the alert manufacturer's plant. To the worker the University is drawing nearer than the school around the corner and is as much his as his union is his. Creeping into the minds of his children with pure seeds; into the debates of youth with pure facts; into the opinions of voters with impersonal, expert knowledge, the State University is a part of the citizens' own mind.⁶⁷

The state-owned institution of higher learning is committed to the American belief that educational programs must respond to the complex needs of twentieth-century society. This does not mean that, in meeting these needs, the state university is committed to a splinter curriculum composed of technical and vocational courses on all academic levels with only a smattering of general cultural subjects. However, it does mean that, being responsible for the preservation and strength

⁶⁷ James Creese, Extension of University Teaching (New York: American Association for Adult Education, 1941), p. 51.

of our civilization, the state university "cannot afford the intellectual snobbishness of proclaiming that only one curriculum--even though that be in liberal arts--offers the only hope for the survival of our civilization in the present period of international unrest." This is the attitude of the National Association of State Universities' Committee on the Study of the Role of the State University.⁶⁸

The consensus of opinions of educators regarding this concept may be found in a speech given by President Lewis Webster Jones, of Rutgers University, before the Association of Land-Grant Colleges and State Universities which he was serving as President:

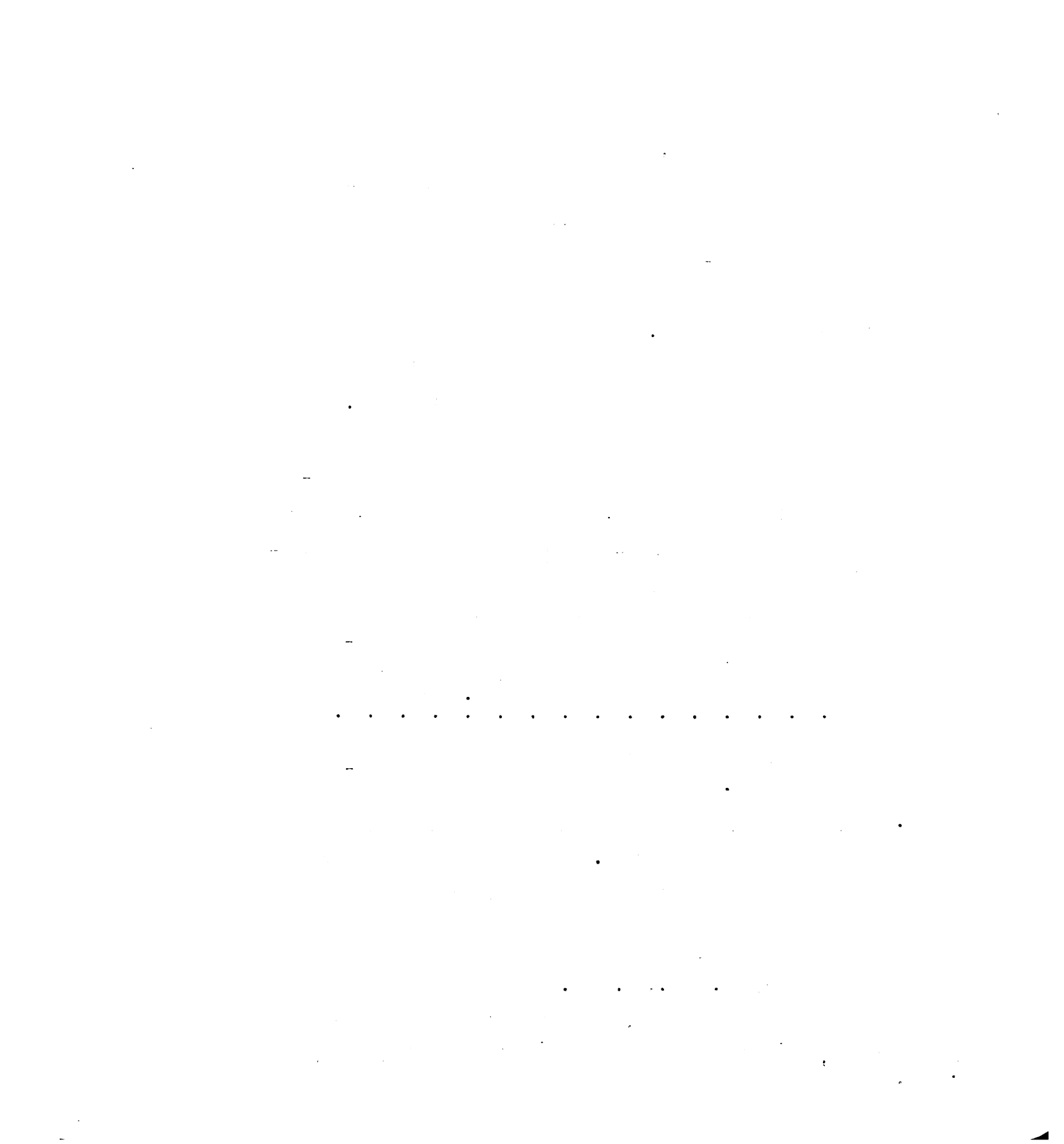
The idea of using colleges and universities to teach people how to do their work more effectively, and the idea of teaching everybody up to the limit of his ability, are relatively new and extremely important ideas.

• • • • •
No one in this country ought to feel himself or his children held down below their real capacities because of lack of educational opportunity.⁶⁹

5. A state university must secure more adequate diffusion of university information. If one grants the importance of adult and extension activities to the program of the

⁶⁸ Hatcher, op. cit., p. 146.

⁶⁹ Lewis Webster Jones, "New Dimensions for American Higher Education," Association of Land-Grant Colleges and State Universities, Proceedings of: 69th annual convention, 1955, p. 30.



state university, then one must also grant the importance of the state university's program offering as wide a variety of subjects and activities, at the least possible cost to the recipient, with uniform--state-line to state-line--coverage. There can be no doubt that the state university, with its programs in the conservation of knowledge, its research to create new knowledge, and its staff of instructors to pass on knowledge, has information that should be in the hands of the American people. Therefore, distribution, with two of its components--facilities and cost, becomes the largest single factor in determining the success of such a program. It is important to remember, however, that the distribution problem also includes: (1) making educational needs of the state's citizenry "felt" needs, (2) having information readily available, and (3) telling the people of these information sources so that they utilize the services which are offered.

A typical state university pattern is to establish adult and continuing education "centers" in the larger metropolitan areas throughout the state; nevertheless, although the number of services offered in these centers is relatively small, the university is unable to extend even this skeleton group of activities to the smaller communities which so badly need mature service and

collaboration.^{70,71}

Despite the swelling programs in adult and continuing education throughout the country, the task of diffusion of university information has scarcely started. Authorities agree that there are "infinitely more people in dire need of extension . . . than extension has been able to reach."⁷² And, because of their role in the American educational system, these state universities and land-grant colleges have a definite "obligation to take the diffusion of knowledge to the people with especial seriousness."⁷³

⁷⁰ Baker Brownell, The College and the Community (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1952), pp. 145-7.

⁷¹ This point has been stressed by many directors of extension; for example L. H. Adolfson, Director of the University Extension Division at the University of Wisconsin, has said:

Here in Wisconsin, through a system of Extension Centers attached to the University, we're attempting to broaden this educational opportunity to many sections of our state where adequate college opportunities are not close at hand. However, there are obviously definite limits as to how far we can go in providing this type of education on a face-to-face basis.

L. H. Adolfson, "Television and Adult Education," Lincoln Lodge Seminar, Proceedings: ed. Burton Paulu (Urbana, Illinois: National Association of Educational Broadcasters, 1953), p. 44.

⁷² C. Hartley Grattan, In Quest of Knowledge (New York: Association Press, 1955), pp. 184-5.

⁷³ Ibid., p. 192.

The President's Commission on Higher Education felt that present methods of distributing university information could not be considered the ultimate in extension services when it reported that:

Courses by extension or correspondence may not be the best means of educating adults; they certainly are not the only ones. Vigorous experimentation with new methods, however unorthodox, is called for.⁷⁴

This belief is being translated by extension directors of state universities into constant re-appraisals of the channels open to the dissemination of university information and the utilization of all forms of presentation and all proven media of communication available for their programming.⁷⁵

6. A state university must conduct its business openly and interpret its purposes, needs, and activities to all the people. This tenet simply means that the state-supported institution of higher learning must keep before the citizenry the reasons for its existence, its program of instructional and research services, and an evaluation of its program and how it may be improved.

⁷⁴ Presidents' Commission on Higher Education, op. cit., p. 98.

⁷⁵ Charles F. Milner, Director of Extension Division, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, in an interview with the author, March 22, 1957.

One can readily understand why state-supported higher education, occupying the highest level of public-supported education, must acknowledge a fundamental responsibility to the people who, by public charter, have created these institutions; who, by their right to vote, govern them; and who, by their taxes, keep open their doors. The ultimate success of state-financed higher education is closely tied to public confidence in and public understanding of the university's program.⁷⁶

The state-supported institution of higher education needs a continuous program aiding the citizens in their appreciation of the work of the university, its needs, and the programs it offers. The reasons

⁷⁶ In Public Relations in Education the authors explain this need for public understanding in the following manner:

Schools exist because the public considers them desirable, or more accurately, the public has not pronounced them undesirable. Therefore, the schools must sell themselves to the public, not occasionally, not annually, but every day. Education needs a continuous, honest, and comprehensive program of interpretation to the public and the enlistment of its cooperation.

Clifford L. Brownell, Leo Gans, and Tufie Z. Maroon, Public Relations in Education (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1955), pp. 40-1.

behind such an open public relations effort are obvious: in the first place, the people have the right to this information because it is their university. As a co-owner in a project in advanced learning, they have a right to know why their money must go to the institution's support, what the institution is doing, how the institution can benefit them directly, and what additional plans and needs the institution may have.

Secondly, the people should know of the work and the aspirations of their university because of the importance of a well-informed citizenry to a democratic form of government. This knowledge could result in more interested and intelligent voting, in a more intelligent use of the programs and facilities that are available, and, ultimately, in additional support to public higher education. One has to admit that there is a general complacency or disinterest toward public higher education throughout the country; a great deal of this public apathy can be traced to the fact that less than one-fourth of our nation's population has ever directly participated in the programming of institutions of higher learning,⁷⁷ nor have a large percentage of the

⁷⁷ For a more detailed account of the problems of public attitude toward higher education, see Chapter II, pp. 43-6.

population ever lived close enough to a university to know, for themselves, of the many programs from which they could benefit. Because they cannot feel personal involvement with university activities and programs, these people, in the main, do not understand why a large state university program is necessary nor what its program is; nor do they understand the goals of the university and what can be done to make the program more effective.

Thirdly, the entire state university program is geared to adults beyond the age where custom or compulsory school laws would ensure attendance; consequently, one cannot guarantee the enrollment of those individuals who would obtain the maximum benefit from these activities merely because the activities are being offered. One is not able to promise that adults will spend a considerable amount of time or energy seeking an educational outlet; others will "fail to find the type of educational program they want, either because they are inept at looking for it or because it is unavailable."⁷³ In addition, many other responsibilities and interests compete for the attention of any adult.

⁷³ Homer Kempfer, Adult Education (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1955), p. 339.

III. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

It would be difficult, if not impossible, to establish one set of tenets as a true or all-inclusive philosophy or analysis of role for all state universities. Each of these institutions of higher learning was established by the people of its state to meet their own needs; each grew within a framework similar to that of other state universities or land-grant institutions but modified in accordance with the aims, traditions, and needs of its own people.

However, from the preceding study one is able to gain certain basic tenets of philosophy and role which are held by all state universities. Some of these tenets are spelled out in official university documents, in the writings or speeches of prominent twentieth-century educators, and in pieces of legislation; others can only be inferred from these tangible pieces of evidence but are, nevertheless, basic to the understanding of this evidence.

Table V, on pages 243 and 244, summarizes those beliefs which have been derived from these three major sources and points out those tenets which are implicit in the philosophy and role as interpreted by one of these methods.

In brief, as the top of the public educational system, with a formal, organizational relationship to the people, the state university occupies a position of great influence in the United States. The state university shares the general goals of all higher education: to conserve, transmit, and expand knowledge,

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TABLE V

PHILOSOPHY AND ROLE OF THE

STATE UNIVERSITY

TENETS DEVELOPED THROUGH HISTORY	TENETS DETERMINED FROM OFFICIAL STATEMENTS	TENETS DERIVED FROM OPINIONS OF EDUCATORS	FREQUENCY OF OCCURRENCE
1. A state university must conserve, expand, and transmit knowledge.	-----	(1) Implicit in these opinions.	3
2. A state university must promote the use of information acquired for the benefit of mankind.	To help people make their maximum contribution to society.	Implicit in these opinions.	3
3. A state university has a formal, organizational relationship to its people.	-----	It must conduct its business openly and interpret its purposes, needs, and activities to all the people. (6)	3
4. A state university is pledged to raising the cultural level of all citizens.	To equalize the opportunity to obtain a college education.	-----	3
5. A state university has a special obligation to serve the entire state.	Through a general program, research, and extension.	(6) Has a moral obligation to take its services to the people as formal instruction and as services to the general public. (1)	3

6. Adult and extension activities have an integral role in the state university	-----	(7)	----- (3)	3
7. (Implied in other tenets.)	A state university is a part of the public education system of the state.	(3)		3
8.	A state university should teach people how to do their work effectively.	(8)	----- (4)	2
9.	A state university must use the best and most efficient means of imparting a liberal education.	(9)	-----	1
10.			A state university must secure more adequate diffusion of university information. (5)	1

Code:

1. "State university" refers to both the state university and the land-grant college or university.
2. Position in a parallel column signifies that the tenet is the same or of a similar nature.
3. Frequency of occurrence does not necessarily signify a rank order of importance.
4. Numbers enclosed in brackets refer to the original number of the tenet.

and to promote the use of this information for the benefit of all mankind. In addition, the state university must equalize educational opportunity so that no person is deprived of the right to education except for reasons of his own native ability. Although their instructional programs may have a different emphasis, both the state university and the land-grant institution are under obligation to teach people to do their work effectively. In raising the cultural level of all citizens, the state university is pledged to serve the entire state whenever and wherever its services are needed--to the limit of its resources. This service to the state includes adult and extension activities which should occupy an integral role in the state university's program. And, concluding the basic tenets of philosophy and role, all state universities are in need of more adequate diffusion of the vast amount of information available on their campuses.

The mid-twentieth-century state university is the center of both practical and theoretical learning to which the citizen turns with his problems and from which comes an organized flow of information and expert opinion. The state university trains the leader, the follower, the scientist, the technician, and the teacher; consequently, its influence permeates all levels of education, all strata of society. The state university is no longer considered a luxury necessary to a high civilization but is a necessity for the continued operation of a prosperous society.

CHAPTER VII
THE PHILOSOPHY AND ROLE OF TELEVISION
IN A STATE UNIVERSITY

Individual opinions of educators, educational administrators, and educational broadcasters as to the philosophy and role of television in state-owned institutions of higher learning have developed, primarily, in three ways: (1) through a person's experience with television and with other media of mass communication, (2) from the experience of commercial stations with both cultural and entertainment programs, and (3) as the result of research and experimentation in the educational uses of television. A combination of these individual viewpoints, each tempered with those of others, moderated with the philosophy and role of the state university itself, and modified by the exigencies of financing and other university problems, comprises the official concept of the philosophy and role of television in a state university.

Through a study of official statements of the institutions, opinions of twentieth-century educators, and opinions of educational broadcasters one is able to achieve a general consensus as to the philosophy and role of television in a state university. However, because there is no one set of terms in which the tenets of any institution's philosophy

may be couched, one cannot arrive at a simple, neat, precise tabulation of principles. Many beliefs are left unsaid although their presence is obvious since they are basic or tantamount to ideas which have been expressed; others are phrased in statements which actually combine several principles. Consequently, the author has attempted to enforce a strict interpretation on all statements made and to divide some statements, without distorting their meaning, so that they become mutually exclusive.

I. DEVELOPMENT OF THE PHILOSOPHY OF STATE UNIVERSITY TELEVISION

A. As Represented by the Official Statements of These Institutions.

Two types of official pronouncements of the philosophy and role of television in a state university have been used in this study: (1) The written and oral testimony concerning television and its educational uses made by presidents and chairmen of governing boards of state universities and land-grant institutions. These fifty-five statements were presented, in 1952, before the Federal Communications Commission when education was seeking the setting aside of television channels for education¹

¹ For further information regarding these statements before the FCC, see Chapter III, footnote 22, p. 82.

and represent 78% of the total number of these institutions which are under study. (2) Official statements of the institution's philosophy regarding educational television which were requested, by the author, from the administration of each state university. Statements concerning their official philosophy were received from fifty-four of these institutions,² 76% of the total number being studied. A composite of the two sources of official statements of philosophy shows that statements from sixty-eight of the seventy-one state universities and land-grant colleges have been consulted, 96% of the total.³ In cases where both a 1957 official statement of television philosophy and the 1952 testimony before the FCC are available the 1957 official statement has been given first consideration since it represents a later or perhaps a revised opinion.

1. Educational television should be used to help a state university achieve its traditional objectives: instruction, conservation of knowledge, expansion of knowledge, and the promotion of the use of this information for the benefit of mankind. Unless a university activity assists that institution in achieving at least one of

² These statements were received by the author between February and October, 1957.

³ These totals include the University of Alaska; however, no statement of philosophy was received from this institution.



these objectives, there can be little reason for its existence as part of the institution's program. The television medium, when properly used, is capable of helping the state university to carry out all four. However, these traditional objectives are so basic to all university activity they are more frequently implied in other statements of belief regarding television than they are spelled out.

In the official statements of state universities' philosophy of television, only two institutions made direct reference to television's assistance in helping them fulfill their traditional objectives; in addition, the Proposal of the Citizen's Committee on Educational Television for Kansas⁴ and the Report of the Sub-committee on Television, Higher Education Study, Michigan Council of State College Presidents⁵ made similar references.⁶

⁴ Proposal of the Citizen's Committee on Educational Television for Kansas (Topeka, Kansas: Joint Committee on Television, 1956), p. 3. (Mimeographed.)

⁵ Lawrence McKune, Garnet R. Garrison, and Paul B. Richard, Report of the Sub-committee on Television, Higher Education Study (East Lansing, Michigan: Council of State College Presidents, 1955), pp. 2-3.

⁶ These two documents reflect the beliefs of Kansas State College, the University of Kansas, Michigan State University, and the University of Michigan.

If one were to establish a rank order for the appearance of any single traditional objective in statements of a state university's philosophy of television, it would be as follows:

- a. Instruction. Most universities see the principal use of television in carrying out their objective to transmit knowledge. This applies both to in-school instruction (via closed-circuit or open-circuit television) and to credit and non-credit offerings for the general public. Fifteen official statements state that university television should offer credit courses; eight additional institutions gave similar testimony before the FCC. As further evidence of its obligation to instruct by television, nineteen additional universities state, specifically, that a state university television facility must offer instruction to implement the institution's adult and continuing education program.⁷
- b. Promotion of the use of university information for the benefit of mankind. This particular traditional objective appears in official statements in several guises:

⁷ A complete list of sources for each of these tenets regarding the philosophy and role of television in a state university will be found in Appendix D.

- (1) Television will implement extension activities in taking information to the people. This phraseology appears in the official statements of thirty state universities and in the FCC testimony of four additional institutions.

For example,

Television "on the air" will be used to extend Continuing Education over the maximum possible area of Georgia to the greatest number of adults possible. This use of television is not intended alone for those who cannot come to the Center for conferences and short courses, but is also intended to provide pre-conference and post-conference study materials to those who do visit the Center. We believe that television used in this concept is the most economical way to extend the resources of the University of Georgia to the adult population of the state.⁸

- (2) Television will help the university perform a public service (or fulfill its obligation for service.) This phrasing was used in the official statements of thirty-two institutions; six additional institutions used it in their FCC testimony. For example, President Troy H. Middleton, testifying in behalf of Louisiana State University, said:

⁸ Official statement of television philosophy, the University of Georgia, Athens, Georgia dated March 4, 1957.

The University has a responsibility for education in the State and television is an important medium for education. The University, therefore, has an obligation to provide educational television programs for the general public which can be met fully only through a non-commercial educational television station.⁹

- (3) Television can assist the state university in taking the benefits of a university (or of a university education) to people throughout the state. This version was used in twenty-seven official statements of philosophy and five additional FCC statements. For example, in a brochure entitled "Your Television Station," The Consolidated University of North Carolina phrased this obligation in the following manner:

WUNC-TV will take the benefits of the University into the homes, the minds and the hearts of literally thousands of North Carolinians who are not being directly reached by it at present.¹⁰

- c. Expansion of Knowledge (Research). Many state universities feel that television can help them expand knowledge in two principal ways:

- (1) Using television as the medium by which research

⁹ President Troy H. Middleton, Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College, Brief of the Joint Committee on Educational Television, Part VIII, p. 226.

¹⁰ Your Television Station, a publication of The Communication Center of The Consolidated University of North Carolina.

is conducted in other areas--science and education, for example; and

- (2) Doing research in the field of television, itself, in either the technical or programming areas.

Five institutions refer specifically to a university's need to do research in television; three others mentioned research in their FCC testimony.

- d. Conservation of Knowledge. There are fewer references to television's ability to achieve this particular traditional objective of a state university than to the other three. Very possibly this can be traced to the comparatively recent technical developments in this area which are now making the conservation of television programming easier, better, and less costly.¹¹

While a basic objective of all higher education, no official university pronouncement of television philosophy, no educator's or educator's philosophy of television as it applies to a state university advises curtailing or eliminating the use of the medium because of its limitations in preserving

¹¹ In addition to the use of film and kinescope recording, television programming may now be preserved on black and white or color video tape.

knowledge. Rather, they would include the belief that the conservation of television materials is important and should be made whether for short or long periods of time or for exchange with other commercial or educational outlets.

2. Educational television, both by law and by moral responsibility, must serve the entire community. The Federal Communication Commission's Sixth Report and Order,¹² which established the educational reservations for television, made it very clear that the educational channels must also serve broad community needs as well as those of a particular institution or group in the community.

Since it would be illegal to operate a television station exclusively in the interest of the state university, one might wonder if these institutions would be interested in joining with or offering their facilities to other educational and public service agencies in the programming of such a facility. However, some portion of the state university's program is concerned with education "from the cradle to the grave"; and, while its primary concern is the individual fourteen years and over, the university's scientists, psychologists, sociologists, and educators are either directly working

¹² For a more detailed account of this legislation, see Chapter III, pp. 78-81.

with or are training individuals to work with people of all ages.

This willingness or desire to cooperate with other elements in the community was stressed in fourteen official statements of state universities and in the FCC testimony of eight other institutions. Interest in cooperation with other agencies takes two distinct forms:

- a. A simple statement of obligation or desire such as that made by Vice President Frederic W. Heimberger in the opening telecast of Ohio State University's WOSU-TV.

While the station will be controlled and operated by the Ohio State University, programming will not be limited to campus sources. Through proper association, its offerings may be greatly enriched by talents drawn from the whole community and its many educational and cultural institutions.¹³

- b. A complete breakdown of educational institutions; agencies of state government; and cultural, informational, and civic groups with which the university hopes to cooperate, such as that put forth on behalf of Kansas State College and the University of Kansas by the Proposal of the Citizen's

¹³ Frederick W. Heimberger, from an untitled address given at the opening telecast of WOSU-TV (Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State Bureau of Public Relations, February, 1956), p. 2. (Mimeographed.)

Committee on Educational Television for Kansas.¹⁴

While both educators and educational broadcasters place equal emphasis of their desire or need to co-operate with public school systems, institutions

¹⁴ Proposal of the Citizen's Committee on Educational Television for Kansas, op. cit., p. 14.

All educational, cultural or non-commercial informational services within the state will have access to air time on this television network.

It will be open for use to all educational institutions in Kansas, such as:

1. High schools and grade schools throughout the state.
2. Municipal schools.
3. Private institutions for higher learning.
4. Parent-teachers associations and the like.
5. The five state institutions of higher learning.

It also may be made available to the various agencies of state government, such as:

1. Department of Social Welfare (example - mental health programs).
2. State Board of Agriculture (example - control of crop and animal diseases).
3. Highway Patrol (example - high school driver safety education program).
4. Department of Public Instruction (example - homebound children program).
5. Kansas State Board of Health (example - health information).
6. Kansas Bureau of Investigation (example - tracing criminals and missing persons).
7. State Office of Civil Defense (example - training schools for firemen, police, and disaster personnel).

Cultural, patriotic, informational and civic groups, such as:

1. Libraries.
2. Museums.
3. Symphonies.
4. Art Associations.

of higher learning, and general public service organizations in their television programming, this tenet will not be developed further in other sections of this study since any educational television outlet is under legal obligation to cooperate in this manner.

3. The television facilities of a state university must broaden the basic education of the population and create a better informed citizenry. There is some overlapping between this tenet and another, number 1 b, which states "that university information should be used for the benefit of mankind."¹⁵ The similarities between the two are obvious; the differences, while equally important, are, perhaps, more difficult to see on casual reading.

To be explicit, this tenet refers to an obligation on the part of the state university to obtain certain information and put it into the hands of the people of the state. This information may be of a very elementary, even remedial, nature and might not include material amassed through a university's regular activities or supplied to the university's regular or adult students. Tenet 1 b, however, refers to the using of university

¹⁵ Tenet 1 b appears on pages 250-2 of this chapter.

information to benefit mankind; it does not necessarily imply that in taking this action one is obliged to provide a broader educational background for all citizens, nor does it state that a general, universal education program needs to be undertaken by the state university.

Official statements of twenty-nine state universities refer to the use of television to broaden the basic education of the general public and to make better citizens; three additional institutions supported this contention in their FCC testimony. For example, the use of state university television in general public education and information programs was set forth by the University of Michigan in its application for UHF channel 26.

A hunger to know is quite universal. The different interests and needs of housewives, business men and women, laborers, clerks and secretaries, farmers and city folk and many others can be served effectively and easily via telecourses on a variety of subjects from wood-working to literature. A better informed adult citizenry is a "must" for an effective democratic society.¹⁶

The University of Wisconsin says simply: "Educational television can make for better living and better citizens."¹⁷

¹⁶ Garnet R. Garrison, "Programming for Non-Commercial TV," Reprint from an article from College Public Relations Quarterly, July 1953, p. 3. (Mimeographed.)

¹⁷ Wisconsin Citizen's Committee for Educational Television, Educational Television for Wisconsin (Madison, Wisconsin: Wisconsin Citizen's Committee for Educational Television, Inc.), p. 5. (Mimeographed.)



The sub-committee on television of the Michigan Council of State College Presidents, reporting for Michigan State University and the University of Michigan, lists as a common objective of educational television:

To inform the viewer of the values in our free society and varied points of view on important public issues in enabling him to become a better citizen and socially a more desirable individual.¹⁸

4. The television facilities of a state university should help eliminate inequalities of educational opportunity. While absolute equality of educational opportunity has always been part of the American ideal, educational television brings this ideal closer to reality than it has ever been before.

Hardships caused by the distance one lives from an institution of higher learning, differences in economic status, and inequalities caused by race, creed, sex, and national origin can be rectified, or greatly reduced, by the use of this medium. Furthermore, experiments have already proven the adequacy of television as a medium to convey knowledge;¹⁹ statistics have already shown the

¹⁸ McKune, Garrison, and Rickard, loc. cit.

¹⁹ See Chapter IV of this study.

accessibility of television in the average American home;²⁰ and surveys have already proven that the American public enjoys watching the medium and has a habit of doing so.²¹ Consequently, since the medium of television transcends the "man-made" inequalities of higher education and since it is one of such powerful appeal and value as an instrument of education, the use of television to solve problems of educational equality is a most logical development.

The philosophies of twenty-one state universities point out the value of television in helping their institution rid the state of inequalities of opportunity to receive higher education; two others made the same point in their FCC testimony. Typical of the statements regarding the use of television to overcome these inequalities are the following:

The television medium may offer to the homebound and to the adult aspects of higher education which the individual

²⁰ There are 48,300,000 television sets in use in the United States, according to a National Association of Broadcasters' study. This would mean that over 90% of American homes have at least one television set.

"No Radio-TV Recession in 1958," Broadcasting, December 29, 1958, p. 51.

²¹ Time Magazine reported that the average American television set is turned on 5 hours and 56 minutes each day.

"New Dimensions," Time, October 13, 1958, p. 53.

...the full extent of its potential as a medium for the delivery of the primary and secondary curriculum has not been fully explored.

It is also providing valuable materials for in-school use, television can open up a whole new world of educational opportunities for adults in their homes and others who are not able for one reason or another to attend school in person.²²

5. The television activities of state university should
serve the state public educational systems of the
state both at the pre-college elementary, secondary,
and higher levels to: a. enrich teaching,
b. extend and improve the curriculum offered, and
c. alleviate present teacher shortages. The
 previous quotation, from the University of Wisconsin's
 philosophy of educational television, is far from the
 only reference by state universities to their belief
 in in-school television programming on all levels of
 education. The use of open-circuit television for in-
 school programming has been discussed in connection
 with three possible uses of the medium:
 a. The use of television to enrich and improve

²² Official statement of television philosophy, The University of New Mexico, Albuquerque, New Mexico dated April, 1957.

²³ Wisconsin Citizen's Committee for Educational Television, loc. cit.

instruction. Texas Agricultural and Mechanical College is one institution that has expressed this belief.

Texas A and M is interested in all possible means of improving teaching or cutting teaching costs without sacrifice of quality. Television offers a means to one or both ends.²⁴

- b. The use of television to extend and supplement the curriculum offered. Offering courses in mathematics, science, art, and music which are not available in the public schools of many Alabama communities, the University of Alabama states: "The University is presenting programs for in-school viewing for children as well as credit courses for adults."²⁵
- c. The use of television to alleviate classroom and teacher shortages. This viewpoint has been brought forward by the University of Florida.

As university enrollments grow beyond the capacity of the classrooms, lecture

²⁴ Official statement of television philosophy contained in a letter from the Office of the Chancellor, Texas Agricultural and Mechanical College System, College Station, Texas dated March 25, 1957.

²⁵ IV Program Planning Guide (University, Alabama: University of Alabama, Extension Division, January 1956), p. 21.

halls and available faculty, these institutions may be forced to develop television lectures for courses of large enrollment, with viewing sets in dormitory lounges and even off their campuses, with supplemental live or personal discussion sections, in fulfilling our roles as educators.²⁶

While the University of Alabama's programming serves as a part of its function in a state network, a number of state universities have applied or are applying for educational channels along with the community schools of their area; the University of Minnesota and the University of Washington have this type of station on the air.

A total of sixteen institutions specified the need to do television programming on all levels of public education; seven additional institutions included this in their FCC testimony.²⁷

6. The television facilities of a state university should provide in-service education to professional people (dentists, doctors, teachers, etc.) providing them with new information and techniques. While this

²⁶ Official statement of television philosophy, University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida, March, 1957, p. 5. (Mineographed.)

²⁷ These figures do not include those state universities which propose to use closed-circuit installations for these same purposes.

belief is not mentioned as frequently as many others in statements of television philosophy, the function of post-professional and in-service television education can be a most important function of state university television and one very much in keeping with these institutions' role in the mid-twentieth century.

Of all the professionals, the teacher is the only one required by law and/or institutional practice or custom to take additional education to keep his certification and/or to move up in his profession.²³ Dentists, doctors, and others have to take time from their patients or clients and travel to the state university for needed up-dating instruction. Because of the difficulty in arranging time away from their practice and because there is no external "prod" operating as in the case of the teacher, these people all too often miss out on refresher courses and new developments in their field.

Actually, in the fields of science and medicine, instruction on the university campus, itself, is frequently given by means of closed-circuit television so that every student stands at the technician's microscope and at the doctor's scalpel.

²³ This is merely a statement of fact and is not intended as an argument for or against enforced teacher education.

Seven state universities have voiced their views on post-professional and in-service television education in their official statements of television philosophy; these institutions, for example, have said:

- a. With regard to teacher in-service education programs.

The state universities are charged with the responsibility for teacher training. One of the great assets of educational television has been found in this area. . . . teacher telecourses would permit renewal, or upgrading, of their certificates.²⁹

- b. With regard to post-professional education programs.

Considerable effort is necessary and much money is spent in the organization of short courses on campus for seminars and professional group meetings. However, a considerable number of graduates in the professional areas are not able to attend these meetings. Television programs broadcast by educational stations at times convenient for viewing may be very helpful in presenting information on the newest developments and techniques to professional colleagues. At times speed is highly desirable in transmission of specific items. A case in point was information for physicians and medical technicians about the Salk polio vaccine. Television permits this speed of transmission.³⁰

²⁹ Official statement of television philosophy, University of Florida, loc. cit.

³⁰ McKune, Garrison, and Richard, op. cit., pp. 10-11.

- c. With regard to in-service programs for all occupations.

WUNC-TV offers you - the farmer, the businessman, the homemaker, the textilist, the furniture maker, the banker, the lawyer - special programs for special needs and many general programs.³¹

7. A state university should offer training for persons entering the field of commercial or educational television. The education of persons preparing to enter the communications field is an important function of any state university for in very few areas can the influence of a single person be felt on the lives of so many others. In the hands of these individuals are tools of tremendous power which can be used for greatness or viciousity, for the benefit of mankind or individual gain. The public tends to believe automatically that which appears in print, on the radio, and over television; consequently, the obligation of the institution in training media personnel is a most serious and important one.

Statements of philosophy regarding the state university's responsibility in preparing students

³¹ Your Television Station, The Consolidated University of North Carolina, loc. cit.

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³¹ Your Television Station, The Consolidated Univer-
sity of North Carolina, loc. cit.

to enter the various branches of the medium of television are really quite similar, the chief difference being in the detail to which the university has gone. Fourteen institutions have some statement regarding student training for television in their official philosophy; one additional state university referred to training in its FCC testimony.

For example, the University of Illinois states:

The University plans to help train professional workers for this country's expected one to two thousand television stations, just as it trains editorial and advertising men for newspapers or teachers for our schools.³²

Michigan State University's Television Broadcasting Policy sets forth:

the development of a training program and courses of study in television broadcasting for the staff and students of the University in order to advance and improve the medium and its utilization through instruction and research.³³

Mississippi State College pointed up the need for an educational station to implement its instructional program in television saying:

³² The University of Illinois and Television (Urbana, Illinois: Office of the President, University of Illinois), p. 1. (Mimeographed.)

³³ Television Broadcasting Policy of Michigan State University (East Lansing, Michigan: Office of the Director of Television Development), p. 1. (Mimeographed.)

An educational station will serve as a training ground for students in all phases of television.³⁴

In addition, objectives for the operation of commercial station KCMU-TV, the University of Missouri gives as its second objective:

To provide laboratory facilities of the highest type for students who are interested in learning the highly skilled work of the various phases of video.³⁵

3. The television activity of a state university should provide the opportunity for research in:
a. the technical phases of television and b. new and better ideas in television programming. The pattern of state university television research activity follows closely that of instruction in the medium. In the main, technical research has been added to the activities of Schools of Engineering while programming research has been established in one or several departments or schools on the campus. Research is one of the traditional objectives of every institution of higher learning

³⁴ President Fred T. Mitchell, Mississippi State College, Brief of the Joint Committee on Educational Television, Part VIII, p. 244-6.

³⁵ Status and Objectives of KCMU-TV (Columbia, Missouri: Office of the Assistant to the President in Charge of Television, Edward C. Lambert, 1957), p. 2. (Mimeographed.)

but, without some type of television facility (either open or closed-circuit) on the campus, little experimentation can be done with either technical or programming research.

The need to carry out research in television is specified in the official statements of philosophy of ten state universities; one additional institution refers to research in its FCC testimony. Typical of these statements are the following:

- a. Since much is yet to be learned, we hope that we shall also be able to make a valuable contribution through research.³⁶
- b. To make this program [extending the reach of education] more effective, the University should stimulate experimentation with instructional methods imposed by the medium and their application to the classroom. The facilities also should . . . enable other students to experiment with television as it may apply to the fields of their professional interests.³⁷
- c. The University of Illinois plans to conduct research on television with the idea of helping us understand it better and use it more effectively, just as the University conducts research in corn or human health or labor and industrial relations. If it did not, it

³⁶ Heinberger, loc. cit.

³⁷ Report of the Sub-Committee on Television, University of Michigan, adopted April 2, 1953. (Mimeographed.)

would be going against its whole tradition of upholding the basic principle of leadership of universities and colleges.³⁸

8. The television facility of a state university should be organized and operated as an integral part of the institution's program of instruction and extension services. While only three state universities support this contention in their statements of television philosophy, its omission may be one of oversight rather than disbelief. For, surely, the relationship between the television facility and the over-all structure of the university can foretell the future of the television operation.

In its FCC testimony, President O. C. Aderhold of the University of Georgia stated:

When established the station would be organized and operated as an integral part of the University's program of instruction and extension service.³⁹

The official television philosophy of the University of Michigan says:

Television, when within the jurisdiction of a university, should be regarded as an integral part of the institution's educational facilities and offerings. The educational

³⁸ The University of Illinois and Television, loc. cit.

³⁹ President C. C. Aderhold, University of Georgia, Athens, Georgia, Brief of the Joint Committee on Educational Television, Part VIII, pp. 276-7.

television should be representative of the best in university instruction, and the control of such educational programs should reside in the schools or colleges and be administered through normal channels.⁴⁰

10. the televising facility of a state university should perform a public relations function for the university. Twelve state universities mention a public relations function for their television facility in statements of their philosophy.

A typical statement of this function is the following paragraph from North Dakota Agricultural College:

Here at the North Dakota Agricultural College, we regard television as a tool with which to do an educational job . . . whether that job be rural adult education . . .; informing viewers of current research; increasing public understanding in academic subject matter; or interpreting the function and place of our College in the community and society.⁴¹

In applying for Channel 7, the University of Utah's Exhibit 12 showed an incorporation of public relations principles to most of the University's programming.

⁴⁰ Report of the Sub-Committee on Television, University of Michigan, loc. cit.

⁴¹ Official statement of television philosophy, North Dakota Agricultural College, Fargo, North Dakota dated April, 1957.

The University of Utah proposes to operate the education 1-television station . . . for the purpose of extending to the citizens of the region the newest and best information available. The public will be offered an opportunity to witness the quest for knowledge which takes place in the laboratories of the institution of higher learning in the area. They will likewise be afforded an opportunity to observe the teaching processes currently used in all schools.⁴²

Coupled with two additional functions of state university television, public relations rates fourth in Purdue University's purposes of television.

Television will also prove beneficial in adult education, in agricultural extension, and in university public relations work. Through its use, the public will gain access to the knowledge possessed by our staff and will gain a better understanding of the activities and purposes of the University.⁴³

The University of Michigan expresses public relations as a continuing function of university television.

Educators have an excellent opportunity to schedule programs to aid the taxpayers and parents in understanding the varied aspects of instruction, research, and service. Television permits personal tours to classes and laboratories in operation and first hand reports on aims and purposes of the educa-

⁴² Exhibit 12: Programming Policy, a portion of the application to the FCC for the granting of Channel 7 to the University of Utah. (Salt Lake City, Utah: copy received from C. Richard Evans, Manager of Television Operations, University of Utah, March 12, 1957), p. 1.

⁴³ Official statement of television philosophy, Purdue University, Lafayette, Indiana dated March 22, 1957.

tional system. The TV spotlight may stimulate interest, provoke discussion, and permit full use of constructive criticism for particular philosophies and methods utilized. The public has an opportunity to judge for itself."

B. A Representative in the Opinions of Prominent Twentieth-Century Educators.

The philosophy and role of television in a state university as revealed from opinions of educators contains nine major tenets; some of these are explicit, others understood but not spelled out. In this study we are only concerned with those tenets which are most prevalent. No educational leader has a statement on record to the effect that he sees no use for television in connection with a state university; however, some time will be devoted, at the conclusion of this section, to the principal objections of education leaders to the use of television in their own institutions.

Material for this section has been obtained from the following sources: (1) statements by educators appearing in books and periodicals; (2) statements given by educators in response to a request from the author; and (3) the results of a research project sponsored by the National Association of Educational Broadcasters--The Role of Television in Higher Education as Seen by College

⁴⁴ Garrison, loc. cit.

1. Universities and Televis by R. Edwin Browne.⁴⁵

1. Since television is the most powerful of the media
of mass communication and it offers a tremendous
potential to education, a state university should
determine and exploit the best uses of television
in terms of its own objectives. This belief is
actually a restatement of a state university's
obligation to do everything within its power to
raise the general educational level, to create
better citizens, and to perform a service to all
markings. These are all jobs that education would
have to perform and if television is the best tool
to achieve them, then it should be selected.
Various aspects of this tenet have been expressed
as follows:

- a. Harold D. Lasswell, Professor of Law and
Political Science at Yale University has said:

⁴⁵ R. Edwin Browne, "The Role of Television in Higher Education as Seen by College and University Presidents," (Urbana, Illinois: NAEB Research Fact Sheets, Series VII, No. 1, January 1958).

A portion of Mr. Browne's thesis involved a questionnaire sent to presidents of a selected sample of two hundred larger colleges and universities through the country. The 147 responses Mr. Browne received are of interest to this study for they present a type of frequency check with regard to some of the possible uses of television in higher education as viewed by the administrators of those institutions.

The appearance of television as the latest instrument of the communications revolution gives us the opportunity to make of this new instrument an effective means of accomplishing the purposes of a free society, an educational opportunity of the kind that we almost threw away in the case of radio.⁴⁶

- b. Comments of Harold C. Hunt, Undersecretary of Health, Education and Welfare point up the fact that, regardless of the value of educational television, its true value can only be appraised when its users' knowledge and skill with the medium are known.

Television does not eliminate the need for good teachers. If educational television is to be successful, competent teachers must be made available to work in this new medium It would be hazardous to argue that educational television could replace individually guided participation by the learner in the discussion classroom. What it does provide is the background by which any teacher-learner situation may be vastly improved.⁴⁷

- c. State university presidents, speaking before their national organizations, have stressed the potential of television; for example:

- (1) President J. H. Hilton of Iowa State College, in the report of the Committee on Radio and Television, stressed the importance of all

⁴⁶ Harold D. Lowell, "The Social Role of the Educational Television Station," Lincoln Lodge Seminar, Proceedings: ed. Burton Paul (Urbana, Illinois: National Association of Educational Broadcasters, 1953), p. 3.

⁴⁷ Harold C. Hunt, statement by: National Educational Television News, September-October, 1956, p. 2.

mass media to land-grant institutions.

Mass media have peculiar significance for the Land-Grant Institutions, who were the authors of the demonstration method, the creators of the extension service, and who are chartered to serve, not the campus alone but the whole people of the commonwealth which they inhabit.

In a century when the pictures of the world inside our heads are derived more frequently from mass media than from personal experiences Land-Grant administrators may well ponder the question of what portion and how much of the television screen they should occupy in terms of their appointed task in the furious competition of many agencies for men's minds and hearts.⁴⁸

(2) President Oliver C. Carmichael of the University of Alabama said:

Television, which is in its infancy, has great potentialities for education both in the classroom and in the adult community. To exploit these potentialities is a problem of special importance to state universities. Television's future as an educational agency appears to be much more promising than radio ever was.⁴⁹

1. Dr. Glenn Seaborg, Chancellor of the University of California and 1952 Nobel Prize Winner has said that combining the advantages of television

⁴⁸ President J. H. Hilton, Iowa State College, Association of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities, Proceedings of: 65th annual convention, 1954, p. 13.

⁴⁹ President Oliver C. Carmichael, University of Alabama, "The State University-Its Problems and Prospects," National Association of State Universities, Proceedings of: 1954, p. 33.

with increased leisure time may enable Americans to catch up with the demands of the age. He said, further, that although television has not been so widely used as it should be, through the medium more than 90% of American homes can become centers for the continuance of intellectual development.⁵⁰

C. State delivery of national television should serve
three main functions.

- a. To improve and enrich instruction. A number of educators have made general statements concerning the need of television for this purpose as did Dr. Carmichael, who was just quoted.⁵¹ A similar statement is that of President C. S. Willham of Oklahoma A. and M. College: "We feel that educational television is going to help us improve instruction."⁵² Combining the in-school and extension uses of television in a general statement, President Walter S. Newman of

⁵⁰ Dr. Glenn Seaborg, Chancellor, University of California, from an address before business leaders at KQED, San Francisco, NAEP Newsletter, Vol. XXIII, No. 12, December, 1952, p. 2.

⁵¹ Carmichael, loc. cit.

⁵² President C. S. Willham, Oklahoma A. and M. College, "Oklahoma A. and M. in the State Plan for ETV," Association of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities, Proceedings of: 1954, p. 23.

Virginia Polytechnic Institute has said:

"There is a real need for educational television within the institution and extending from the institution."⁵³

A more specific statement detailing some of the uses of television for in-school situations comes from Dr. Norman F. Thorpe of the University of Nebraska.

One of the recent developments which has unlimited possibilities for schools is educational television. In addition to the motivation that comes from the use of a variety of media, educational television can bring information, demonstrations, and sport events into classrooms that would be difficult if not impossible to have available in any other way.⁵⁴

Re-appraisal of our present curriculum to take advantage of this newest mass medium in improving the quality of instruction is advised by Dr. Clarence H. Faust, President of the Fund for the Advancement of Education.

The matter of quality must be, above all, our concern in appraising the possibilities of television in the light of our educational purposes.

⁵³ President Walter S. Newman of Virginia Polytechnic Institute in a letter to the author dated March 10, 1957.

⁵⁴ Dr. Norman Thorpe, Associate Professor of Secondary Education and Director of Teacher Training, University of Nebraska, quotation sent author by Jack McBride, Manager KUCN-TV, Lincoln, Nebraska, March 17, 1957.

If our purpose is the development of intelligence, if the essential function of education is the development of the mysterious ability of men to reflect, to take thought, to judge, and to weigh, then we certainly need to look hard at the new means of communication available in our time. We need to consider what new possibility exists because of television for confronting the students with the most exciting minds of our day, what new materials otherwise not possible in the curriculum may be introduced by it, and not least of all, what curricular reforms will result when we begin to re-examine and readjust our means of education.⁵⁵

4. To help in meeting teacher and classroom shortages. In addition to the interest in improving the quality of instruction, educators are expecting television to help meet the problems of increasing students and decreasing teachers.

- (1) Television may be one of the means for multiplying our educational resources to accomplish what seems otherwise a hopeless task. . . . There are today more than forty million students in our schools and colleges. If we attempt to provide one teacher . . . for every twelve or fifteen in our colleges, it will be utterly impossible to find enough good teachers to raise education to anything like an appropriate level.

A reorganization of our devices for education, including such things as placing more responsibility upon students for

⁵⁵ Clarence H. Faust, "Educational Philosophy and Television," an address given at the Conference on Teaching by Television in Colleges and Universities, Pennsylvania State University, October 22-23, 1957 (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, January 1958), p. 8. (Mimeographed Reprint.)

their own education, pruning the curriculum of the proliferation of courses, and the use of high quality for as many years to as many students as colleges will be called upon to provide.⁵⁶

- (2) The discussion of any educational problem today must begin with the arithmetic of future enrollments in schools of all kinds, at all levels. It is in this setting that we must take a long look at educational broadcasting. It is a matter of simple arithmetic to deduce that even if an increased proportion of college graduates enters the teaching profession--a premise not very well supported--there is no way of preserving present methods and organization without lowering the standards of teacher selection and the quality of teaching personnel.

.....
In meeting the increasing numbers of students, it is imperative that the audio-visual instruments of education be moved from the periphery to the center of current practice. The film, radio, and television must be major helps instead of incidental ones.⁵⁷

When ranked in order of frequency of occurrence of eight possible uses of television in higher education, "televised education for students on campus" was given fourth place in Elwin Browne's survey.⁵⁸

3. State university educational television should be a service to the entire state, offering both

⁵⁶ Ibid.

⁵⁷ David D. Henry, President, University of Illinois, "Educational Broadcasting--A Look Ahead," The Educational Record, October 1955, p. 317.

⁵⁸ Browne, op. cit., p. 2A.

Extension of general service to the public of all ages. This is a large, important concept: it includes the responsibility of the state university to program for the entire state, for all age groups and for all academic backgrounds, and to do both instructional and general service programming.

The opportunity to broaden the educational base in our country through television has been expressed by Dr. Arthur Adams, President of the American Council on Education:

Educational television is the extension of the facilities of educational institutions, from the narrow limits of a campus to distances extending 60, 80, or even 100 miles from a transmitter (and this is only one service which educational television can render), it is evident that we have within our grasp a means of bringing to millions of people what only thousands could have had before television came. This something is an increased opportunity to increase our educations.⁵⁹

Harold L. Lowell adds to this the concept of educational television's role in society.

It is obvious that educational television has a fundamental place in the social process, and that the effectiveness with which this job is done can affect the quality of the decisions made by the community. This

⁵⁹ Arthur S. Adams, President, American Council on Education, quoted by Franklin Dunham, "A New Road to the Abundant Life: A Survey of Educational Television," The American Psychologist, Vol. 10, No. 10, October 1955, p. 615.

is true of every community in the ever-enlarging circle from neighborhood to town to metropolis, and up to the nation, the nation and the international coalition.⁶⁰

Many people also feel that, since education should be a life-long process, adult education programs should occupy a large share of the broadcast day.

Universal education for youth has long since fulfilled the dream of a nation with people having knowledge essential in continuing a democratic society. But the philosophy of this educational process was one which ended at adulthood. Beyond high school or college any pursuit of knowledge had to come without the long standing habit of the guiding hand and counsel of the teacher. The recognition of the abrupt end of formal education has been evidenced through extension classes so familiar in many communities. But these are available to a few only and are restricted in their coverage. With educational television a college or university, with its vast academic resources, can extend the classroom to all within reach of the family living room, and with it the realization of well-intended plans to take a correspondence course, an evening class, or to read this or that book, or fill the desire to learn that which is not done simply by reading some books.

Education throughout one's life through television is open and ready; it needs only facilities for technical performance.⁶¹

Three college presidents have expressed the point of view of the land-grant institution when they have said:

⁶⁰ Lasswell, op. cit., p. 4.

⁶¹ Dr. A. C. Breckenridge, Professor of Political Science and Chairman of the Department of Political Science, University of Nebraska, quotation sent author by Jack McBride, Manager, KUCN-TV, Lincoln, Nebraska, March 17, 1958.

- (1) We continue to feel at Auburn that television is an extending device for education, merits the continued support of the people of Alabama.

Here at Auburn Polytechnic Institute we have spent the first two years of the existence of the Alabama Educational Television Network in exploring and experimenting in several program areas. Development work in getting new television in campus underway has taken much time and energy, but even while working hard to get started, we have found time and talent from the Auburn staff to program extensively in all areas from primary in-school to adult education.⁶²

- (2) The college regards television . . . as a major mass communications tool--a device which effectively extends our extension activities to new thousands who never before have been in contact with our county extension directors, or our specialists.⁶³

- (3) We hope to carry out the functions of our land-grant college as a part of the state-wide program [the Oklahoma Educational Television Authority], keeping in mind that land-grant colleges and universities in this great nation of ours were conceived in democracy, based on science serving humanity and dedicated to the principle that there is true culture of general value in all that improves the way of life and the art of living.⁶⁴

⁶² Dr. R. E. Draughon, President, Alabama Polytechnic Institute, in a statement to the author dated March 7, 1957.

⁶³ Hilton, op. cit., p. 3.

⁶⁴ Willham, loc. cit.

This tenet was divided in Mr. Browne's study into two possible uses of television in higher education; and of the eight possible choices, the two points ("educational, cultural television for off-campus viewers" and "televised education for off-campus viewers") were ranked first and second most important by the administrators.⁶⁵

4. State university television should train personnel for general and educational television. One would not hesitate to say that this tenet is basic to all educators' views as to the role of television in a state university. Instruction in the mass media and in techniques of evaluating them has long been considered as part of two traditional objectives, "to transmit knowledge" and "to expand knowledge," of all higher education. There is, however, dichotomy in the viewpoint of both educators and educational broadcasters with regard to the exact nature of this instruction, whether there should be a balance between technical training and the liberal arts or an emphasis on one or the other.

The philosophy of the trade school educator and broadcaster inevitably reflects the emphasis on technical competency while the university educator

⁶⁵ Browne, loc. cit.

emphasis the liberal arts. The educational triangle usually upholds the "balance" point of view.

Typical of the educators' emphasis on liberal arts education is this statement from H. Clay Hershberger, Assistant Dean of Liberal Arts and Chairman of the Department of Speech and Dramatic Art at the State University of Iowa:

From the point of view of society, and from that of the future ten and twenty years hence, is it more important that the television man come to his first job with a broad background and just enough skill to start at the bottom of the ladder; or will he and society be better off if he enters the field as a mere technician?

If it is agreed that the future is brighter with the broad background, then you should seriously consider Iowa. You will enroll in and graduate from the College of Liberal Arts. You will have the opportunity to become proficient in written and oral language, in the social sciences, the natural sciences and the humanities.⁶⁶

Elwin Browne ranks "a vocational emphasis-- training students to work in the medium" as third among the eight possible uses of television in higher education.⁶⁷

⁶⁶ H. Clay Hershberger, quotation included in a statement to the author from Samuel L. Becker, Director of Television, State University of Iowa, dated February 18, 1957, p. 3.

⁶⁷ Browne, loc. cit.

5. The word "education" should be kept foremost in the minds of all universally educationalizing. Research has well established the fact that television should be an instrument of education and not the means of education, that educational television is successful in proportion to the knowledge, creative ability, and skill of its users. However, once television's role in education has been defined there remains the question as to the nature of its programming. In the early days of educational television there were a number of educators and educational broadcasters who felt that the educational station's programming should rival that of his commercial brother in that culture and information should entertain as well as educate⁶⁸--the educational "pill" should always be sugar-coated. With an over-emphasis on entertainment, the stations adopting this credo neither "bested" the commercial outlet at its job of entertaining nor satisfactorily performed its role in pedagogy. The more universally adopted philosophy of television programming has been expressed as follows:
 - a. Keep "education" in educational television.

⁶⁸ For definitions of "education" and "entertain" as applied to television programming, see Chapter I, pp. 11-12.

It is not at all wholly desirable that we learn all we can from commercial stations, but the danger is that consciously or unconsciously we will attempt to outdo them in their own business - that of entertaining the people at large.

Educational television should produce vital, interesting, meaningful programs whose purposes are educational in nature and which seek to improve the audience which it attracts.⁶⁹

5. The differences between educational and commercial broadcasting are vital and must not be obscured. There is the difference in technique--the one depends upon showmanship to command attention, the other upon concern of the listener to learn. There is the difference in measured achievement--the one counts eyes and ears, the other counts minds.

Once the lines are clear, the professor of broadcasting can help education borrow the applicable from the commercial field--and there is much to be borrowed for the enrichment and enlivening of the teaching process; but he does not confuse cultural recreation with education, attention-getting with learning, or audience-counting with educational measurement.⁷⁰

6. Educational television should serve as a public relations-informational service for the state university, letting the state's citizens know of the university's instructional, research, and

⁶⁹ Harry K. Newburn, former President of the University of Oregon, speaking as President of the Educational Television and Radio Center on the "Role of the State University in Educational Television," National Association of State Universities, Proceedings of: 1954, p. 67.

⁷⁰ Henry, op. cit., p. 320.

also carried activities as well as its
plans. It is interesting to note that in
 Blair Browne's ranking of possible uses of
 television in higher education, public relations
 is accorded fifth place by college and university
 administrators.⁷¹ Very possibly this may be due
 to the tendency to regard "direct promotion" and
 "public relations" as synonymous. Most institu-
 tions of higher learning do direct promotion;
 but, because of the undignified connotation of
 such action, they do it "indirectly." Conse-
 quently, many educators feel that television is
 well suited for this indirect type of public rela-
 tions.

As pointed out by Chancellor Robert B. House
 of the University of North Carolina, public re-
 lations for a state university has two principal
 purposes: (1) to create an emotional unity in
 the state--a feeling of tradition, of oneness
 and neighborliness; and (2) to create an intel-
 lectual unity in the state regarding the state-
 supported institution of higher learning--dis-
 covering, discussing, and seeking solutions to
 problems of "what we are, what we do, and why

⁷¹ Browne, loc. cit.

...it."72 Although most of the statements regarding the use of television for public relations have to do with the second of Chancellor House's purposes, a state university television service can be effective in the accomplishment of both. For example, President Willham stated that the third function of television at Oklahoma A. and M. College is to acquaint the public with the school and with its problems.73

The importance of television as a public relations medium was stressed by the Committee on Educational Television of the University of Chicago:

Television is a powerful public relations instrument for the University. One of the consequences of participation [in a community television station] would indeed be a strengthening of the relationship between the University and the Chicago community.74

Another statement pointing up the growing need for this important function was given by President J. H. Hilton.

72 Chancellor Robert B. House, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, "The Function of Public Relations in a State University," National Association of State Universities, Proceedings of: 1955, pp. 126-7.

73 Willham, loc. cit.

74 Committee on Educational Television, University of Chicago, "Television and the University," The School Review, 1953, p. 214.

If Iowa State College ignores the potential of television, it ignores one of the most dynamic devices known for expanding its educational resources. Likewise, it wastes billions of means of making higher education available and useful to those who have never worn a cap and gown but whose children will.⁷⁵

2. Can the state university has an obligation to help improve educational television, it should carry an experimentation concerning it is relevant. This tenet is agreed upon not only by the few who incorporate a need for this type of research into their statements of philosophy but by the countless others who feel that it is implicit in any statement that television is an important instrument for a state university's achievement of its traditional objectives. The belief in the obligation to help improve the medium is also an integral part of the philosophy of most educators from institutions having Colleges, Schools, or Departments of Communication or Communication Centers. However, despite its apparent importance, in Edwin Browne's eight possible uses of television, "a research emphasis" ranked seventh, and only thirty-two per cent (of the 148 replies) were

⁷⁵ Hiltner, op. cit., p. 39.

and finally, research at that time.⁷⁶

Typical of statements regarding the use of university television for research in the field is that of President Hilton:

The College [Iowa State] regards its television outlet as a center for developing programs or program technique for its own and other television stations and for the constant study and review of television audience habits, wants and needs.⁷⁷

A statement containing more detail as to the role of research in university television programs is that made by Dr. Donald Horton, Assistant Professor of Sociology at the University of Chicago and a member of that University's Committee on Educational Television.

We made the assumption that this kind of operation [educational television] must always and will always be experimental, creative, willing to produce turkeys, and willing to produce programs that will be controversial.

We also emphasized . . . that educational television will experiment with cumulative programming.⁷⁸

⁷⁶ Browne, op. cit. pp. 2A-3A.

⁷⁷ Hilton, op. cit., p. 3.

⁷⁸ Donald Horton, "The University of Chicago Report on Educational Television," Lincoln Lodge Seminar, ed. Burton Pauls (Urbana, Illinois: National Association of Educational Broadcasters, 1953), pp. 28-9.

Dr. Horton also pointed out that research
has shown that various phases of achievement
and development have importance to university
television.⁷⁹

2. State university television should be respon-
sible to its audience. While this concept is
implicit in the relationship between the state
university and the citizenry of the state,
this relationship does, nevertheless, become
an important factor in the type of facility
and the kind of programming of any state uni-
versity television operation. Members of the
audience for university television feel that,
to some degree, the facility and its product,
programming, are responsible to them. This
responsibility of the station to its audience
is unique with educational outlets. In talk-
ing about the relationship between the com-
munity television station and its audience,
Dr. Horton says:

It [the community station] rests upon
genuinely democratic foundation. The
institutions responsible for the station
and its work are responsible directly as
well as indirectly to the community that
supports them; and the audience of the

⁷⁹ Id. p. 80.

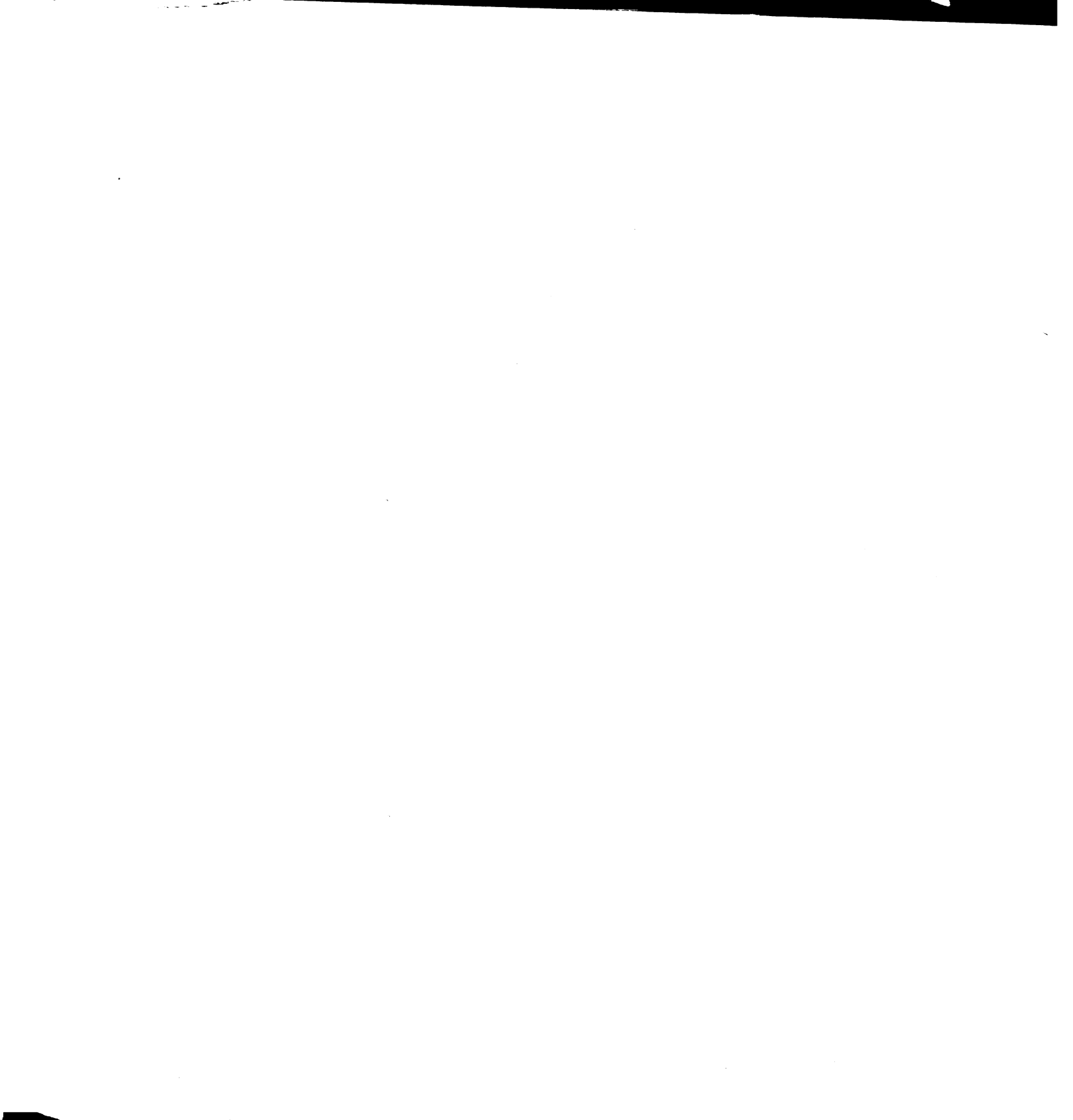
community station has rights with respect to the program and does not that are not limited to the right to approve or disapprove, and the right to turn the program off

The audience of the community station has other rights than these and much more significant ones: . . . the right to take part in the formulation of program policy . . . and the right to be given an accounting by those who serve as trustees of the enterprise.⁸⁰

Since the relationship is the same between the taxpayer and the television facility whether community or state-owned, Dr. Horton's concept of this relationship applies on both levels.

2. Since the values of television to a state university are in terms of relative numbers, depth of effect, selective listening rather than total numbers, extent, and passive listening, a state university should constantly measure its audience to ascertain the attainment of these values. One can never say that having a large audience for an educational program on television is not important; it is. But the questions with which the educator and educational broadcaster are faced, knowing that they cannot expect to compete for the majority audience on a program-by-program basis, are just what size of audience they may expect and the

⁸⁰ Ibid., p. 23.



the time of the point beyond which the law of diminishing returns sets in.

Except for those who believe that the mission of a commercial station is the creation of a first-class audience for education, educationists have come to feel pretty much as Lowell Watts, Director of Information Services at Colorado State University:

In my personal opinion, ETV stations will never provide top audience ratings. They will serve a limited audience in a manner not possible by a commercial station and by so doing will contribute to the learning of many persons.⁸¹

A realistic view of the problem, the audience will not be large but larger than educational institutions have ever had before, is shared by most educators.

The audience should be large enough and serious enough to justify the service by an educational agency. The audience may be pre-school, in-school, or adult, and is not likely to be large (although it is larger by far than that with which any school agency has heretofore dealt)--but it is an audience that accepts the educational mission of the program and does not have to be enticed to listen by gadgetry or lured to participate by program language.⁸²

⁸¹ Lowell Watts, Director of Information Service, Colorado State University, in a statement to the author dated April 5, 1957.

⁸² Henry, loc. cit.

... the importance of what the audience is, and the importance of the members of that audience, and the cumulative effect of the program upon that audience was stressed. The program was part of the Lincoln Day Seminar sponsored by the National Association of Educational Broadcasters.

4. As professionals in the field of educational communication we recognize a more serious responsibility than getting big audiences and maintaining our gifts or our positions I suppose that if there's anything modern communications research has emphasized it is that social contact depends more on the pivotal position of an audience than on its size

It may be that educational broadcasting should aim at serving the public by giving special service to those whom the public takes with particular seriousness. That is, the aim of some programs may be to build up a listening or viewing audience of opinion moulders. There is no need to say that other people are not welcome to listen in, and of course that would not be true. But the main point would be to make important material accessible to the most active and influential leaders. (This, by the way, was the principal technique that our broadcasters cultivated during the War. Although one was nominally talking to the whole enemy audience, the chief targets were often a thousand or even a smaller number of decision and morale makers. In the name of a very large audience it is often wise to aim at a very small audience in fact.)⁸³

⁸³ Lasswell, op. cit., pp. 3-2.

1. I am making the point here that viewing television need be neither passive nor limited. A fair trial of experience is possible. It can involve the most active kind of listening and viewing. It can move its viewers in the direction of a more "direct" experience. It can, therefore, be the key element in learning.⁸⁴

2. The right is clearly should not be on the basis of audience but on cumulative effect, and not on the effect of individual programs, but on changes and developments in the audience over some considerable period of time

In the assumption of the long-term continuity of the operation, the cultivation of a following would be an important thing to look for. This would suggest that, in addition to the usual measurement of size of audience, we would need some measurement of intensity of interest in and devotion to the work of the station.⁸⁵

As mentioned earlier in the section,⁸⁶ several educators have spoken out against the use of educational television in their particular institutions. For the most part, this opposition has followed a general pattern--a lack of funds. The blame for monetary difficulties has been chiefly placed with antipathy on the part of the state legislature. Looking further into this lack of funds for television, one state university

⁸⁴ Elmer Dale, "Television and Other Media," Lincoln Public Seminar ed. Horton Fula (Urbana, Illinois: National Association of Educational Broadcasters, 1953), p. 34.

⁸⁵ Horton, op. cit., pp. 29-30.

⁸⁶ Page 273 of this chapter.

expressed a willingness or inability to involve itself "for a university extension" where it was possible to reach an eighty per cent reduction in cost for . . . (the philosophy regarding television and its role in this institution may ultimately be rather easily interpreted from this statement.)

Other reasons for a university's inactivity in television can usually be attributed to an administrator's lack of information on the value of the medium and the limitless possibilities open for its use. (For example, a cause given by one administrator was that the state was too sparsely populated.)

In summary, there seems to be a great deal of uncertainty and confusion regarding the philosophy and role of television in a state university, although establishing a true rank order for the interests of philosophy would be desirable.⁸⁷

⁸⁷ Elia Irene was able to obtain a ranking for his "right possible uses of television in higher education" because of his questioning, or directive approach. However, in the author's perceptive, non-directive query, two of Mr. Irene's "uses" were not mentioned, (1) a sociological one in--teaching students to understand the role of television in society and to become intelligent viewers of programs and (2) sports broadcasting. This omission would indicate that the use of television by a state university were not foremost in the minds of the respondents.

C. As Represented by the Opinions of Educational Broadcasters

The philosophy and role of television in a state university as revealed through the opinions of educational broadcasters contains eight major tenets. These will be brought forth from an analysis of the following materials: (1) statements by educational broadcasters appearing in books and periodicals; and (2) written and oral statements given by educational broadcasters in response to a request from or an interview with the author.⁸⁸

The educational broadcaster is, of course, most enthusiastic about the use of television to help the state university attain its objectives and fulfill its role in modern society. An especially succinct statement of the educators' views with regard to the educational uses of television was given by the Committee on the Social Role and Significance of the Educational Television Station at the Lincoln Lodge Seminar conducted by the National Association of Educational Broadcasters in 1953.

Communication remains man's supreme achievement. His progress depends upon his ability to transfer to others what he has seen, thought, and believed.

With its combination of sight and sound, television is the most powerful communications instrument in existence for strengthening a common image of the values of American free society. Therefore, the educational television station has an important

⁸⁸ Appendix E contains a list of source materials for this section.

responsibility in the task of assuring maximum progress for all men and of helping develop the well-informed and responsible citizenry so necessary for the security of our free society.⁸⁹

Realizing the educational potential of the television medium, the state university educator and educator have come to accept the traditional goals of all higher education as basic to and inherent in their philosophy of state university television activity. Consequently, they seldom include a mere statement of these goals without elaboration--electing, instead, to develop them much more thoroughly and tangibly. It is interesting to note, however, that over half of those who, in some form, mentioned "television's goals" gave extension or service as an objective in place of conservation of knowledge.

1. Television is a tool with which a state university is able to do an educational job such as:
 - a. on-campus instruction. The educational broadcaster usually sees on-campus instruction through closed-circuit television as the first step toward the attainment of studios, recording facilities, and finally a station. In addition to helping in classroom and teacher shortages, the educator feels that

⁸⁹ Committee on the Social Role and Significance of the ETV Station, Lincoln Lodge Seminar, Proceedings of: ed. Burton Paulu (Urbana, Illinois: National Association of Educational Broadcasters, 1953), p. 78.

in closed-circuit television the administration, faculty, students, and possibly the whole state will see the value of educational television and become more interested in its development locally. Furthermore, he feels that closed-circuit television gives an adequate opportunity to begin training a staff and students for a busier schedule and more elaborate productions when they are actually "on the air." 90

With regard to open-circuit, on-campus instruction, while this method of teaching has been practiced for over four years at the University of Houston, it has seldom been used in state universities. A notable exception to this is the Oregon State System of Higher Education in which the University of Oregon and Oregon State College have participated in several series of inter-institutional

⁹⁰This opinion was advanced in a number of interviews with and letters to the author. Among those most articulate on the subject were Allen Miller, Professor of Journalism and Speech at the State College of Washington, and Glen Starlin, Director of Radio and Television at the University of Oregon. This opinion was also expressed in a published work, This Is Educational Television, in an indirect quotation from Dr. Armand L. Hunter of Michigan State University.

Wm. Kenneth Cumming, This Is Educational Television (Ann Arbor, Michigan: Edwards Brothers, Inc., 1954), p. 84.

teaching projects which have been sponsored by the Fund for the Advancement of Education.

The comparative lack of activity in open-circuit, on-campus instruction does not mean that educational broadcasters are against such a program; quite the contrary, their philosophy always expresses a desire to use this form of telecasting whenever needed. The educational broadcaster simply uses the least expensive way of doing a particular educational job with television; since, to date, the need for open-circuit is not great, it has not been extensively utilized.

- b. enrichment of teaching and supplementing the curriculum in elementary and secondary schools as well as in higher education.
- The desirability of this television activity is mentioned in the great majority of educational broadcasters' philosophies. The legal obligation to cooperate with other educational agencies and systems may be, of course, the determining factor. However, in only one instance did the broadcaster mention that such cooperation was largely due to the legal requirement and indicate that, as a state

university, his institution was primarily concerned with cultural, educational, and service programming for adults.

This interest in working with other educational agencies has, in a number of cases, brought about the formation of joint advisory committees between the university and the local public school system or the state office of public instruction. This pattern of development is to be expected in a state university which is a participant in a form of state-wide television network but is even more laudable in cases where the state-supported institutions of higher learning are programming their own station and securing commercial station support to obtain state-wide coverage for some in-school programming.⁹¹

It is also noteworthy that several state universities which are producing only one or two series per semester are designing part of those series to meet the needs of the elementary and secondary schools within their coverage area.

⁹¹ For example, the in-school programming conducted by The Consolidated University of North Carolina during the 1957-58 and 1958-59 school years.

c. adult and continuing education. This tenet involves direct education usually as an arm of the university's extension division. While the obligation to do extension education has been most heavily felt in the land-grant institutions, the extension picture of the mid-twentieth-century state university is very similar, except for the usual difference in emphasis of subject-matter areas.

While all educational broadcasters affiliated with state universities emphasize their duty in formal adult and continuing education, this obligation is even more strongly felt, for example, by the television personnel at the University of Georgia, where the University's television activity is organized under the Georgia Center for Continuing Education.

It is vital to the Georgia Center that we interest the adult in continuing education through television and not restrict our audience to those who would seek out learning regardless of the form of presentation.⁹²

Additional emphasis on adult and continuing education has been most strongly recommended by Richard

⁹² Statement by Gerald L. Appy, Associate Director, Communications Services, Georgia Center for Continuing Education, University of Georgia, received by the author April 7, 1957.

B. Hull of Ohio State University in ETV In The U. S., a status report--1957.

It is true enough that all institutions on all levels of education have demands already defined which are heavy and hard to meet. However, the growing and inevitable need for an adequate program of adult and continuing education one day may force these institutions to re-examine a position which, if left unchanged in an expanding world, will remain so more by default than by logic or need and perhaps ultimately to their serious disadvantage.⁹³

- d. post-professional and in-service education. While the in-roads in this activity have been made largely in the area of teacher training,⁹⁴ the educational broadcaster feels that, aided by the important work being done by closed-circuit television in medical and dental colleges, greater use will be made of open-circuit, in-service short courses, as the acceptance and advisability for them is recognized by the educators and the public. Most broadcasters are in favor of a state university offering this

⁹³ Richard B. Hull, ETV In The U. S.: status report--1957 (Columbus, Ohio: ETRC--Fund for Adult Education, 1957), p. 44.

⁹⁴ Iowa State College and the University of Washington pioneered, very successfully, in in-service teacher training courses to assist in improving teaching, in helping teachers renew certification, and in finishing degree work. A number of other state universities are meeting this need by television including the University of Florida and the University of Minnesota.

type of educational service and will develop it as the demand increases.

- e. general service programs to people of all ages. These programs have educational value but may be characterized as less academic in purpose and format than those which are classified as educational. When considering the role of television in a state university, the educational broadcaster always feels the necessity for the production of general service, or enrichment-type, television activities. It is interesting to note that some educators, who had originally planned a "formula" to obtain a balance between telecourse and general service offerings, have had to settle for additional service programming due to difficulties in arranging university credit.⁹⁵

Typical of the broadcaster's feeling with regard to program types is the following statement from Graydon Ausmus, Director of Broadcasting Services at the University of Alabama: "Programs should be designed for specific interest of a specific group at a given time rather than for 'all the

⁹⁵ This difficulty has, obviously, been greatest in the South.

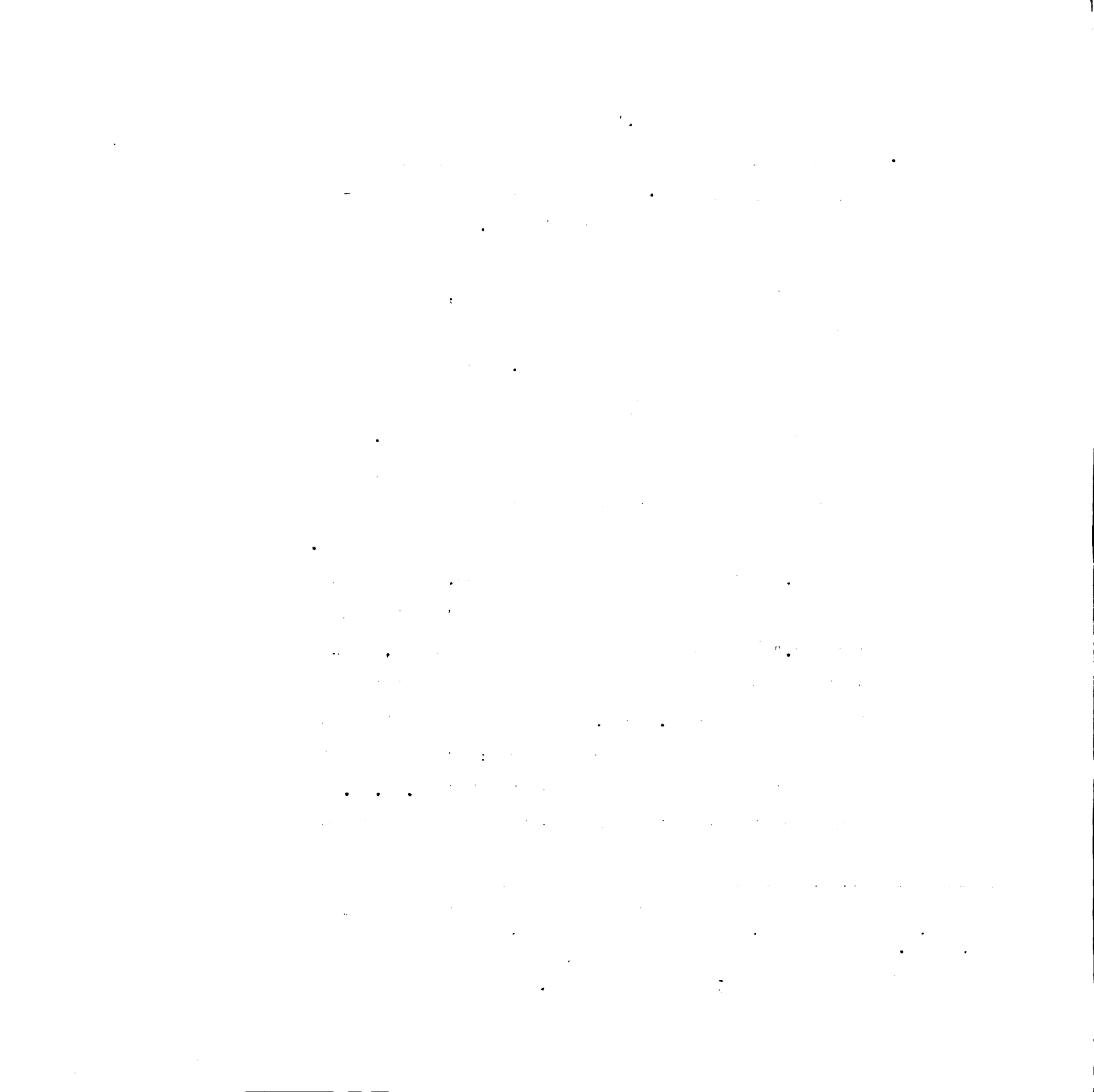
people all of the time.' #96

- f. public relations and informational service about all public education. Here again, as with enriching and supplementing the curriculum, the state university educational broadcaster is more concerned with higher education and adults, he is morally obligated to perform a public relations function for all public education. Actually the very programming he broadcasts on the elementary and secondary levels does much of this for him.

The educator feels that the importance of the public relations and informational function of state university television cannot be over-estimated. However, as in the case of the educator, the broadcaster seems to shy away from the term "public relations." #97 In referring to public relations, educational broadcasters have made statements similar to that of Robert L. Crom, Director of Communications at North Dakota Agricultural College: "Television is a tool with which to do an educational job . . . [such as] interpreting the function and place of our

96 Statement regarding philosophy of educational television, Graydon Ausmus, University of Alabama, dated February 12, 1957.

97 See pages 288-9 of this Chapter.



College in the community and society."⁹⁸

One of the strongest statements pointing up this public relations function of all educational television comes from Richard B. Hull's ETV in the U. S.:

These schools and universities have the task of shaping and interpreting-- as well as being a part of--the society which supports them and whose survival they in turn must secure.⁹⁹

2. A state university television facility should attempt to equalize educational opportunity at all levels. In some ways this tenet is closely allied to the "enriching and supplementing of the curriculum," which was part b of the tenet just set forth.¹⁰⁰ Courses offered over television requiring teachers with special training or expensive equipment make the most remote schoolroom equal to the one most heavily endowed. On the level of higher education, the offering of cultural and educational advantages by means of television removes many of the barriers to equal educational opportunities caused by age, sex, race, creed, economic status, and the distance one lives from the institution of higher

⁹⁸ Robert L. Crom, North Dakota Agricultural College, in a statement to the author dated March 7, 1957.

⁹⁹ Hull, loc. cit.

¹⁰⁰ See tenet 1b, pp. 301-2.

learning.

Approximately one-third of the educational broadcasters have expressed the view that state university television should be offering the first two years of college, the general college curriculum. However, none of them have stated that a complete general college curriculum should be offered at any one time, since this would involve almost the entire programming of the educational station.

Typical of the educational broadcasters' views regarding equalizing educational opportunity through television was the opinion expressed by Richard B. Hull in an interview with the author. Mr. Hull stated that he felt it was the state-supported university's duty to offer the first two years of college by television, in addition to other courses, both in a closed-circuit situation and on an open-circuit.¹⁰¹

A similar feeling was expressed by Earl Wynn, Director of the Communication Center of The Consolidated University of North Carolina. Mr. Wynn said:

More equal educational opportunity achieved through television is highly desirable; however, in almost every case (with the excep-

¹⁰¹ Richard B. Hull, Director of Broadcasting, Ohio State University, in an interview with the author, March 18, 1957.

tions of the sciences and math), the first telecourses to be offered have been on the periphery and not the core.¹⁰²

There are several possible explanations for this phenomenon, but it is not necessary to go into them at this time.

3. Television should be regarded as an integral part of the institution's educational facilities and offerings. This tenet implies that the state university television facility should find its home in the academic, administrative, and service structure of the state university and not be an appendage which can be easily chopped off without the moral or financial support of the institution. The educational television operation which depends on yearly drives to subsist or upon its popularity with the legislative appropriations committee stands on precarious footing with regard to its programming, its staff, and its very life--certainly not a desirable atmosphere conducive to the best growth of the facility.

The importance of the relationship between the television activity and the educational program of the university was stressed by Dr. Armand L. Hunter, Director of Television Development, and James H. Denison, Administra-

¹⁰² Earl R. Wynn, Director, Communication Center, The Consolidated University of North Carolina, in an interview with the author, March 21, 1957.

tive Assistant to the President, of Michigan State University at a meeting of the Southern Regional Educational Board held in Atlanta in 1953.

We consider it important to repeat that television will not be accepted as it should be accepted unless it is depicted as a normal development of our educational process and integrated into ongoing educational programs. To set a television project up as something separate and apart from the rest of the educational system, as a competitor of the teacher, as a rival for educational funds, as an interesting gadget, would be to doom it to failure. The ardent advocates of television as the grant medium it undoubtedly is should offer their services humbly and cooperatively to those who teach and do research.

Supplement, not supplant, must be our motto.¹⁰³

Actually educational broadcasters mention this particular tenet only infrequently in written statements of their philosophy of state university television. This may be due to the fact that most of them would hasten to include a group of qualifying phrases immediately following the tenet. This use of "qualifiers" or "extenuating circumstances" becomes most clear in discussing, with any educational broadcaster, the relationship between the facility and the university.

¹⁰³ Dr. Hunter and Mr. Denison were quoted by William Kenneth Cumming, This Is Educational Television (Ann Arbor: Edwards Brothers, Inc., 1954), p. 199.

A typical qualifying statement would include the fact that some educational broadcasters feel that the only way television will become an integral part of their state university's program is by the university's having such a facility long enough for the staff and the people of the state to see the value in such an operation. The only way to gain this "toe-hold" is to solicit, to seek out grants, and to depend on the munificence of the legislature--"a gamble but worth the risk" would summarize the attitude. This action would, however, in no way belie the value of the ideal, the facility and its offerings as an integral part of the university's program.

One of the few educational broadcasters to give written vent to the importance of a well-defined, integral relationship between the television facility and the university is Garnet Garrison, Director of Television at the University of Michigan.

I must confess that I am disturbed by the possibility that although honest efforts are being made by well-meaning civic and educational leaders, there are some danger signals ahead for these [single institutions or community group] stations which, if ignored, may lead to some disasters for the "cause" of educational television.

One danger signal is the hat-in-hand approach of going to the general public with yearly drives for operational expenses. Reliance upon this for major support is precarious and short-sighted. What would happen if public libraries, public schools, who exist

to serve all, were dependent upon yearly contributions by the public?¹⁰⁴

4. Because educational television should, ideally, reach all sections of the state, a state educational television network should be in existence. This tenet is, as it states, the expression of an ideal. It is true, nevertheless, that some educational broadcasters feel that, unless such a network is also operated under "ideal" conditions the university would receive greater benefit from programming a single state university-owned station.

State university educational broadcasters would say as a body that they should provide services to the entire state and that, ideally, these services should be in like amount. However, unless the state is small enough that one television station can provide blanket coverage or unless a state-wide educational television network is formed, there will always be differences in the amount and variety of coverage. Educational broadcasters would also agree that each citizen should receive some value from the money spent on television activity; consequently, some plan for "bicycling" kinescopes, film, and tape or for the relaying of telecasts should be de-

¹⁰⁴ Garnet R. Garrison, University of Michigan (Untitled address before the American Medical Association's Conference on Television, Chicago, Illinois, February 5, 1955), p. 4. (Mimeographed.)

vised, a system which would assure the university of state-wide coverage for at least a portion of its programming.

One must realize that movements culminating in the establishment of a state educational television network do not usually come from a state-wide "grass-roots" uprising. To date the impetus has begun with a state board of education, a state board of higher education, or a state university. Such movements have not suddenly sprung into activity without careful planning and "leg work" on the part of educators and/or educational broadcasters.

Another important element in the creation of a state-wide network is the readiness of the area involved, the laying and the cultivation of the proper groundwork. For example, after considerable study and testimony, a committee of the Ohio Legislature turned down a proposal for a state-wide network late in 1954. Since that time a UHF outlet, WOSU-TV at Ohio State University, has begun its programming and two others are expected to be on the air within the next few months. Miami University, a private college in Oxford, Ohio, and the City of Toledo will begin operation of WMUB-TV and WGTE-TV by Fall, 1959. During most of the intervening period it was felt that Ohio State was the only institution vitally interested in

the establishment of a network;¹⁰⁵ however, early in 1959, plans were again under way to link nine existing or proposed Ohio educational television outlets by a microwave relay system.¹⁰⁶ It would appear that this time the plans will come into fruition.

5. A state university should prepare personnel for the fields of commercial and educational television. Instruction is not only one of the traditional goals of all higher education, it is considered by educational broadcasters as the most important goal. Consequently, almost all educational broadcasters make reference to instruction in the medium of television as one of two ways in which a state university may fulfill its obligation to transmit knowledge; the other is, of course, by using television as a medium to convey instruction.

Samuel L. Becker, Director of Television at the State University of Iowa, phrased his concept of a university's obligation to teach as follows:

The University has three functions: teaching, research, and service. I believe that the goals of television in a University are the same and that their importance descends in that order. Our primary job here is pedagogy. This takes two avenues, insofar as television is concerned: (1) We need to train educated

¹⁰⁵ Richard B. Hull, loc. cit.

¹⁰⁶ "Ohio Plans ETV Network," Broadcasting, February 9, 1959, pp. 42-4.

people for and inform educated people about television. (2) We need to make this tool available for more effective and efficient instruction in other areas in the University.¹⁰⁷

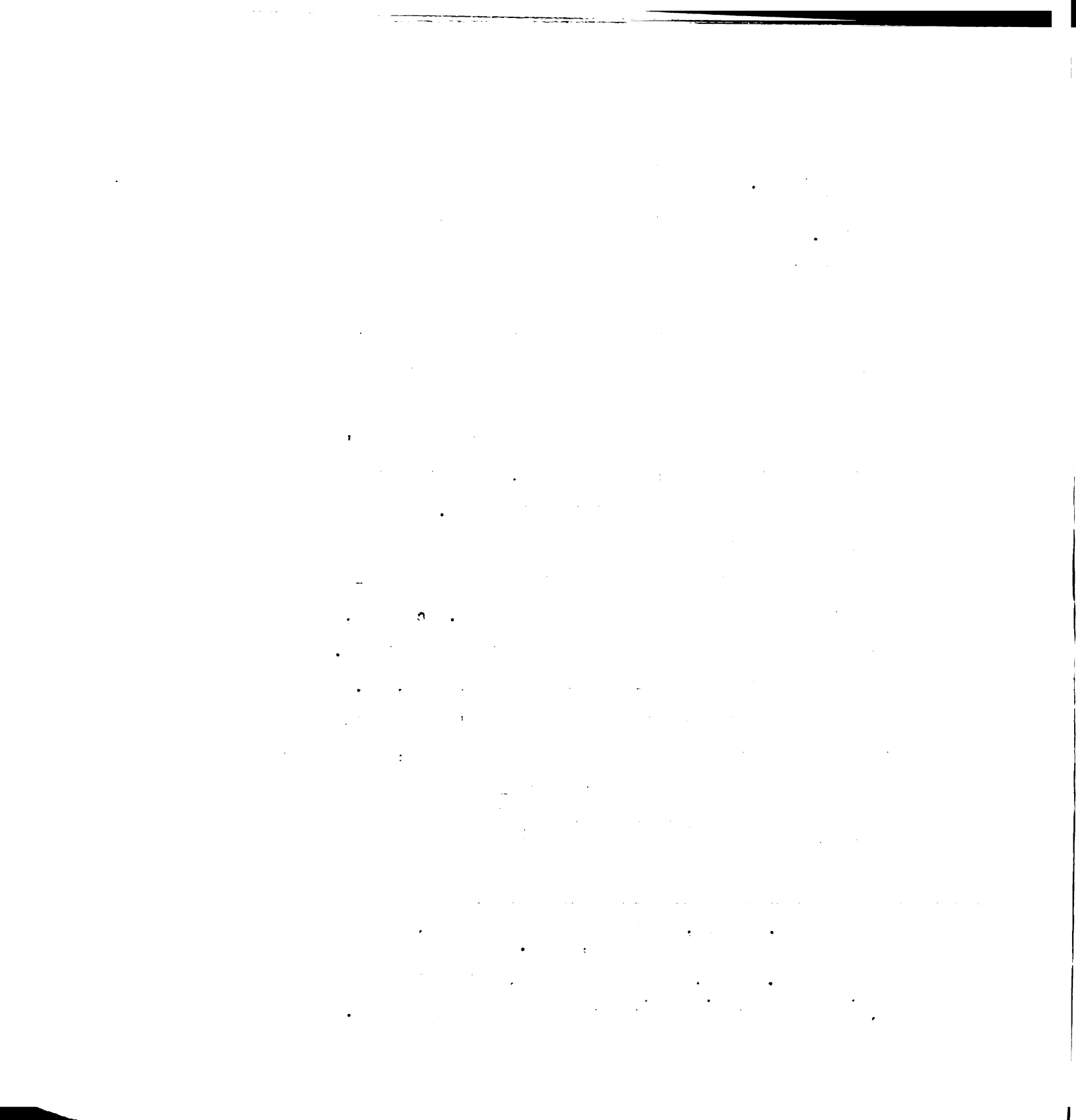
It is interesting to note that this obligation to train students in the use of the medium is seen as the most important state university television activity in sparsely populated states where the university is not hampered by crowded conditions on its campus or where no classroom and teacher shortages exist in the state's public education system: for example, the University of South Dakota and West Virginia University.¹⁰⁸

A slightly different twist to the reason for a state university involving itself in a television instructional program was advanced by Frank E. Schooley, Director of Broadcasting at the University of Illinois. At the dedication of WILL-TV on January 25, 1956, Mr. Schooley linked instruction to the station's responsibility to the citizens of the State when he said:

What do we hope to do with WILL-TV? How do we expect to earn and keep the respect and support of Illinois citizens? I think there are three ways we can attain the

¹⁰⁷ Samuel L. Becker, State University of Iowa, in a letter to the author dated February 28, 1957.

¹⁰⁸ Edward J. Slack, Director of KUSD, University of South Dakota, and Perley I. Reed, Director of the School of Journalism, West Virginia University in letters to the author.



goals.
Thirdly, by the training of personnel....
both undergraduate students in our School
of Journalism and Communications.... and
graduate students who seek advanced know-
ledge in use of the medium.¹⁰⁹

If funds cannot be allocated for the establishment of a station, most educational broadcasters emphasize the importance of obtaining closed-circuit facilities which can be used for the student training program. George R. Batke, of the University of Maryland, expressed this point of view when he said:

A closed-circuit system was our first request and proposal as a starting point.
. . . . With the installation of a closed-circuit system, it was felt that excellent training of the telecasting personnel to supply stations and networks would be accomplished.¹¹⁰

The educational broadcasters, as the educators, view the student instruction program in one of three ways: (1) with an emphasis on a general cultural program, (2) on the achievement of certain technical accomplishments or skill, or (3) as a balance between these two types of programs. The educasters associated with a state

¹⁰⁹ Frank E. Schooley, Director of Broadcasting, University of Illinois, "Opening Remarks at WILL-TV Dedication," January 25, 1956. (Mimeographed.)

¹¹⁰ George F. Batke, Director of Radio and Television, University of Maryland, in a letter to the author dated April 7, 1957.

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university or land-grant college always emphasize the importance of a thorough and comprehensive background in the liberal arts; but their opinions do vary with regard to the number of "skill" courses and the amount and kind of laboratory work that should be required in the program.

The importance of the comprehensive background has been aptly expressed by Dr. Wilbur Schramm:

Schools training mass communications personnel are not best used when they train students for the first six months of their employment, they should rather prepare their graduates for the years that follow the first six months: not in the skill which enable the young employee to do well at first, but rather in the understandings which enable him to do well throughout his career. The schools should aim for the long, not the short term; for on his job the new man can much more easily learn the skills of his job than he can learn to understand human beings, social organization, government, economics and science.¹¹¹

Dr. Leo Martin, Director of the Television, Radio, and Film Department of Michigan State University has pointed out that there has been a nation-wide trend, in college television programs, away from the over-emphasis on skills; however, the need for certain basic technical accomplishments, in order to understand prob-

¹¹¹ Wilbur Schramm, Responsibility in Mass Communication (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1957), p. 362.

less in writing, production, and programming, still occupies far too much time in the average college curriculum.¹¹² The importance of the mastery of certain technical skills has been emphasized by some educational broadcasters, including Dr. Edward C. Lambert of the University of Missouri¹¹³ and Allen Miller of the State College of Washington.¹¹⁴

6. State university television should be responsible to its audience. What does "responsible to its audience" really mean to the educational broadcaster? Does it mean more than the legal obligation which makes any state-supported activity responsible to the citizens under whose charter it operates and from whose taxes it receives its financing? The educational broadcaster's answers to these questions cannot be given in short concise statements. In the first place, the

¹¹² Dr. Martin is arguing the case for the extension of television training down into the secondary schools so that more advanced work can be done in college and university programs, with an emphasis on creativity and high professional standards.

Leo Martin, "Professionally Trained Personnel," The NAEB Journal, Vol. 18, No. 2, November 1958, pp. 8-9, 36-7.

¹¹³ Edward C. Lambert, Assistant to the President in Charge of Television, University of Missouri, in an interview with the author April 3, 1957.

¹¹⁴ Allen Miller, Professor of Journalism and Speech, The State College of Washington, in a letter to the author dated February 26, 1957.

broadcaster feels a moral obligation to the audience, one which may actually stem from the legal responsibility. He may feel an even deeper obligation in some states because it was through the active support of the citizenry, especially the business, community, and educational leaders, that the television facility was originally established or through which it is receiving aid in supplementing its legislative appropriation.

For example, in a state such as Alabama, it is extremely doubtful that the legislature would have been moved to establish a state-wide television network if it had not been for a citizen's committee, from various public service and educational agencies, who aroused the State's citizens to the need for such a network.¹¹⁵ In North Carolina a Governor's Commission on Educational Radio and Television, functioning since 1952 with members from all sections of the State, has helped encourage and support the activities of WUNC-TV both with the State's legislature and with the lay citizenry.¹¹⁶

The state university educational broadcaster gives evidence of his obligation to the people by establishing

¹¹⁵ Graydon Ausmus, University of Alabama, in an interview with the author March 27, 1957.

¹¹⁶ Earl Wynn, Director of the Communication Center, The Consolidated University of North Carolina, in an interview with the author May 9, 1957.



the type and quality of television activity which is best suited to meet the cultural and educational needs of the state and the financial backing that the state is willing or able to provide.

A second way in which evidence of this obligation is manifested is by the educator's attempt to determine the needs of the people of the area and to design programming to meet these needs. Graydon Ausmus, Director of Broadcasting Services at the University of Alabama, has aptly expressed this obligation of educational broadcasters, pointing out, further, that these needs must be met for all educational levels and economic strata.

An educational television operation within a given area or state will contribute to the lives of the people of that area in direct ratio to the intelligent application of available resources toward solution of problems and meeting needs of the people of that area. It is incumbent upon those responsible for determination of program to analyze and categorize the problems and needs of the area which is served by the outlets, listing them, in so far as possible, in the order of importance and immediacy. This same list, whether actual or imaginary, should be matched, item for item, against a list of available resources within the institution and community. Then, in so far as is possible, series of programs should be designed to serve the greatest number of people. A well-balanced program schedule, however, will be based on the interest of a wide range of people rather than upon a given educational level or economic strata of peoples.¹¹⁷

¹¹⁷ Graydon Ausmus, University of Alabama, in a statement to the author dated February 12, 1957.

A third way in which the educational broadcaster demonstrates his sense of responsibility to the citizenry is through his attempt to provide the state with the best service possible for the amount of financing which can be arranged, always with an eye to the expansion of service and/or the raising of program quality.

While there can be no limit imposed on the educational broadcaster's "responsibility" to his audience, there is, as there would have to be, a limitation on the scope of citizens' activity in a university's television program. Many educational broadcasters create a rather fine line of distinction between where the state university television activity's responsibility to the audience ends and where the audience's treading on the responsibility of the educator begins. In a number of cases it has been pointed out that advisory councils or committees should involve themselves with policy matters exclusively and not tamper with content and production problems. William K. Cumming summarized his observations with regard to citizen activity as follows:

There are, therefore, both TV people who are in favor of TV committees and others who are opposed to them. In most cases, seemingly, an institutional committee should be concerned directly with plans for establishment of a TV operation but, after the operation is functioning, should be more of an advisory group. It should be regarded as a group that can be called on for advice and help rather than one that imposes its beliefs on the TV operation; it should make suggestions on policy and take some overall view of

content; but it should not dabble in methods of production and specifics of content as they are adapted to the television medium.¹¹⁸

While Dr. Cumming's volume was published in 1954, the author found this same attitude to be prevalent four years later.

7. A state university should constantly be involved in three major types of television research. Research is one of the three goals of all higher education, the creation of new knowledge; and educational broadcasters feel that it should play an important part in any state university's television activity. For example, Dr. Samuel L. Becker of the State University of Iowa gives research as the secondary goal of television in a state university [the primary being instruction]. "Our job is the expansion of knowledge about this medium and the way it interacts with the population."¹¹⁹

The ranking of research as the second most important university use of television does, however, meet with opposition from some educational broadcasters who

¹¹⁸ William Kenneth Cumming, This Is Educational Television (Ann Arbor: Edwards Brothers, Inc., 1954), p. 197.

¹¹⁹ Samuel L. Becker in a letter to the author dated February 28, 1957.

feel that it should rank third, after the development of educational and cultural programs.¹²⁰

The ranking of research with the basic goals, however, is not the only reason for its position in the philosophy of the educational broadcaster, for it is through research in all phases of the medium that television may be improved and used to its best advantage.

- a. Research in the technical phases of television. Research in communication engineering is important to the advancement of the commercial phases of the industry as well as the educational. Technicians are constantly working to perfect a television signal which can be sent greater distances with increased clarity and less interference; experiments are still being conducted to discover a less expensive television receiver with greater portability and a much larger screen. Through the years, a great many of the advances in the field of electronics have occurred on a university campus; the educational broadcaster feels that it is essential that technological advances in a medium which can mean so much to the

¹²⁰ This opinion was expressed most clearly by Myron M. Curry, Director of KFJM of the University of North Dakota in a letter to the author dated March 22, 1957.

cultural, educational, and recreational development of the world be undertaken under the aegis of a publicly-supported university.

- b. Research in new and better ideas of television production and programming. Research into ways in which the quality of television programming, itself, may be improved is emphasized by most educational broadcasters. This is usually phrased in the educator's philosophy of television as a state university's need "to do much imaginative programming and experimentation"¹²¹ or "to adopt largely experimental production techniques to the achievement of our goals."¹²² Some broadcasters stress the importance of a systematic search for new and imaginative program types not only by members of the university's staff but through an emphasis on creativity in the student training program.

To the educational broadcaster this search for new ideas and techniques involves far more than the creating of original program ideas, it includes

¹²¹ Edward Wegener, Director of Educational Television, Auburn Polytechnic Institute, in a statement dated March 7, 1957.

¹²² Gerald L. Appy, Associate Director, Communications Services, University of Georgia, in a statement dated April 7, 1957.

experimenting with new techniques for staging, lighting, setting, costuming, and directing--in other words, university research should include all aspects of production which would improve instructional, cultural, or entertainment programming on television.

- c. Research into the television audience. To date most audience research has dealt with two aspects of the medium--a "head-count," or routine polling technique, projected on some formula to give the size of the audience or a survey showing the socio-psychological characteristics of audience members. While educational broadcasters are willing to say that this type of information is important, they feel that studies assessing values of television programming such as relative numbers, the depth of effect, and active listening would be of greater import to their work. In other words, research in university television should deal not only with the number of individual audience members affected but with the resulting social consequences to individuals and to the group.¹²³ Audience size, therefore, is

¹²³ Joseph T. Klapper, "Studying Effects of Mass Communication," Communication and the Communication Arts (New York: Bureau of Publications, Columbia University, 1955), pp. 95-7.

important to the educational broadcaster (despite any rumors to the contrary), since what effect a program does have may be multiplied, along with the resulting social consequences.

All educational broadcasters realize that with educational television they will never achieve top audience ratings over sustained periods of the broadcast day but, as a rule, will serve a limited audience which has turned to their programming to satisfy a particular need. The educational broadcaster realizes further that, in all programming other than in-school telecasts, he is not dealing with the captive audience of the classroom teacher; this, he feels, should not operate as a severe handicap, for education and culture does not need to be boring --the choice of teacher and the method of presentation are his controls over dullness.

To summarize, back in 1952 Dr. Armand L. Hunter said that the educational broadcaster must seek "to know and understand the people whom the medium serves."¹²⁴ That is one job

¹²⁴Armand L. Hunter, Michigan State University, *Education on the Air*, ed. O. Joe Olson (Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University Press, 1952), p. 24.

for research. But along with knowing one's audience comes the additional research task of being sure that you are doing an educational and cultural job for that audience. This requires a feedback of information regarding the reception of programming, a feedback of effects of the television medium upon public attitudes and behavior. The educational broadcaster feels that this type of research, granted it is difficult to conduct, is most essential to and should be a part of the educational institutions' television activity.

8. The word "education" should be kept foremost in the programming of state university educational television. In his interpretation of this tenet of philosophy, the educational broadcaster is not referring to the "pedantic dullness" which may characterize education to the commercial broadcaster but to placing the attainment of educational values above the necessity to entertain or to create a large audience through appeals to the masses. The job of educational television is to do direct teaching, to inform,

and to enlighten. Unless it performs these duties, the term "educational television" is actually a misnomer.¹²⁵

As it has been said before, the educational broadcaster is not, or should not be, using his appeal to a minority group as an excuse for a small audience. In his 1957 survey of educational television stations, Richard B. Hull sometimes found small audiences rationalized because of a failure to do sufficient quality programming.

Most stations directed broadcast service at minority audiences, a philosophy sometimes stated as a rationale for failure to attract more viewers, sometimes as a deliberate policy.¹²⁶

The majority of educational broadcasters feel that education, of itself, cannot be used as an "excuse" for pitifully small audiences. They realize that: (1) the medium of television, itself, is sufficiently appealing to draw an audience; (2) a well-prepared imaginatively presented

¹²⁵ Armand L. Hunter, "Television Must Educate," in William Hodapp, The Television Manual (New York: Farrar, Straus, and Young, 1953), p. 225.

¹²⁶ Richard B. Hull, ETV in the U. S.: Status Report --1957 (Columbus, Ohio: Fund for Adult Education-NAEB, 1957), p. 12.

television lesson can teach; (3) the classrooms of truly great teachers have never lacked students and there is an ever-increasing need for continuing and supplemental education; and (4) people are turning in greater and greater numbers to more years of education and a life-long process of both formal and informal learning.

The educational broadcaster, however, does not feel that he must resign himself to the lecture, the panel, and the forum, the standard presentation methods of education; the broadcaster's range of presentation is as varied as the types of programming and their possible combinations. The only restraint with regard to the selection of program types is the broadcaster's knowledge that the primary purpose must always be to convey information; consequently, he is searching for the best showcase for a particular message--a format that will pique and sustain the interest of the particular audience for whom it was intended, convey the message with the greatest clarity, and aid in the retention of the material presented. Dr. Hunter has explained the state university broadcaster's obligation to

education as follows:

the content or materials of the program must be of some value or significance. It must make a contribution to the viewer or consumer. It must improve his store of knowledge as well as increase it, raise his level of taste as well as satisfy it, extend his understanding as well as meet it, and clarify his judgment as well as require it.

The educational program may be of any length and take any form. But one thing it must be, to qualify as "educational," is a program of some value, significance and meaning. It must make some contribution to the knowledge, experience, and understanding of the viewer.¹²⁷

An actual count of the number of educational broadcasters who would incorporate this tenet into their philosophy of television for a state university would be impossible. One could guarantee, however, that the number is gaining each year and would now represent well over a majority of those who are establishing the pattern for state university television. This could not have been said unequivocally four to five years ago. For example, several educational broadcasters who were quoted in Cumming's This is Educational Television¹²⁸ in 1954

¹²⁸ Cumming, op. cit., pp. 222-9.

have expressed quite different opinions with regard to the importance of the "entertainment" aspects of the medium during the past few years, both in the published materials and in statements of philosophy which have been directed to the author. This shift in opinion can usually be traced to unfortunate experiences which the educator has had when he tried to compete with the commercial broadcaster without the commercial stations financial, personnel, or programming resources.

II. MAJOR REASONS ADVANCED FOR A UNIVERSITY-OWNED COMMERCIAL STATION

Since the principal opposition to some of the tenets of philosophy just discussed come from state university broadcasters who have or desire a commercial outlet, it would be well at this time to put forth the four principal reasons that these broadcasters have advanced for a state university owning and operating such a station. It is not, however, within the scope of this study to discuss the merits of these arguments.

- (1) A state university is obligated to program to the masses as well as to the minorities, this is possible only through a commercial operation.

- (2) Due to the high cost of television, a state university cannot adequately support a revenueless, educational outlet.
- (3) Through its commercial revenue, a state university can finance higher quality educational programming.
- (4) Through commercial revenue, a first class, professional, student training program can be undertaken.

One must realize that broadcasters who both teach in a state university and operate a university-owned commercial station are functioning under a dichotomy--being educational broadcasters during that portion of the day in which they are teaching, counseling, or in some way working with students and commercial broadcasters for the remainder of their work-day.

Throughout the discussion developing a philosophy for a state university television activity, the question of whether the activity should be commercially or educationally operated has been carefully avoided. The tenets of philosophy have been phrased omitting references to educational television except in cases where only an educational outlet could perform the function of the tenet.

Consequently, it is within the realm of possibility

that, in any ranking designed to determine which types of facilities best support and carry out the philosophy and role of the state university in mid-twentieth-century society, a commercially-operated outlet owned and operated by a state university might place higher than some types of educational activities.

III. SUMMARY

In establishing an over-all philosophy applying to the role of television in a state university or land-grant college, one must remember that any philosophy of television has developed from the philosophies of the institutions, themselves, and has been coupled to and modified by the ever-expanding knowledge that has been gained concerning the medium and its uses. There will be, of course, the normal differences in the way in which the more conservative, official opinion of the institution, itself; the personal attitude of the prominent educator; and the assured belief of the educational broadcaster view television as it can best serve the state university. However, it has already been shown that the major points of difference are in the concreteness and the implementation of their responses and not in the nature of the responses themselves.

Table VI, on pages 335 and 336, summarizes those tenets in the philosophy of state university television which may be derived from the three major sources that have been given.

In brief, a state university's television activity should be organized and operated as an integral part of the university's instruction and extension services. It should implement the traditional objectives of all higher education, helping to eliminate the inequalities in educational opportunities by serving the entire community offering both instruction and general service to citizens in all sections of the state. Because of the university's organizational relationship to the people, state university television is "responsible" to the people of the state. It should serve all levels of public education keeping "education" foremost in its programming, improving and enriching teaching, extending and supplementing the curriculum, alleviating classroom and teacher shortages, and conducting formal and informal adult and continuing education. Included in services to adults, there should be special instructional series to groups such as in-service professionals. As part of its role in instruction, the state university television activity must provide a special training program for persons entering commercial or educational television. As part of its obligation to create new knowledge, state university television must be

TABLE VI
PHILOSOPHY AND ROLE OF TELEVISION

INC.	TENETS DERIVED FROM OFFICIAL STATEMENTS	TENETS		FREQUENCY OF OCCURRENCE
		DERIVED FROM OPINIONS OF EDUCATORS	DERIVED FROM OPINIONS OF EDUCATIONAL BROADCASTERS	
1.	S. U. TV should help university achieve traditional objectives: a. instruction b. use of information to benefit mankind c. research d. conservation of knowledge.	Implicit in these opinions. plus tenet (1)	Implicit in these opinions.	3
2.	S. U. ETV must serve entire community.	Implicit in these opinions.	Implicit in these opinions.	3
3.	S. U. TV must broaden basic education and create a better informed citizenry.	Should serve entire state offering instruction and general service to people of all ages. (3)	-----	3 (2e)
4.	S. U. TV should help eliminate inequalities in educational opportunities.	Implied. tenet (1)	-----	3 (2)
5.	S. U. TV should serve all levels of public education by: a. enriching teaching b. extending and supplementing curriculum c. alleviating classroom and teacher shortages.	plus adult and continuing education (2) on-campus instruction	----- (1a) (1)	3 (1a) (1)

6. S. U. TV should provide in-service and post-professional programs.

2
(1d)

7. S. U. TV should offer training for persons entering commercial or educational television.

3
(5)

8. S. U. should provide opportunity for research in:
a. technical television
b. new and better ideas of programming and production.

3
(7)

9. S. U. TV should be organized and operated as an integral part of institution's instruction and extension services.

2
(3)

10. S. U. TV should perform a public relations function for the university.

3
(1f)

11.

S. U. TV should keep "education" foremost in its programming.

2
(8)

12.

S. U. TV should be "responsible" to its audience.

2
(6)

13.

S. U. TV should do audience research on effect and the attainment of values.

2
(7)

14.

Ideally, a state ETV network should be in existence.

1
(4)

Code:

1. Position in parallel column signifies tenet is same or of a similar nature.
2. Frequency of occurrence does not necessarily signify rank order of importance.
3. Numbers enclosed in brackets refer to original numbers of tenets.

active in three types of media research: technical, production-programming, and audience. In addition to its implementation of the basic objectives, a state university television activity should serve as a public relations and informational function for the institution--and for all public education.

CHAPTER VIII

CRITERIA FOR THE EVALUATION OF TELEVISION ACTIVITIES IN A STATE UNIVERSITY

It has been pointed out that no two state universities are exactly alike due to differences in the needs of the state's citizenry and the resources at its command; and just as the universities are dissimilar, so are the television activities in which they are engaged. Even when comparing activities of the same nature and type, one will not find any two that will fit a fixed pattern.

However, there is, underlying any state university television activity regardless of its size or complexity, a group of basic tenets of philosophy which the state university and the television activity should have in common--tenets which are fundamental to each and which are implemented or supplemented by the television activity--tenets which become criteria by which a state university television activity may be appraised.

I. COMPARING AND CONTRASTING THE PHILOSOPHY OF THE STATE UNIVERSITY WITH THAT OF TELEVISION IN A STATE UNIVERSITY

Those tenets of philosophy and role which are fundamental to all state universities were developed in Chapter VI; those fundamental to all state university television,

in Chapter VII. In order to arrive at those tenets of philosophy held in common by the state university and its television activity, let us compare and contrast the philosophy and role of the state university with that of television in a state university.

The philosophy of both the state university, itself, and of television in a state university are grounded in the three traditional objectives of all higher education (to transmit, conserve, and expand knowledge) plus an oft-included fourth objective (to use university information for the benefit of mankind).

The formal, organizational relationship to the people makes the state university responsible to the state's citizens. State university television is "responsible," therefore, to its audience, a unique relationship between television programming and its viewer-listeners. The facility also operates as a public relations and information agency of the university, reporting the institution's activities to the people and keeping them acquainted with its programs, findings, and problems.

The state university has a special obligation to serve the entire state; this is an obligation felt by state university television and carried out through a network of educational stations or through extending university resources by enlisting the cooperation of commercial stations throughout the area.

The state university is pledged to help equalize educational opportunity; state university television is equally obligated--and at all educational levels.

Adult and extension activities have an integral role in the state university; they have an equally important role in state university television. Except for a small amount of on-campus programming and an obligation to do public school and pre-school educational programming, adult and continuing education are state university television's principal activities.

A state university is a part of the public education system; educational television must cooperate by law, as well as by moral obligation, with all educational and public service agencies--it cannot operate exclusively as the agent for public higher education.

A state university should teach people to do their work effectively; state university television is able to further this tenet by providing in-service and post-professional education. University television also trains students for commercial and educational television, which may be considered as an extension of this tenet and of the university's basic obligation "to instruct."

A state university should use the best and most efficient means of imparting a liberal education. While this belief has no corresponding tenet in state university television, the medium is seen to have vast instructional uses when properly employed. A summary of the major research

their educational potential of television is contained in Chapter IV of this study.

A state university should secure more adequate diffusion of information. Again, this belief is not mentioned specifically in context of state university television; however, audience research has produced statistics which definitely prove that television could provide a wider diffusion of university information than any other medium of mass communication. In the study of the audience for educational television, contained in Chapter V, one can see that television covers a larger number of American homes than any other medium and that the average American, regardless of age, spends more time in viewing television than in any other single activity except sleeping or working his forty-hour week.¹

The belief that a state university television activity should be involved in three major types of television research is actually an implementation of a state university's or university television's traditional obligation "to increase knowledge."

¹ For greater detail regarding the popularity of television with the average American, see Chapter V, pp. 172-3.

The conviction that "education" should be kept foremost in state university television programming assures that television will serve the university's traditional goal "to transmit knowledge."

The belief that educational television should be organized and operated as an integral part of the university's instructional and administrative activities is the only tenet of state university television that has no constituent part in the philosophy and role of a state university. The reason is self-explanatory.

In summary, the majority of tenets contained in a state university's philosophy of television evolve from the traditional objectives of all higher education, which are also the basis of the philosophy and role of the state university, itself. However, it is impossible to organize all the tenets under these four objectives due to the large amount of overlapping which would occur in such a re-grouping.²

Tenets in the philosophy of television in a state university almost always evolve from comparable ones contained in the philosophy of the state university. Actually, there is only one exception to this, and that does not stem from any contradiction to the overall rule; the administrative relationship of the facility to the university could not have had a corresponding tenet in the philosophy of the state university.

² FIGURE VII, pages 343-4, contains a graphic presentation of the interrelationship between the philosophy and role of the state university and that of a state university television activity.

FIGURE VII
COMPARISON OF TENETS
OF PHILOSOPHY

STATE UNIVERSITY	STATE UNIVERSITY TELEVISION
(Tenets of philosophy which the state university and state university television hold in common are centered on the page.)	
Four traditional objectives of higher education are basic to both: (1) To transmit knowledge (2) To conserve knowledge (3) To expand knowledge (4) To promote the use of university information for the good of mankind	
Part of the public education system of the state	Obligated legally and morally to cooperate with public schools education program
Formal, organizational relationship to people of state--hence responsible to citizens	(1) Responsible to audience due to formal, organizational relationship (2) Public relations-informational agency reporting to citizenry
Help equalize educational opportunity at all levels	Through cooperation: (1) in a state ETV network or (2) with commercial stations in airing university-produced programs
Special obligation to serve the entire state	Implemented through a state network or through cooperating with commercial or other educational stations
Must secure more adequate diffusion of its information	Coverage of television and amount of time spent in viewing give television the greatest potential of all mass media.

FIGURE VII (concluded)

STATE UNIVERSITY	STATE UNIVERSITY TELEVISION
Adult and extension activities have an integral role	Except for legal and moral obligation to cooperate with public educational and public service agencies and an obligation to on-campus programs, entire effort is bent to adult and extension cultural, educational, and general service activities
Teach people to do their work effectively	Provide in-service and post-professional education in addition to the training of personnel for commercial and educational television
Must use best and most efficient means of imparting a liberal education	Proven value of television as an instrument of education
(Traditional goal of "expanding knowledge" made specific)	Must provide research in three major areas of television field; (1) Technical (2) Production-Programming (3) Audience, especially research in effect of programming
Actually forces ETV to serve university's traditional goal to instruct or "transmit knowledge")	"Education" must be kept foremost in programming
	Should be organized and operated as an integral part of the university's services

II. CRITERIA FOR EVALUATING A STATE UNIVERSITY TELEVISION ACTIVITY

By comparing and contrasting the philosophy of the state university with that of television in a state university and by including information which has been proved through research in the television medium, it has been possible to evolve a set of tenets of philosophy for a state university television activity which is in concurrence with the philosophy of the state university, itself. These tenets are, therefore, the criteria by which a state university television activity may be appraised.

Criterion 1. The state university television activity should be organized and operated as an integral part of the university's administrative and academic structure.

Criterion 2. A state university television activity is under a special obligation to serve the entire state; therefore, it should assist the institution in achieving the widest distribution possible for university information.

Criterion 3. The state university television activity should help equalize educational opportunity at all levels, offering citizens education regardless of their race, creed, age, sex, economic and social background, and the distance they live from an elementary or secondary school or any institution of higher learning.

Criterion 4. A state university television activity should keep "education" foremost in its programming.

Criterion 5. The state university television activity is legally and morally obligated to cooperate with the public school educational program, with public service organizations, and with programs of the local, state, and national governments; therefore, the activity should develop programs in conjunction with these agencies.

Criterion 6. Adult and continuing education activities should have an integral role in any state university television activity and should include formal and informal instruction, general service, and cultural programs.

Criterion 7. State university television activity should teach people to do their work effectively. It should provide: (a) in-service and post-professional education, and (b) training of personnel for commercial and educational television.

Criterion 8. The state university television activity has a formal, organizational relationship to the people; therefore:

- (a) The activity should be "responsible" to its audience in all its actions; and
- (b) The activity should perform a public relations-informational function for all public education.

Criterion 9. A state university television operation should be active in three major areas of television research:

- (a) technical,
- (b) production-programming, and
- (c) audience--values and effects as well as size and demographic characteristics.

Criterion 10. A state university television operation should be active in the preservation of television programming materials both on a short and a long term basis by film, kinescope recording, and video tape.

In the following section of this chapter these ten criteria will be translated into more tangible characteristics of television activity which can be considered as essential to the operation's furthering of the university's philosophy and role. To aid in the analytical appraisal, a series of questions will be raised to help one see more clearly to what extent a particular state university television activity is conforming to or implementing the philosophy of the average state university.

III. APPRAISAL OF TELEVISION ACTIVITIES

At some time the administration of each state university is faced with the decision as to what constitutes desirable involvement of its institution with television. As we have seen, there are a number of questions which should be answered and answers which should be weighed in making such a decision:

1. What can and cannot television do education-wise?

2. What are the size and type of audience one might expect for educational programming on television?
3. What are the educational needs of a specific state?
4. What are the philosophy and role of a particular state university?
5. What do prominent educators and educational broadcasters feel the philosophy and role of a state university television activity should be?

At this point a decision must be made regarding the university's ideal television activity--an educational station, a commercial station, a co-licensee with a commercial outlet, a major participant in a community or area educational outlet, a participant in a state-wide education or higher education network, or an operator of closed-circuit and/or recording facilities. After this decision is viewed and modified, when necessary, by existing and anticipated financial conditions, the first step toward the ideal can be made.

While the state university which is already engaged in some form of television activity is not concerned with each of these steps, its administration and staff of broadcasting specialists should be interested in reviewing and evaluating their television operation according to criteria based on the fundamental tenets of the philosophy and role of a state university and those of television in a state university. In order to facilitate such an evaluation it is

...by, wherever possible, to: (1) translate these basic items into a measurable form, and (2) raise questions, providing a form of check list, which will provide the state university administrator or the educational broadcaster with a basis for evaluating the television activity of his institution and for comparing it with that of others.

There is, however, no way to provide comprehensive objective measurement of university television activity since some important factors are not measurable except by subjective judgment and others would require an intricate system of weighting to assign relative values to each institution. Even if such a system could be devised, it could never be given more than logical validation because of its basis on opinion.

An additional difficulty in establishing an objective system of measurement is the tremendous difference in types of television services provided by the state universities. As the result of this dissimilarity, some factors which might be considered vital to the operation of a university station could well be of little or no importance to a university which programs "live" over commercial outlets.

However, by posing a series of questions based on each criterion, the author is undertaking to focus the reader's attention on the essential concepts contained in each criterion, to help point up the major considerations which should be included in any state university's philosophy, and to clarify and interpret the bases for the

appraisal of a state university's television activity.

Answers based on the adherence of the state university television activity to the criterion, despite dissimilarities in type and extent of the individual television operation, are contained in Appendix F.

Criterion 1. The state university television activity should be organized and operated as an integral part of the university's administrative and academic structure.

The need for an integral relationship in the administrative structure. It is impossible to say that there should be only one form of hierarchical structure within state universities for the handling of television activities; however, it is true that the particular portion of the operation which deals with the programming and production of the facility should be closely related to the administrative branch of the institution. There are a number of reasons why this is advisable; among the most important are the following:

1. A television operation lacks needed prestige both on and off-campus if its views cannot be considered to represent those of the institution.
2. Because of the immediacy of the medium and the volume of material required to program a broadcast day, many decisions of station policy cannot await routine referral procedures.
3. The active interest and concern of the administration are vital to the welfare of the television operation.

A statement by Richard B. Hull, based on his observation and interviews at each university station in 1957, illustrates the advisability of a close administrative relationship. Mr. Hull states: "Only those university stations whose top administrators were personally interested fared really well."³ Dr. Tintera expresses an opinion similar to that of Mr. Hull and recommends that the station manager or director of television be directly responsible to the office of the university president.⁴

This integral relationship as a solution to major administrative problems of university television. Stemming from an active concern and interest on the part of the administration are the possible solutions to university television's major problems--problems of finance, personnel, equipment, and programming. These four elements are so inter-related that none can be completely isolated, nor can they be taken up in progressive order. These problems are like the "which came first" in the chicken-egg argument or the Aristotelian argument of which is more important, substance or form.

In these areas one is able, nevertheless, to state

³ Richard B. Hull, "Educational Television in the United States," (Columbus, Ohio: NAEB--Fund for Adult Education, 1957) p. 13.

⁴ James Tintera, "The Administration of Educational Television in Colleges and Universities," (Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University, East Lansing, 1955) p. 185.

over all television a state university's television operation is judged on the philosophy-based criteria:

1. Finance--the television activity should be adequately financed through regular, direct support from the university's budget so that the activity may fulfill the role which that particular institution has assigned it. In this way a sound background is provided for a quality service and a good foundation is laid for its future growth. Monies from foundations, gifts from business and industry, and yearly contributions should be utilized in expanding the quality and quantity of the service, not for subsidizing its daily operation.
2. Personnel--persons with adequate training and experience, who are able to produce quality programs in the needed quantity, should be regular members of the television activity's staff.
3. Equipment--sufficient, quality equipment should be available to do the television job the university has set for itself.⁵

⁵ Programming will be considered in detail under Criteria 4 through 8, pages 364-80, of this chapter.

The need for an integral role in the academic structure. Criterion 1 also states that the television activity should be "an integral part in the academic structure" of the state university. While a university has several traditional goals, no one will dispute the fact that instruction is its primary goal. The largest share of the university's activities evolve from some phase of its instructional program. Giving television staff members who are in charge of programming a place in the academic structure of the institution provides them, and the activity they represent, with academic "standing" on the campus; it gives staff members an easier entree in working arrangements with faculty members, provides a basis for establishing salary scales, and brings the television activity and its staff into the inner-workings of the university's committees and policy-making machinery. Staff members with academic rank, and credit-bearing courses in a recognized department or college of the institution, are among the best ways of assuring that the television operation is not considered a mere appendage of the state university.

In evaluating a state university television activity, among the questions that should be asked to see to what extent the activity fulfills the first criterion are the following:

1. Is the television activity administered by:
 - a. The office of the president?
 - b. The extension division?

- c. An academic department of the university?
- d. University public relations?
2. Are the views expressed on the air considered to be those of the institution?
3. Are funds for the operation of the television activity part of the regular university budget?
4. Are any basic needs of the television activity met through outside grants or campaigns?
5. Is there sufficient television equipment to do both the programming and the instructional job assigned by the university?
6. Is the television equipment capable of producing programs of technical quality equal to that seen and heard on commercial outlets?
7. Does the university have access to remote equipment of sufficient quantity and quality to enable its television activity to originate out-of-studio and off-campus programs?
8. Does the university own a kinescope or a video tape recorder?
9. Is the size of the television staff adequate to do the job assigned?
10. Is the quality of the television staff sufficiently high to do the job required?
11. Do several members of the programming and production staff of the television activity carry academic rank?
12. Is it a university policy to give faculty members who participate in television programming over-time or release-time pay?

Criterion 2. A state university television activity is under a special obligation to serve the entire state; therefore, it should assist the institution in achieving the widest distribution possible for university information. Proof of the popularity of television and of its value as the purveyor of

information which would grant a university the widest coverage for its educational message has already been given; but let us look more closely at the state university's obligation to serve the entire state and the ways in which this may be done.

The state-wide educational network. In order to secure state-wide coverage for university information, participation in a form of state educational network is essential; such a network has the additional advantage of eliminating duplication of services among state-supported institutions within a state.

The university-owned single station. A powerful station in a strategic location which covers a very large percentage of the state's population would be a second choice in fulfilling this criterion. However, in most states operating a single station would not suffice, since the university television activity's obligation is to serve the entire state. In addition to such a station, the operation would have to produce a variety of programs and make them available through commercial and educational outlets located throughout the state by micro-wave relay, through leased lines, or by means of kinescope recording or video tape.

The university without transmission facilities. A university television operation without transmission facilities would be under a similar obligation with regard to "bicycling" any form of recorded materials to strategically situated commercial and educational outlets in order that

each citizen receive the opportunity to benefit from his state university.

It should be noted that a state-wide network would offer far more educational service to the entire state than either of the other alternatives and that any plan to achieve border-to-border coverage by university television, without the presence of a state-wide educational network, requires the cooperation of the commercial stations of the state. It should also be called to the reader's attention that, unless the coverage of the university-owned station is sufficiently wide, the university is merely doing saturated educational programming to a group already close enough to the institution to attend classes on the campus and to whom the cultural advantages of the college community are readily available.

Among the questions that should be asked are:

1. With regard to a state-wide educational network:
 - a. Does the university participate in a state-wide educational television network?
 - b. Does the state have plans for a state-wide educational television network in which the university will play a major role?
2. With regard to a university-created network:
 - a. Does the university create its own television network through using the facilities of commercial and/or educational stations, either by using a micro-wave relay system or by film, kinescope recording, or video tape?
 - b. If so, how many programs are given nearly (or complete) state-wide coverage in this manner? (A program containing 20 to 30 minute segments

devoted to different subjects should be counted as the sum of the segments.)

- (1) one or two programs?
- (2) four or more programs?

- 3. What percentage of the state's citizens are covered by some university television service?
- 4. What percentage of the programming, reaching most of the citizenry, is in the area of agriculture?
- 5. Is there duplication between the television services offered by the university and those of another state-owned institution of higher education?

Criterion 3. The state university television activity should help equalize educational opportunity at all levels, offering citizens education regardless of their race, creed, age, sex, economic, and social background, and the distance they live from an elementary or secondary school or an institution of higher learning. A great deal has been said heretofore in this study regarding the need to reduce or to eliminate the number of barriers to equal educational opportunity. However, it is important that one remember that the air-waves on which television programming is borne are notably free from the inequalities of the earth-bound classroom and that the television receiver knows no restrictions to one's joining the audience except set ownership and distance from a transmitter.

The inequalities ameliorated by state university television. State university television should attempt to eliminate those inequalities which are attributable to the

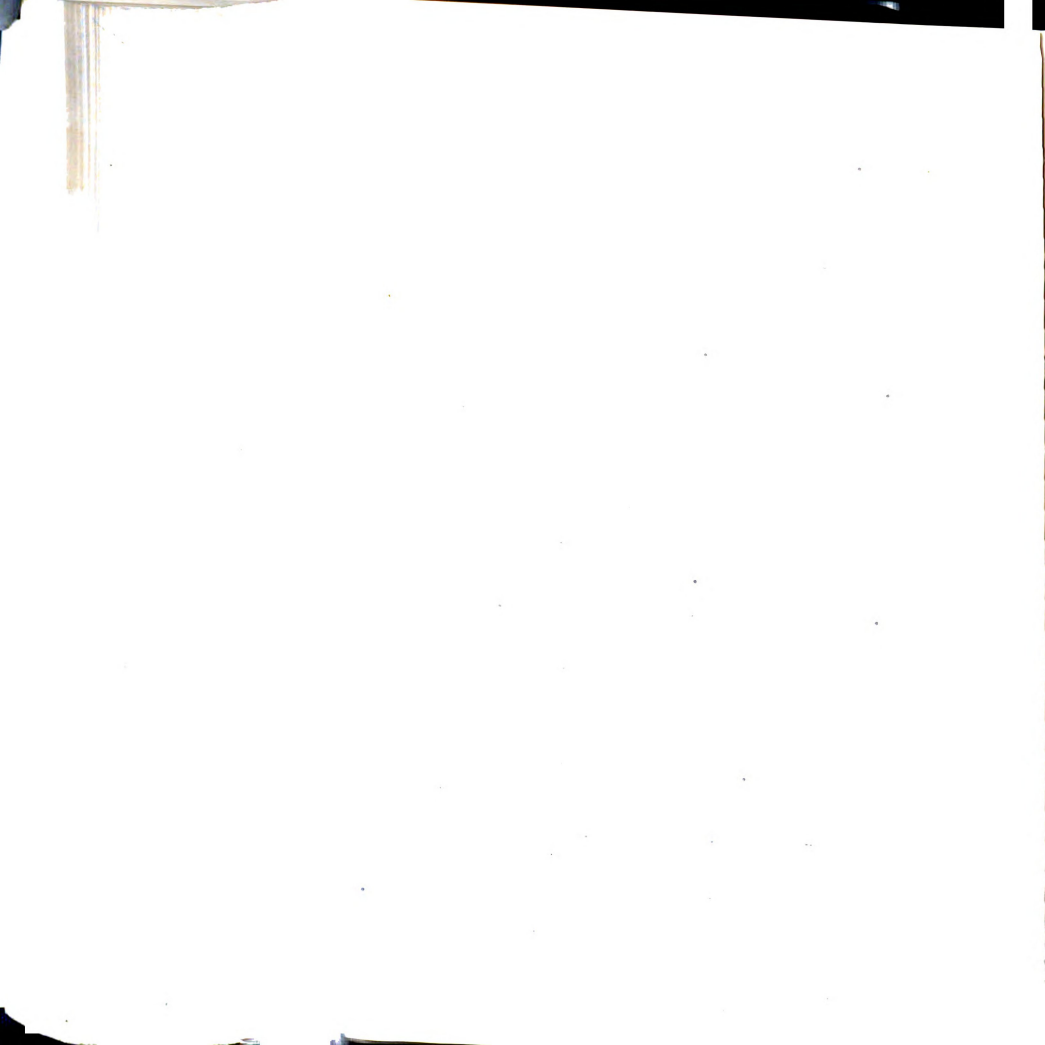
coincidence of residence or the foibles of man.

Establishing state-wide coverage for university television offerings, discussed under Criterion 2, is one method for eliminating those inequalities which are caused by the distance one lives from an educational institution. The cultural, educational, and general service advantages of the university are also available to all through stations carrying the university's programming. With over 85% of the American homes having at least one television set, even the objection due to the cost of television sets is not really applicable any more.

The elimination of additional inequalities. Educators and educational broadcasters should be very sure that the state university's television operation does not bring about, unnecessarily, other inequalities of opportunity; for example:

1. With regard to cost, there are two ways in which additional inequalities might be incurred.
 - a. The cost of receiving the university's programming should be no more than the cost of receiving any commercial outlet in the vicinity. An educational station broadcasting on the UHF band in an area where it is the only outlet located in those frequencies will cost the at-home viewer additional money.

- b. The cost of telecourses, either for auditing or for credit, should be the very lowest possible. The philosophy behind the assessing of state university charges has always been to make the service available at the least possible cost to the citizenry; telecourse fees should be no exception.
2. With regard to telecourse registrants, while a state university must have certain restrictions regarding the academic background and standing of its telecourse students, it also must be sure that there are no restrictions regarding their age, sex, creed, or social or economic position.
3. With regard to television programming, educational programming to a specific age or interest group should be offered at the time of day and on the day of the week that the majority of those who would want to join the audience are able to view the program. University television operations which are programming very few evening and/or week-end hours, for example, are not giving the male citizens or the female working segment an equal opportunity to take advantage of the service. Other inequalities in scheduling, in addition to "time of day" and "day of week," are:



- a. The total number of hours being programmed per day or week. Some outlets are not telecasting a sufficient number of hours to provide a comprehensive service.
- b. Whether the on-air hours are continuous or if the station is "dark" during certain periods of the day. Sporadic programming calls for a seldom used "talent" on the part of the viewer: dialsmanship--tuning in for specific programs and consulting an outside source for information about the university's programming.
- c. Whether or not the programming is offered on a year round basis or coincides with the in-school--vacation schedule of the institution. Sustained interest from the general public cannot be expected to follow the on-off pattern of a school calender.

Among the questions that should be asked in order to appraise a television activity's fulfilling of Criterion 3 are the following:

1. Does the television activity produce any series of public school subjects for in-school listening?
 - a. In subjects involving special equipment?
 - b. In advanced subjects requiring specialized teachers?
 - c. As a way to enrich or supplement classroom teaching?
2. Does the television activity present any courses for university credit?
3. Has there been a steady increase in the number of credit-bearing courses:

- a. On the college or university level?
 - b. On the elementary or secondary school level?
4. Are at least one-half of the telecourse offerings taken from the general college (core) curriculum?
 5. Is the cost of telecourse enrollment \$15 or under?
 6. Are there written (or unwritten) restrictions on telecourse registrations other than those of an academic nature?
 7. Does university television programming reach out into small towns and rural or remote areas (as opposed to well-populated, prosperous, and accessible areas)?
 8. Is all the television programming scheduled on VHF stations?
 9. If the programming is scheduled on UHF stations, are there other UHF outlets in the same coverage area?
 10. If the programming is scheduled on a UHF outlet, is there an attempt: (a) to enlarge the audience by acquainting the general public with and creating discussion of UHF and (b) to publicize conversion methods and costs?

Background Information on Programming

Criteria 4 through 8 are concerned with phases of programming of a state university's television activity; but, before launching into a discussion of this most important area, it would be well to take an over-view of the importance of programming, the limitations placed on it, and the major considerations involved in the programming of any college or university television activity.

Importance of programming. Other than several areas of research and the training of students for careers in television, the entire purpose of state university television is

the presentation of educational, cultural, and service programs to the general public. Therefore, the philosophy underlying the television activity is evidenced, to a great extent, in the types and content of the programming it produces.

Limitations on programming. It must be remembered that the programming of any state university television activity is limited by: (1) the particular university, itself; (2) the university's resources; and (3) the role given the activity by the university. Consequently, the programming of no two state university television operations will be exactly alike.

Major considerations in programming. There are three major considerations which must be kept in mind in the designing of all television programs: (1) the nature of the audience--its likes and dislikes, its hopes, dreams, and fears, and its program standards and values; (2) the needs of the audience; and (3) the interests of the audience.

Major areas of educational programming. Programming areas for educational activities fall into three major categories according to the age of the viewer: (1) pre-school; (2) in-school--which is, in turn, subdivided into early elementary, late elementary, junior high, and senior high school with programs aimed for both in and out-of-school viewing; and (3) adult.

Adult programming may take a number of different forms: (1) general service--information and news on a vast variety of subjects; (2) remedial--filling in deficiencies in such areas as language, mathematics, and political science; (3) vocational--either in the form of guidance or as training aids in a number of subjects; (4) cultural--music, art, drama, lectures, etc.; and (5) extension or continuing education--which may be subdivided into instructional programming (some for credit, some not) and telecourses (televised courses which are part of the regular curriculum and give qualified students credit toward a university degree).

Consumption of material. Another factor which must be borne in mind is the tremendous amount of material consumed by the medium of television. It has been estimated, for example, that over 2½ million pages of scripts would be required to present a single hour-long drama daily for one year.⁶ An abundance of material must be available and in a never-ceasing flow, not only in a "raw" state--on the shelves of the library and in the minds of the professors--but in a prepared form upon which a camera may be focused. A university's television programming must be on topics of significance, showing a continuity of parts, and supplied regularly at well-publicized times.

⁶ "TV 'Matinee Theater' Reaches Milestone," The Saginaw News, June 9, 1957, p. 15.

Criterion 4. A state university television activity should keep "education" foremost in its programming.

Further explanation of this criterion is not necessary; for it is impossible to convert it into a more tangible form since the subject matter necessarily deals with a subjective judgment.

It is well to remember, however, that the word "education," like "religion," has a connotation of somber tones and serious faces to many people. Better judgment tells one that this interpretation of education is not correct, but proving the error in interpretation is a duty of the educational broadcaster.

This does not mean that, in order to make learning interesting, the educator has to resort to chicanery, to watering-down, or to sugar-coating the university educational broadcast until it becomes merely another quiz program. The commercial stations, with their endless procession of big-name stars and their money and production devices to create suspense, will always be able to "best" the university-produced program when it comes to sheer entertainment.

Educators and educational broadcasters should know how to teach. There is no one set of rules; but the process of learning is fascinating, it can even be said to be contagious. It is up to the educational broadcaster to see that this desire to learn is "caught."

Questions which should be asked are as follows:

1. Is an attempt made to learn the nature of the audience the university expects to reach with a particular program?
2. Is an attempt made to discover the educational needs of this audience?
3. Is an attempt made to select a subject suited to the needs, desires, and ability of this expected audience?
4. Are the educational values to be passed on from a particular subject carefully selected and weighed?
5. Is the medium of television evaluated, in each case, to determine if it is suitable for the material to be presented?
6. Are all possible methods of presenting this material over television considered in order to determine which is best:
 - a. For the audience?
 - b. For the material presented?
 - c. For the educational returns desired?
7. Are there any elements in the format or the presentation which do not contribute to the goals of the program or which distract from them?

Criterion 5. The state university television activity is legally and morally obligated to cooperate with the public school educational program, with public service organizations, and with programs of the local, state, and national governments; therefore, the activity should develop programs in conjunction with these agencies. As the apex of the pyramid of public school education, the state university's educational television station feels, and is ready to assume, the responsibility for cooperation with the public school system, with public service organizations, and with governmental agencies--an obligation which is given each educational television

station under its federal license.

In cooperating with the public schools, a university outlet with a wide coverage area should work with the State Board of Education and its own College of Education so that the benefits may be realized by as many school districts as possible. Effort should be made to enrich and supplement the work of the classroom teacher, to offer courses which cannot be given in each school due to a shortage of teachers with specialized training or the lack of necessary equipment, and to present important current and cultural events as they occur.

Another evidence of the inter-relationship of finances, equipment, and programming may be seen in this area, where the ability to make available those events which would afford some of the most rewarding experiences is tied to finances and to administrative policy.⁶ A state university television operation which cannot telecast from locations outside its own studios or off its own campus cannot be programming to its optimum.⁷

Among the questions which one should ask in ascertaining the television activity's adherence to Criterion 5 are the following:

⁶ See Criterion 1, pages 350 through 354 of this chapter.

⁷ An interesting solution to originating off-campus programs has been found by one state university's educational outlet. The university has purchased remote equipment and a trailer; however, the station is paying off the original investment as well as the upkeep by renting this equipment to commercial stations in the state.

1. Cooperation with the State Board of Education:

- a. Has the university attempted to cooperate with the State Department of Education in the production of in-school series of television programs?
- b. Is the university currently producing a television series in cooperation with the State Department of Education?

2. Cooperation with local Boards of Education:

- a. Has the university attempted to cooperate with one or more local Boards of Education in the production of in-school series of television programs?
- b. Is the university currently producing a series of television programs in cooperation with one or more local Boards of Education?

3. Cooperation with other institutions of higher learning:

- a. Has the university ever attempted to produce a television program or series in cooperation with other private or public colleges or universities in the area?
- b. Has the university ever produced a television series in cooperation with other private or public colleges or universities in the area?

4. Cooperation with public service agencies:

- a. Has the university ever attempted to cooperate in a television program or series with a public service agency?
- b. Has the university ever presented a daily or weekly series in cooperation with one or more public service agencies?

5. Cooperation with government:

- a. Has the university ever attempted to cooperate with the local, state, or federal government in producing a television program or series?
- b. Has the university ever presented a television program or series in cooperation with a branch of the government?

Criterion 6. Adult and continuing education activities should have an integral role in any state university television activity and should include formal and informal instruction, general service, and cultural programs. The uses for educational programming in adult and continuing education are equally as important and infinitely more varied than those in the public school system.

In the introduction to this section on programming criteria, five distinct types of adult and continuing education programs were outlined.⁸ However, a state university's primary objective is instruction, the instruction of adults. This is an objective which any educational television activity can help a university to attain. Nevertheless, in surveying the programming of a cross-section of state university television operations, one cannot help being impressed by the relatively small percentage of the average university's programming which deals with formal, credit-bearing instruction. Real-life difficulties in arranging credit are most frequently given as the principal deterrent to the establishment of credit courses.

This slow-down does not alter the fact that the pace with which telecourses are being established is being rapidly accelerated each year, nor does it alter the obligation of the state university to produce an ever-increasing number of telecourses for credit. As the number of offerings is

⁸ See page 363 of this chapter.

enlarged, a larger percentage of courses from the general college, or core, curriculum should be included.

Among the questions that should be asked are:

1. Does the television activity produce programs in the following areas:
 - a. Formal instruction (credit bearing)
 - (1) college?
 - (2) high school?
 - (3) remedial?
 - b. Informal instruction (non-credit bearing)
 - (1) college?
 - (2) high school?
 - (3) remedial?
 - (4) general interest?
 - (5) cultural?
 - c. General service programming?
(of a less academic nature than formal or informal instruction both in purpose and in format; for example, news reports and commentary, weather, sports news, child care, interior decorating, meal preparation, etc..)
 - d. Cultural programming?
(art, dance, drama, music, speeches, etc.)
 - e. Vocational programming?
(merchandising, industrial, sales, secretarial, etc.)
2. Does the television activity schedule any programs especially for persons over 65?
3. Does the television activity share personnel with the extension division (either by a formal or informal arrangement)?
4. Is the correspondence section of the extension division in charge of the accreditation of telecourse students?
5. Are telecourses planned in cooperation with the appropriate persons in the extension division or college?
6. Does the State Department of Education cooperate with the television activity in awarding credit for high school and remedial work completed by television?

Criterion 2. State university television activity
should reach people to do their work effectively. It should
provide:

- a. in-service and post-professional education. The manner in which a state university television activity supplies in-service and post-professional education depends on: (1) whether or not the university has its own transmission equipment, and (2) the power of its transmitter. The university without transmission facilities will find it necessary to produce its series on kinescope recording or video tape and to secure air-time from commercial and educational outlets in the area that is to be covered. The university having a low-powered transmitter will find little value in producing such a series over only the one station, since those in the immediate area are able to avail themselves of on-campus offerings. Consequently, it would be necessary for the university to arrange a relay system or to record the series in order to secure the desired coverage.

The first inroads in the in-service area have been made in teacher training, with television sessions helping teachers to upgrade or renew their certificates, to learn new methods of presentation, or to study other facets of their

profession. Precedents for post-professional television in medicine and dentistry have been made in closed-circuit telecasts in most of the major universities in the United States.

Just as there are difficulties in launching credit-bearing telecourses, the procedure of organizing and airing in-service and post-professional training is slow and difficult to get underway, since arrangements between the university and the industry or profession have to be worked out. However, the need for such programs is so great and the results can be so rewarding that the effort should be expended.

One should ask:

1. Has the university ever produced a series of programs in cooperation with business, industry, or the profession for the purpose of in-service training?
2. Is such a series being planned for the near future?
3. Are more than one such series either planned or produced at the present time?
4. Is there a professional organization, industry, business, or a union group co-sponsoring the series with the university?
5. Is this cooperation active or passive?
6. If those benefiting from this series are located throughout the state, will the series be seen state-wide?
7. If the programs will not be seen state-wide, will the majority of those for whom the series is intended be able to view it?

b. training of personnel for commercial and educational television. Throughout the discussions

concerning the amount of actual laboratory training which should accompany any program of instruction in television,⁹ there has never been any question of the importance of helping the student toward those understandings which will enable him to do well both in his career and in his personal life. Moreover, it has also been made absolutely clear that any instructional program must be accompanied by sufficient experience with television equipment to assure each student's familiarity with the various types that are essential to television production. It is only by using a television camera, through working a mike boom, and operating the audio and video control boards, for example, that a student can learn the technical possibilities and limitations of the medium. Whether the student intends being a writer, a producer, a director, an actor, or entering a related field, such as advertising, he will have a far better background for his work if he has a familiarity with all its component parts.

This does not mean, however, that the entire background in technical television must be learned as part of the classroom instruction program, that

⁹ Chapter VII, Section C--pages 314-18.

the university should become a training center for television technicians. However, it does mean that the university should provide sufficient equipment and ample opportunity so that each student is able to gain the necessary experience. One may limit the number of students enrolled in the television program by maintaining high academic standards, but the number should never be limited on the basis of available equipment.

Among the questions that should be asked are:

For the university:

1. Offer training in television:
 - a. Technical training?
 - b. Production and programming?
 - c. Research?
2. Offer a sufficient number of courses so that a student is able to major or "concentrate" in:
 - a. Television engineering?
 - b. Television production and programming?
 - c. Mass communications research?
3. Have sufficient laboratory training facilities:
 - a. Have closed-circuit facilities available for student laboratory training?
 - b. Have adequate closed-circuit facilities for the number of students taking the television curriculum:
 - (1) in quality?
 - (2) in quantity?
 - c. Have sufficient studio space to provide laboratory periods without infringing on the program schedule of the operation?
4. Have an adequate operating budget for the closed-circuit training facilities?

5. Attempt to train students not going into research, per se, in the over-all techniques of research and experimentation?
6. Teach the problems and techniques of public service and educational programming as well as those of commercial programming?
7. Offer training on a graduate as well as on an undergraduate level?

Criterion 8. The state university television activity has a formal, organizational relationship to the people:
therefore:

- a. The activity should be "responsible" to its audience in all its actions. Just as one does his best in operating a business for someone else or in holding a position of trust with an employer, so the state university educational television activity must constantly operate at its peak efficiency and put out the finest quality programs that it is capable of producing, an obligation it has to its citizen-owners.

The relationship between the television activity and the people of the state should be a close, personal one and should go far deeper than contrived, infrequent meetings of token representatives of the citizenry--meetings that tend to become less and less frequent with the facility's financial security and state-wide acceptance.

Achieving a balance between audience needs and desires and what is best for them. As trustees of the public's television facility, the state university's educational broadcaster is responsible for ascertaining what type of programming the owners really need and what it would be best for them to receive via television. It is in this realm of combining the elements of what is best for an audience, what they need, and what they want by way of programming that the television activity has to employ ingenious and oft-times vigorous techniques of promotion. For it must be remembered that the members of the general public usually want what they have and know and what they see others enjoying. New things have to be "sold" to the masses.

Determining the size of audience necessary for educational programming. Most educators and educational broadcasters would agree that educational programming must reach a certain percentage of the potential audience to be considered as a profitable expenditure of public funds; however, there is very little agreement as to what that percentage should be. Some of the variables which would affect the percentage of the audience "tuned" to education are: (1) the

the following: (1) the type of program, (2) the number of alternative program choices being offered to the voter, and (3) whether or not the alternative being offered could be considered to be "optimal choice." This is the extent of a program's voter response conditional dispersion as the result of a pollence of opinion voters, and the voter's response would not need to be optimal choice.

Public Responsibility for Television

Above with its direct responsibility to the public, the state university television activity has a responsibility to help the public become a more discriminating audience, to participate in all more cultural activities; in other words, to teach "listenership." The cultivation of listenership, being selective in what is heard, and "viewership," checking the schedule, reading notices concerning television programming, and planning television viewing, is a most important concern of the educational programmer and among his major responsibilities to the public.

1993 11 11 11:11 11:11

1. Does the university have a citizen's advisory committee?
a. If this committee meet at regularly stated interval or at least once each year?

4. Do you think our titles meet at regularly stated intervals or at least once each year?

1. Are the committee members appointed by the governor of the state or the president of the university?
2. Does the advisory committee have more than a public relations or a fund-raising function for the television activity?
3. Does the university carefully weigh and frequently accept the advice of the advisory committee?
4. Does the television activity attempt to report, explain, or interest the general public in university activities?
5. Does the television activity analyze the people of the state to determine their educational and cultural needs?
6. Does the television activity attempt to determine the educational and cultural desires of the people of the state?
7. Does the university television teaching and/or production staff attempt to teach analysis and criticism of television as part of the job of using it?

b. The activity should perform a public relations-informational function for all public education.

In the previous section the inter-relationship of the state university television operation's "responsibility" to its audience and the public relations and promotion of its activity was pointed out; it is also very difficult to draw a line where public relations ends and promotion begins.

Acquainting the public with the university and its activities. Since only a small percentage of the total population actually enrolls as a student on a university campus, the function of explaining its program and of reporting its

activities to the general public is most important. The television camera can take the public into the classroom, the laboratory, onto the stage, and down to the gymnasium as the press and film have never been able to do.

In addition, television can and should bring upper-echelon university officials into the homes of their employers, a move which is both good public relations and good promotion--creating a good feeling both on-campus and out-of-state.

Accepting the unfamiliar in television programming. The fact that something is new or different does not guarantee its acceptance by the general public; educational programming will not be accepted by the masses just because it is new or different from the fare to which they are accustomed. Along with a reluctance to try the unfamiliar, there is the handicap that the audience knows little or nothing of the "performers" on educational programming while those invited into their homes on commercial television have been known to them for a long time. It is an established fact that well-known performers can introduce almost anything and will sustain the public's attention.

Attracting an audience for single program viewing. In addition to the unfamiliarity with educational programming, there is another major reason for the extraordinary need for promotion and publicity of state university television activities. Since viewing educational programming is very seldom done on a sustained basis; an audience has to be attracted to a particular program in some way. The result is a need for a number of types and extraordinary amounts of promotion and publicity. In order to test the thoroughness of state university television promotion, there are four basic questions which should be asked:

1. How much promotion is being done through the mass media? Through television and other university personnel?
2. How many mass media are being utilized in promoting the activity? To what extent?
3. What type and how many contacts do station personnel and university administrators have with citizen's meetings, public service organizations, and educational groups?
4. What attempts are made to promote educational viewing through the public schools,

through colleges and universities, through
your own institution?

Other questions that should be asked of a television
activity in appraising its fulfillment of Criterion 8b are:

1. Does the university use, to the fullest extent, the
following means of publicizing its television activities:
 - a. Television outlets?
 - b. Magazine listings?
(i.e.--TV Guide and TV Guide Junior)
 - c. Articles in periodicals?
 - d. Press (both local and state)?
 - e. Radio?
 - f. Publication and circulation of:
 - (1) program log?
 - (2) publicity brochures?
 - (3) posters?
 - g. Speeches, panels, forums, etc.?
(given by the television staff before civic and
service organizations, schools, and school
organizations, and clubs and lodges)
 - h. Tours of the television facilities in order to
interest groups of adults, as well as children,
in the university's programming?
(meeting the staff; seeing a program in rehearsal
or production)
2. Does the television activity have personnel responsible
for public relations and publicity work?
 - a. Full-time employee?
 - b. Part-time employee(s)?
 - c. Additional duty of other staff members?
 - d. Assigned to students?
3. Does the television activity frequently involve upper-
echelon personnel of the administrative and the academic
departments in its programming?
4. Does the television operation actively function as a
public relations and informational service of the public
elementary and secondary school system?
5. Is there an overt attempt made to help the on-the-air
personnel from the university's television programming
to become well-known throughout the coverage area?

Criterion 2. A state university television operation should be active in three major areas of television research:

- a. Technical. Within a state university this type of research is conducted primarily in the Schools or Colleges of Engineering. Funds for research into the technical phases of television production, transmission, and reception are usually forthcoming from the Federal Government and private industry as well as from the coffers of the state.
- b. Production and Programming. These two areas are closely related in research efforts since the results of production research become a part of the programming.
 - (1) Experimentation in production. Both the commercial and the educational endeavor are seeking simple, effective ways of lighting, costuming, staging, and directing the dramatic program; of utilizing electronic effects and devices; and of devising original formats for all the different program types.

By providing an atmosphere conducive to research, by helping students to think creatively about the medium, and by promoting both student and staff research efforts, a state university is able to do considerable

available work in this area. The principal item of expense is having an adequate staff so that time may be taken to experiment with new methods.

(1) Research and experimentation in programming.

There are many unresolved problems regarding television programming which might be solved by university television research; for example,

- (a) To what extent is a person able to match program types to audience types? To what extent is there an overlapping in these areas?
- (b) Is there a law of diminishing returns with regard to the length of time a person can attend a particular type of program such as watching a symphony or listening to a speech?
- (c) Are there certain programs which would be better when scheduled on a different mass medium?

c. Audience. Additional research should also be conducted in the pre-testing of future programs, the evaluation of existing ones, and in studying the appeals and effects of different types of programs. While directors of most state university television operations will admit both a need for

and an obligation to do audience research, very few state universities employ trained persons to conduct such studies. And, unfortunately, there does not appear to be sufficient communication regarding the research undertaken, so that a large percentage of that which has been done duplicates or overlaps other efforts.

Audience research is badly needed in the following areas:

1. From time to time efforts should be made to measure the progress that has been made toward the objectives of university television.
2. Attempts should be made over a period of time to determine the cumulative effect of programming on the audience.
3. Periodic assessments should be made of the audience's attitude toward university television, their interest in it, and their criticisms of it.

With regard to audience size and interest in university programming, some additional factors should be discovered and weighed:

1. Exactly who does and who does not watch the programming?

2. How many are there in each segment of audience that is watching?
3. Is the audience so small for some programming that the present effort might be considered valueless?
4. If so, what are the reasons for such a small audience? Can they be corrected? Should the program be replaced with another dealing with the same, or a similar, subject? Is the program of sufficient merit that the university should produce it regardless of the small size of the audience? Should the program type be dropped from the university's effort?

The answers to the following questions would help one in determining if a state university television activity were fulfilling Criterion 9:

1. Are staff members encouraged to do research?
2. Is this encouragement in the form of over-time or reimbursed-time pay?
3. Are students encouraged to do research or experimentation?
 - a. Graduate students?
 - b. Undergraduate students?
4. Does the television staff attempt to evaluate its programs that are now on the air?
5. Does the television staff attempt to pre-test new programs?



2. How many are there in each segment of audience that is watching?
3. Is the audience so small for some programming that the present effort might be considered valueless?
4. If so, what are the reasons for such a small audience? Can they be corrected? Should the program be replaced with another dealing with the same, or a similar, subject? Is the program of sufficient merit that the university should produce it regardless of the small size of the audience? Should the program type be dropped from the university's effort?

The answers to the following questions would help one in determining if a state university television activity were fulfilling Criterion 9:

1. Are staff members encouraged to do research?
2. Is this encouragement in the form of over-time or reimbursed-time pay?
3. Are students encouraged to do research or experimentation?
 - a. Graduate students?
 - b. Undergraduate students?
4. Does the television staff attempt to evaluate its programs that are now on the air?
5. Does the television staff attempt to pre-test new programs?

6. Does the university employ a full-time research person in television?
7. Does the university employ a part-time research person in television?
8. Does the university determine audience size for educational programming:
 - a. Has an attempt been made to determine the size of the audience for television programs other than telecourses?
 - b. Has the university conducted its own poll?
 - c. Has the poll been coincidental with one conducted by commercial and/or educational stations in the area?
9. Has an attempt been made to analyze the demographic characteristics of the audience in the area covered by the university's television programming?
10. Has an attempt been made to break down the university television audience by:
 - a. Program types?
 - b. Hour of the day?
 - c. Day of the week?
 - d. Any seasonal effects?
11. Has any attempt been made to measure the depth of effect of a particular program or of the university's overall programming?
12. Is any attempt being made to study the cumulative effect of university television programming?

Criterion 10. A state university's television operation should be active in the preservation of television programming materials both on a short and a long term basis by film, kinescope recording, and video tape. This criterion, of course, is based on one of the primary objectives of all higher education, "to conserve information." The university television activity's responsibility in this regard is to conserve those materials: (1) which are broadcast under

universities which would have either further use or historic value and (2) which become available that might have programmatic use at some future time.

Such a statement does not mean that it is possible or even desirable to make a permanent record of every program produced by the university--even if the cost were not prohibitive. However, the state university television activity should have sufficient equipment to make quality recordings of programs and events of merit; there should also be a large enough operating budget available to allow for the use of the facilities whenever it is deemed advisable.¹⁰

To determine if a state university were fulfilling Criterion 10, one should ask:

1. Does the university own quality television transcription equipment?
 - a. Film?
 - (1) 16 mm. camera
 - (2) high fidelity sound recording system
 - (3) film editing equipment
 - b. Kinescope recorder?
 - c. Video tape recorder?
2. Does the university have a budget for transcription purposes?
3. Is the transcription budget adequate to care for the needs of the television activity?
4. Is there a part-time or full-time staff member in charge of films, kinescope recordings, and tapes?

¹⁰ The author visited several state universities which had recording equipment but whose operating budget was so slim that they were seldom able to make use of the expensive equipment already in their possession.

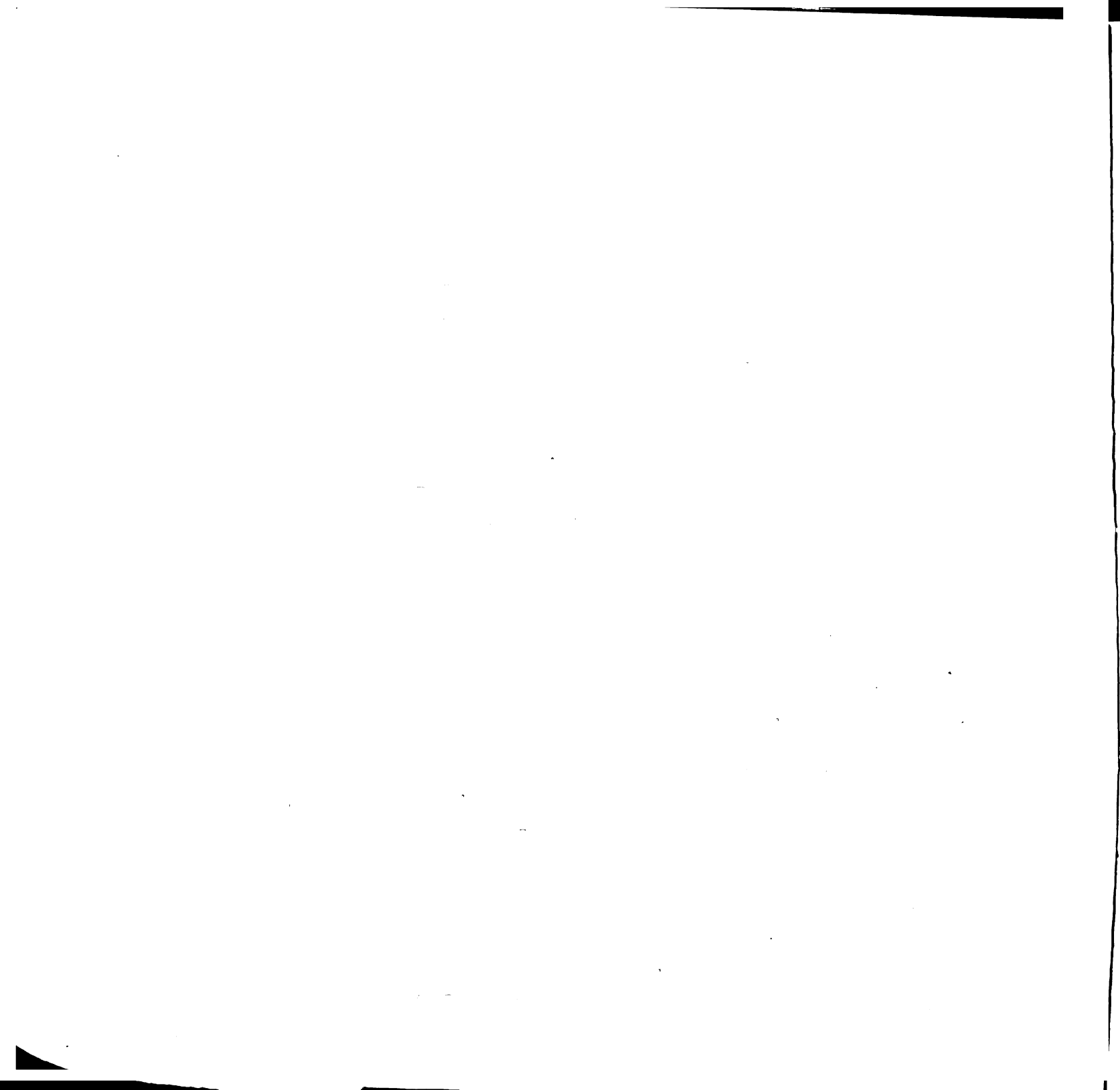
CHAPTER IX

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In this study we have been discussing the philosophy and role of television in a state university or land-grant college or university. Actually, there is a no more fitting place to have the educational uses of television under consideration; for educational television is, in a sense, an extension of the Morrill Act of 1862. For, in much the same way as the Morrill Act made public land available to the states to help establish public colleges, the Federal Communications Commission allotted 256 television channels which have become the basis for setting up a second television service, an educational service for the general public.

I. SUMMARY

Education, itself, does not operate in a vacuum; it is affected by the life and the times that surround it. Consequently, as our backs are turned to the mid-century marker and we look into a future where education looms so important, we are faced with educational problems on every side and at every level, the deficiencies and shortcomings in the American educational system. There are problems of content, of financing, of shortages, methodology, speed-up,



inequalities; just name a problem, education has it.

No one views television as a cure-all for education's ills, but it is fast emerging as a tool with one of the best potentials. As a medium of mass communication, whether or not it is used to its greatest advantage is determined by the skill of the ones who employ it. Television can never become a Mark Hopkins sitting across the log from his pupil; however, Mark Hopkins was not faced by hundreds to thousands of pupils to educate, nor did the ideas he was trying to convey involve the use of equipment he did not own or subject matter he had not mastered. Television, as an instrument of learning, is no more handicapped than the book, which cannot compel reading, answer questions, correct errors, or give approval or chastisement.

The audience for education by television is proving to be the same audience that is available for entertainment. There is really no such thing as an "educational viewer" as an entity. There are, however, a few identifiable characteristics of this audience: (1) they read more high-information-content material; (2) they watch more educational programming on commercial channels; and (3) they are more likely to engage in social interaction in civic and welfare organizations and in clubs and lodges.

If the audience for education on television is the same as the non-viewers with regard to age, sex, race, creed,

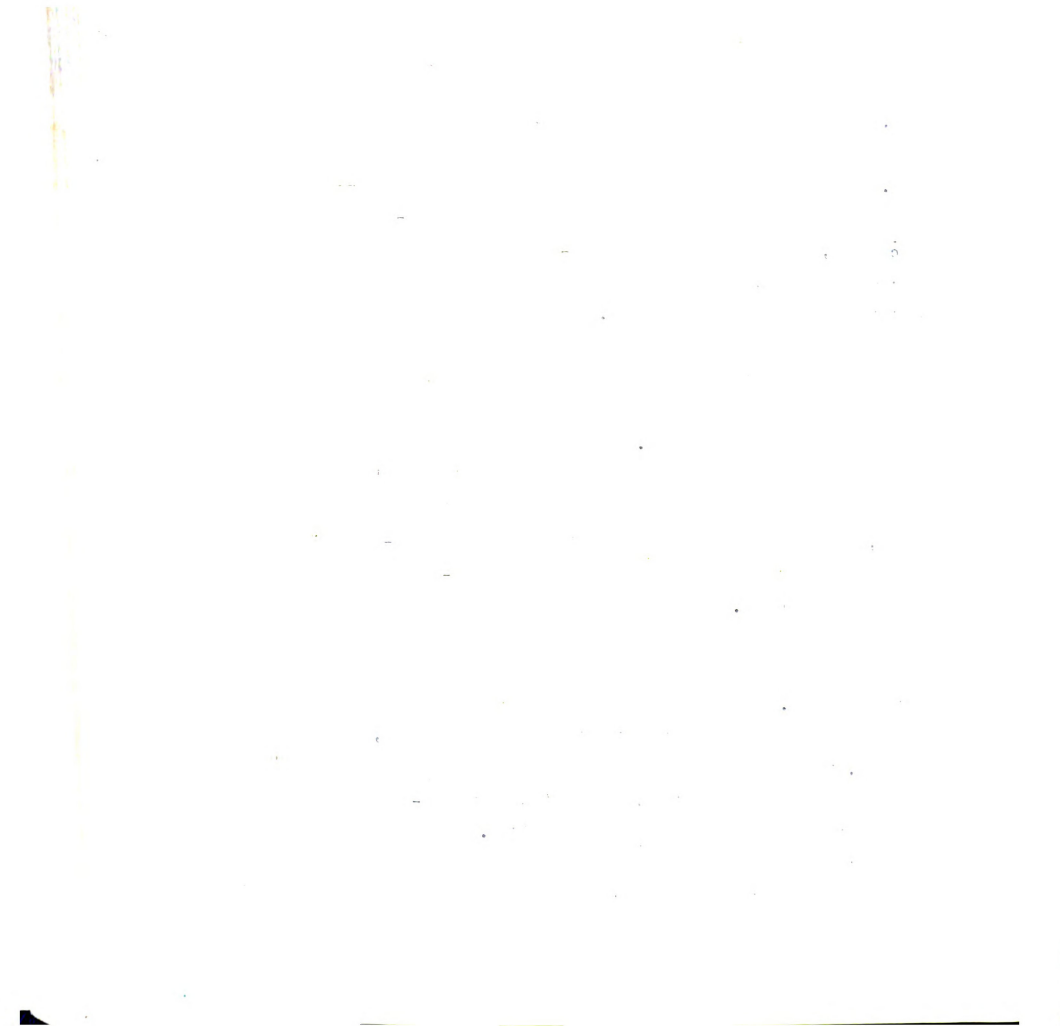


education, and economic and social background, the only real variable between those who watch and those who do not is in "interest." There is a growing concern about things educational-- a larger percentage of people are finishing high school, attending college, and participating in life-long adult education programs; consequently, the potential audience for education by television becomes larger each year. It is the obligation of the educational broadcaster not only to seek out these people who are already interested in education but to devise a program that will attract and interest those who have not as yet made education an avocation.

While a comprehensive philosophy of state university's would include components that would vary from one institution to another, there is a minimum of ten basic tenets of philosophy which are held by all state universities and land-grant colleges or universities.

A similar agreement may be found in involving the fourteen basic tenets of philosophy of a state university television activity. When the two philosophies, that of the state university and that of television in a state university, are compared, it is found that the philosophy of university television actually makes tangible, implements, or supplements the basic philosophy of the state university.

By incorporating some of the results of the major research in the educational potential of television and the



audience for education, one is able to derive a group of beliefs that are held in common by the state university and the state university television activity. These, then, are ten criteria by which a state university television activity may be appraised.

In brief, these ten criteria cover the television activity's organizational relationship to the university; its general relationship to the public; its cooperation with other educational, governmental, and social agencies; its obligation to serve the state; its responsibilities with regard to programming and programming types, student training, public relations, research, and in the conservation of program materials.

II. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

In the author's work it has been found that there is need for additional study in four closely related areas:

1. Directly stemming from this study, there is a need for more objective methods to be devised for the evaluating of state university television activities.
2. Evaluations should be made of the television activities of state universities based on the criteria which have been set forth in this study.

3. A study should be conducted to determine methods for increasing the size and the enthusiasm of the audience for educational television.
4. An attempt should be made to discover ways of establishing feedback between the university's television audience and its television staff.

III. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The state university television activity is not static but in a state of flux. Appraising the activity at regular six months' intervals would show these constant changes. The philosophy underlying the operation would be almost the only thing remaining the same. Therefore, evaluating the operation on the basis of its philosophy becomes an even more sound way of making such a judgment.

All state universities should carefully organize the super-structure for the university's television activity: (1) in order to establish the relationship between the activity and the administrative and academic structure of the institution, and (2) in order to set policies and delineate authority within the operation and between the operation and the rest of the university.

The programming activity should be set up and protected by the administration so that controversy may be

brought to light on state university programs. Educational programming, at most state universities, shies away from subjects which may in any way alienate the public. Where this "balancing act" keeps away nasty letters to the station and the administration and prevents speeches and bills in the state legislature decrying the university's "attitude," it does not permit the programming facility to fulfill its responsibility to the public.

Every indication points to the fact that the American public is greatly interested in instructional television of both a formal and informal nature. Consequently, the percentage of educational programming offering regular instruction should be increased.

A strong and continuous effort should be made to secure additional community cooperation and involvement in university programming.

State university educational programming should cooperate with the adult education section of the State Department of Education and the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare to include many more adult and extension activities of an instructional nature; courses which are not part of the college curriculum but are of general information and service. This work would bring to villages and small cities the opportunities which are already available in many large communities.

Educational programs for adults should be aimed to various levels of mentality and educational attainment as well as to the various interest groups. In this way, the university-level program maintains its integrity while others are making strides toward a wider range of interests and an increased capacity to understand. By grading within adult programming, one avoids the mediocrity which may attend a leveling procedure.

Educational broadcasters should devise ways to initiate and train student personnel in the uses of basic types of television equipment prior to the student's involvement with it in television classes. In this way laboratory emphasis could be shifted from the simple mechanics to a stressing of creativity.

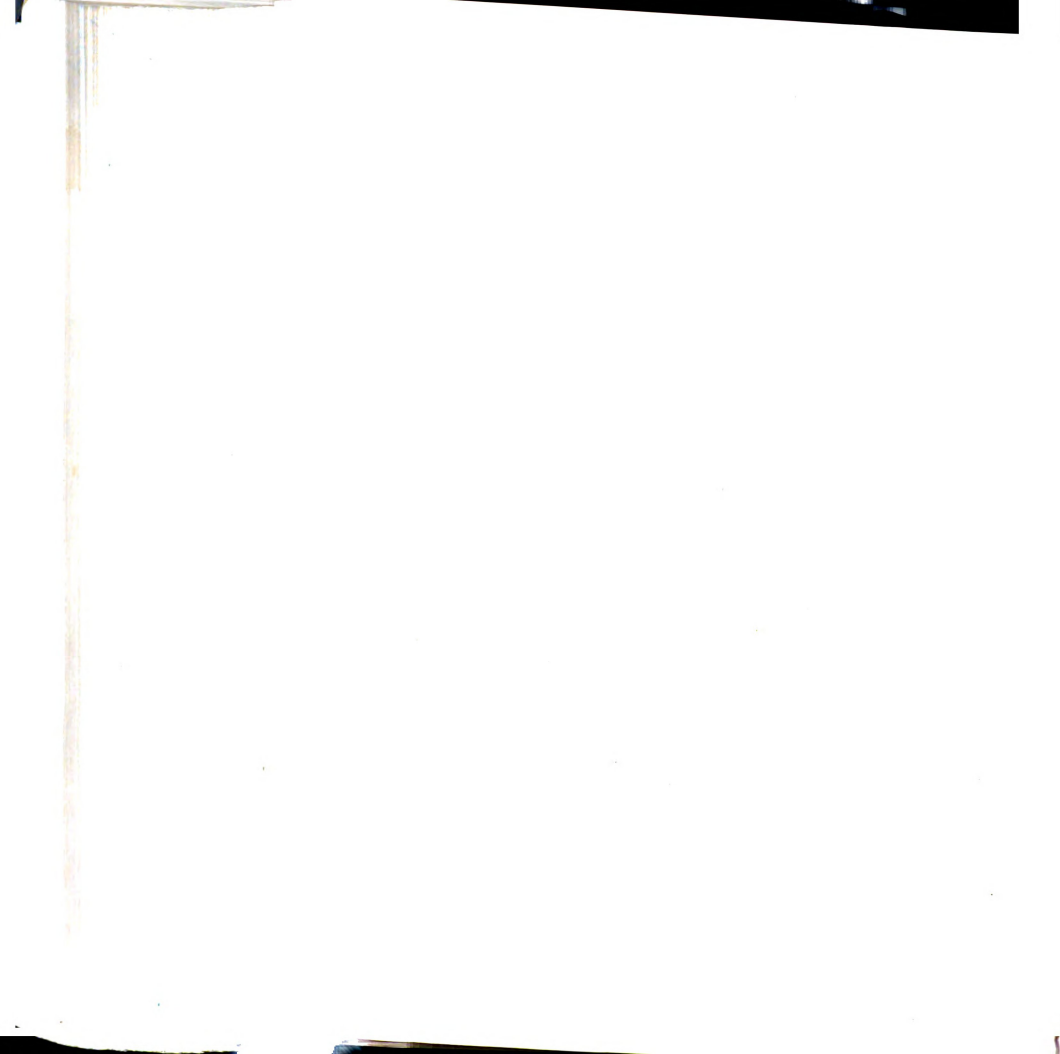
Research and experimentation have not kept pace with other developments in state university television. Administrative officials should encourage and support all television activities in this area.

University-owned educational stations must discover an entity of their own and become television extensions of the universities themselves. Their goals are not the same as those of the commercial outlet; their financial resources seldom, if ever, are nearly as adequate; and the viewers who turn to them do so seeking information and a general or a

cultural service, not diversion. Therefore, they have no reason to attempt being merely a facsimile of the commercial channel-holder.

In conclusion, it is important that state university educators and educational broadcasters make a careful evaluation of their television activity in light of the philosophy of the institution and the objectives of the television operation, itself. With the relaxation of governmental regulations which had made the circulation of educational programming and the arrangement of networks most difficult and expensive, with a more equitable arrangement of frequency allocations due in the near future, with the possibility of federal aid, with continued foundation assistance and increased public acceptance, the future of state university television has never appeared better for the university television activity that knows why it is in existence, the direction in which it should move, and the paths it may take to its destination.

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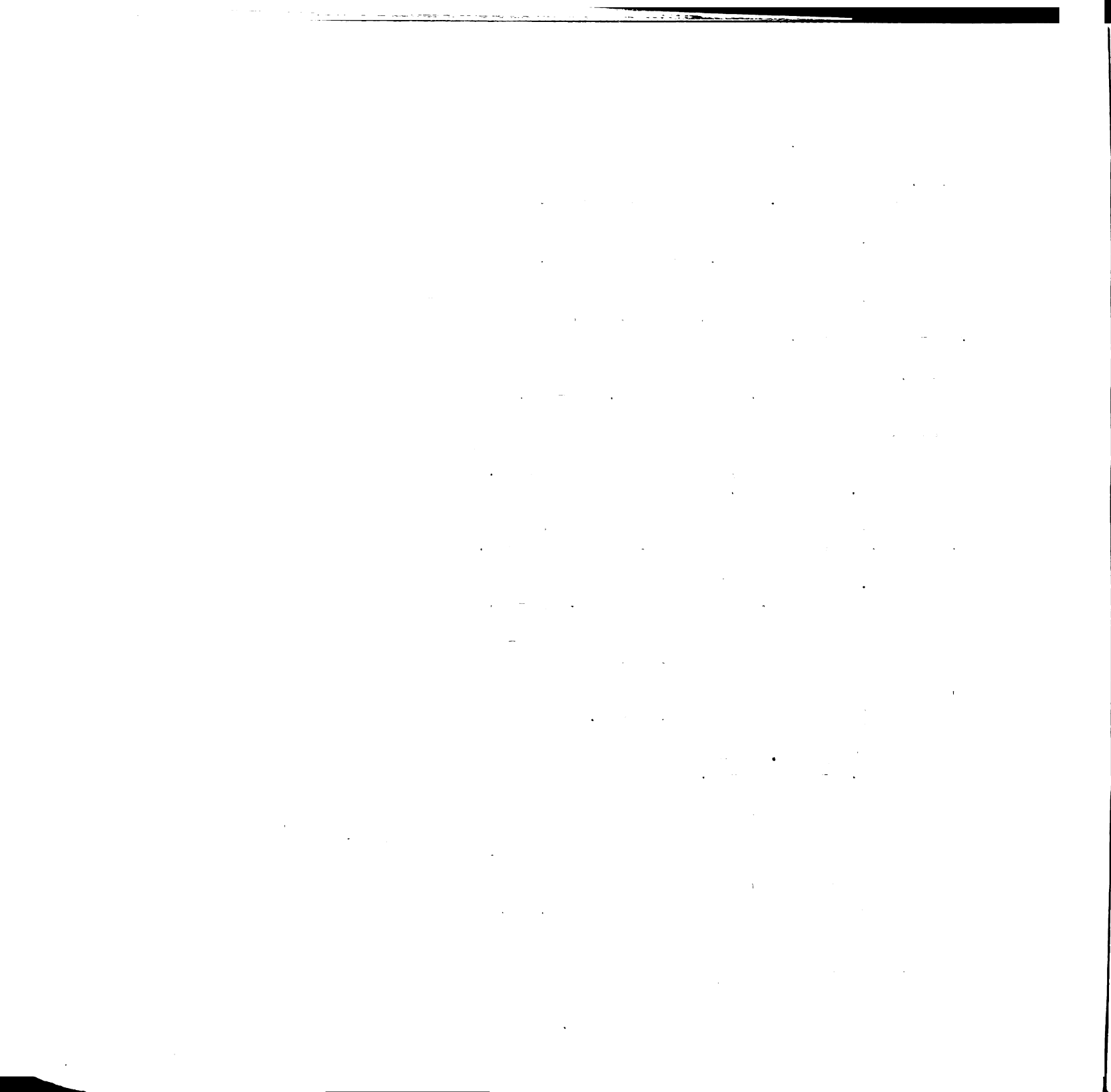
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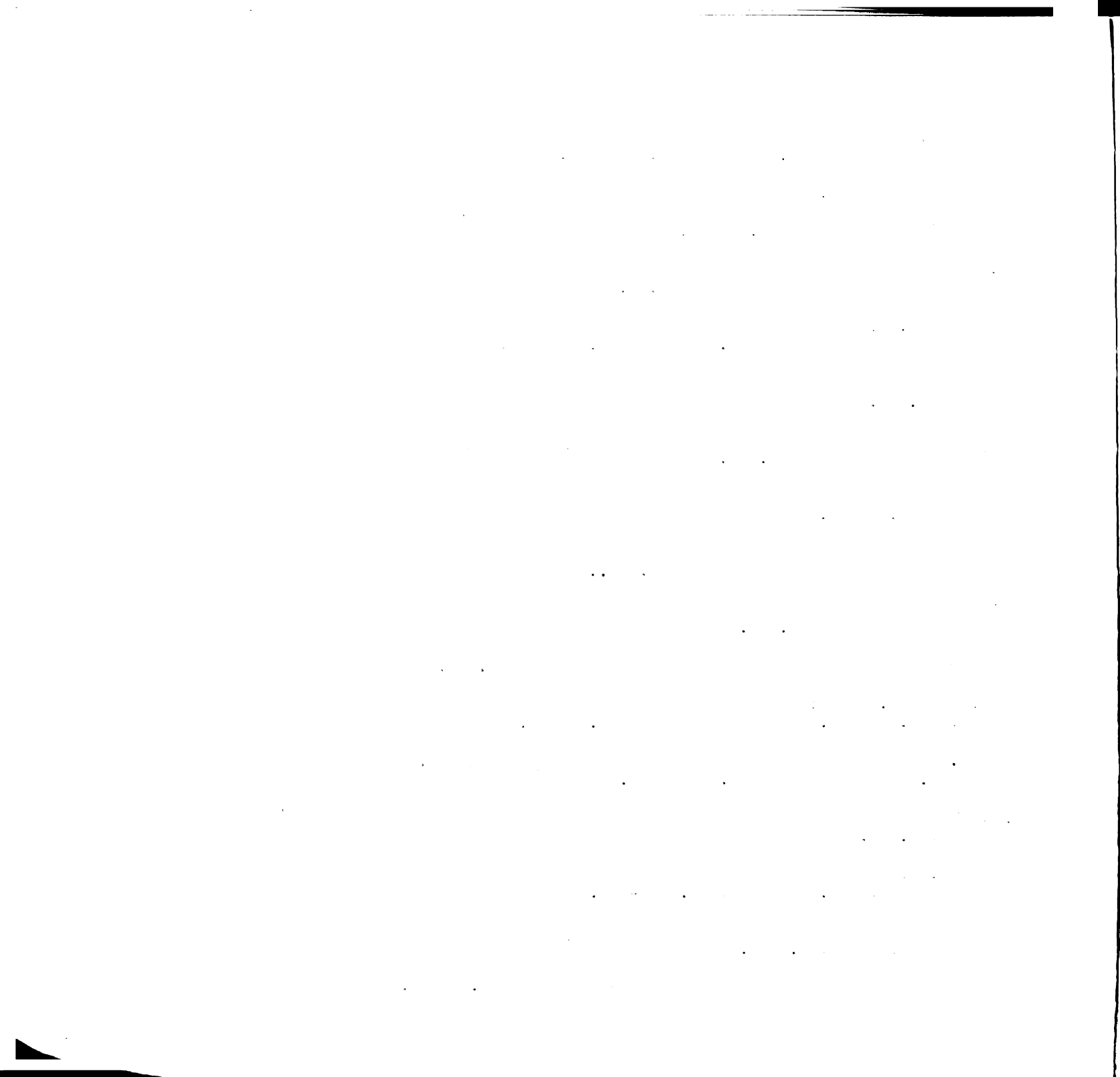
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APPENDIX A
INTERVIEW AND QUESTIONNAIRES

INTERVIEW WITH
ADMINISTRATOR

2.1. What is project and how information is to be used?

1. How do the administration feel the television facility is helping the university fulfill its objectives?
2. Have you, personally, ever appeared on the station at any time other than the dedication ceremony? How regularly? How often? If the administrative staff appeared at regular intervals?
3. What is your personal attitude of the administration and faculty toward university participation in television?
4. Have you, personally, received any reaction from the citizens of the state regarding university television activity? What has been the nature of this reaction?
5. Do you see any extension of university television activity in the near future? If so, what type?
6. What is the chain of command in television policy-making for your institution?
7. If you were not involved in television activities, would you do it now? What changes would you make?

(UNCLASSIFIED//FOR OFFICIAL USE ONLY)
(UNCLASSIFIED//FOR OFFICIAL USE ONLY)

UNCLASSIFIED//FOR OFFICIAL USE ONLY
AND OF MANAGING

Name of institution

Is it a Department

Is it a Hall with Institution

Is it a TV station (or network in which your institution is one of the principal participants)

1. Estimated size of primary coverage area miles

2. Estimated population in primary coverage area number

3. Estimated number of regular viewers, 1956.

4. What is the estimate of total? ;
educated guess

Will call; 3 incidental telephone; other (specify)

5. Number of hours of air-time when first on air with
the outlet? Weekdays ; Saturdays ; Sundays

PERSONNEL

1. Station personnel (excluding students):

When first on air: full-time part-time
number number

January, 1957: full-time part-time
number number

2. Station personnel (students only):

When first on air: used; paid
number number

January, 1957: used; paid
number number

3. Station personnel teaching TV courses:

When first on air ; January, 1957
number number

4. Personnel, not members of station staff, teaching TV

courses: When first on air ; January, 1957
number number

(CHECK ONE WHICH APPLIES IN CASE OF
NON-EDUCATIONAL STATION)

UNIVERSITY OR EDUCATION FACILITIES
AND PLANNING

NAME OF INSTITUTION

Is it a

Public or Semi-public Institution

INSTITUTION-OWNED TV STATION (ON NETWORK IN WHICH YOUR INSTI-
TUTION IS ONE OF THE PRINCIPAL PARTICIPANTS)

1. Estimated size of primary coverage area
miles

2. Estimated population in primary coverage area
number

3. Estimated number of regular viewers, 1956.

4. How many telephones installed? ;
estimated guess

all; all; installed telephones; other (specify)

5. Number of hours of air-time when first on air with
own outlet? Weekdays....; Saturdays....; Sundays....

PERSONNEL DATA

1. Station personnel (excluding students):

When first on air:full-timepart-time
number number

January, 1957:full-timepart-time
number number

2. Station personnel (students only):

When first on air:used;paid
number number

January, 1957:used;paid
number number

3. Station personnel teaching TV courses :

When first on air.....; January, 1957.....
number number

4. Personnel, not members of station staff, teaching TV

courses: When first on air.....; January, 1957.....
number number

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1. The first group of students (Group 1) was assigned to the control group. They were given a standard textbook and were not exposed to any additional resources.

1. How often are you carrying NTNO monthly:
..... 15 minutes; 30 minutes; 1 hour
..... number number
2. Do you have a television (commercial or non-commercial)
which you are watching regularly? If yes, separately from
the program about NTNO?Yes;No
3. If you answer Yes to Q No. 2, how many of the indi-
viduals are watching carried at the present time
and present time and how many by kinescope?

<u>Number</u> <u>Line</u>	<u>Number by</u> <u>Release</u>	<u>Type of Program</u>
_____	_____	Talk show
_____	_____	Straight talk (lecture)
_____	_____	Interview
_____	_____	Forum (round table)
_____	_____	Drama
_____	_____	Variety
_____	_____	Music
_____	_____	Sports
_____	_____	Women's programs
_____	_____	Programs for children

4. What method of stimulation practice do you use?

(11-224)

0111175

1. Do you believe that your state is adequately served by state educational television? If not, what
Yes or No
and what steps would you make for improving this
service?.....
.....
2. What percentage of the potential audience do you
feel is able to use the service to justify
its existence?.....
3. Are there any special problems or services in your
state that could be handled by educational televi-
sion, such as military, overcrowded colleges, vo-
cational re-training, etc.?.....
.....
4. Are there any existing trends in the organization,
administration, or programming of university educa-
tional television units that you have noticed dur-
ing the past few years? Yes.... No.... If Yes,
please describe them:
Organizational trends.....
.....
Administrative trends.....
.....
Programming trends.....
.....

PLEASE RETURN IN ENCLOSE STATEMENTS ON YOUR INSTITUTION'S
PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATIONAL TELEVISION.

1. The first part of the document is a letter from the

2. The second part is a letter from the

3. The third part is a letter from the

4. The fourth part is a letter from the

5. The fifth part is a letter from the

6. The sixth part is a letter from the

7. The seventh part is a letter from the

8. The eighth part is a letter from the

9. The ninth part is a letter from the

10. The tenth part is a letter from the

11. The eleventh part is a letter from the

12. The twelfth part is a letter from the

13. The thirteenth part is a letter from the

14. The fourteenth part is a letter from the

(COUNT ALL THE PARTICIPANTS IN A STATION)

WHERE AVAILABLE ON TELEVISION FACILITIESAND PARTICIPATING

NAME OF INSTITUTION.....
 Name of the participant.....
 Is the participant an Institution.....
 (If not, list all stations which pertain to your institution.)

STATION FACILITIES

1. Applied for license F.C.C.
Yes or No
2. Date when license granted
Date
3. Channel requested or granted
Number
- Check one: Commercial..... Non-Commercial.....
4. Tentative air-date.....
5. Estimated radius to be covered by station:miles
6. Estimated population to be covered by station:
Number:
.....

TELEVISION PRODUCTION FACILITIES OWNED1. Dates when Entered in 1951

- a. What year did you begin television programming with your own facilities? Year.....
- b. How many program series did you produce your first year? Number.....
- c. How many full-time staff members did you have in television when you began programming?.....
Number
- Part-time.....
Number

4. Number of Programs Produced

<u>Title</u>	<u>Number of Separate Series</u>	
	<u>First Year or Previously</u>	<u>At Present Time</u>
Ball Game	_____	_____
Student Talk	_____	_____
Interview	_____	_____
Forum (Round Table)	_____	_____
Art	_____	_____
Religion	_____	_____
Music	_____	_____
Women's Programs	_____	_____
Children's Program	_____	_____
Sports	_____	_____

5. Production Equipment

- a. Weekly program live: Number of programs.....;
Number of quarter hours segments filled.....
- b. Weekly program by film or kinescope: Number of
programs.....; Number of quarter hours.....
- c. Do you have sufficient equipment so that you do
not have to use the facilities of a nearby station
to originate your program? If not, what
Yes or No
- Additional equipment would be needed to make pro-
duction possible on your own campus?.....
.....

5. Do you use a teletype or a microtype recorder?

.....
 Yes or No

6. Do you take at weekly on commercial stations:

..... If you have taken according to length:
 Number

.....15 minutes; 30
 No. of programs No. of programs

.....1 hour in length.
 No. of programs

7. Do you take at weekly on educational stations:

..... If you have taken according to length:
 Number

.....15 minutes; 30 min-
 No. of programs No. of programs

.....1 hour in length.
 No. of programs

8. Call letters of station carrying program(s):

.....,,,,

9. Largest number of stations carrying any single pro-

gram: Title of program.....
 Number

10. Summary

a. Estimated percentage of state reached by this method:

Percentage.....

b. Estimated population in this area.....

Number

c. Has any method of audience research been used to

estimate the size of the audience your programs

reach?.....

Yes or No

d. If your answer to 3 was Yes, what type of research

was employed:;;
 mail poll coincidental telephone

.....

e. What other funding sources to help in the promotion
of your program? (fill as list).....
.....
.....

UNIVERSITY TELEVISION PRODUCTION FACILITIES (STATION) (CHECK ONE)

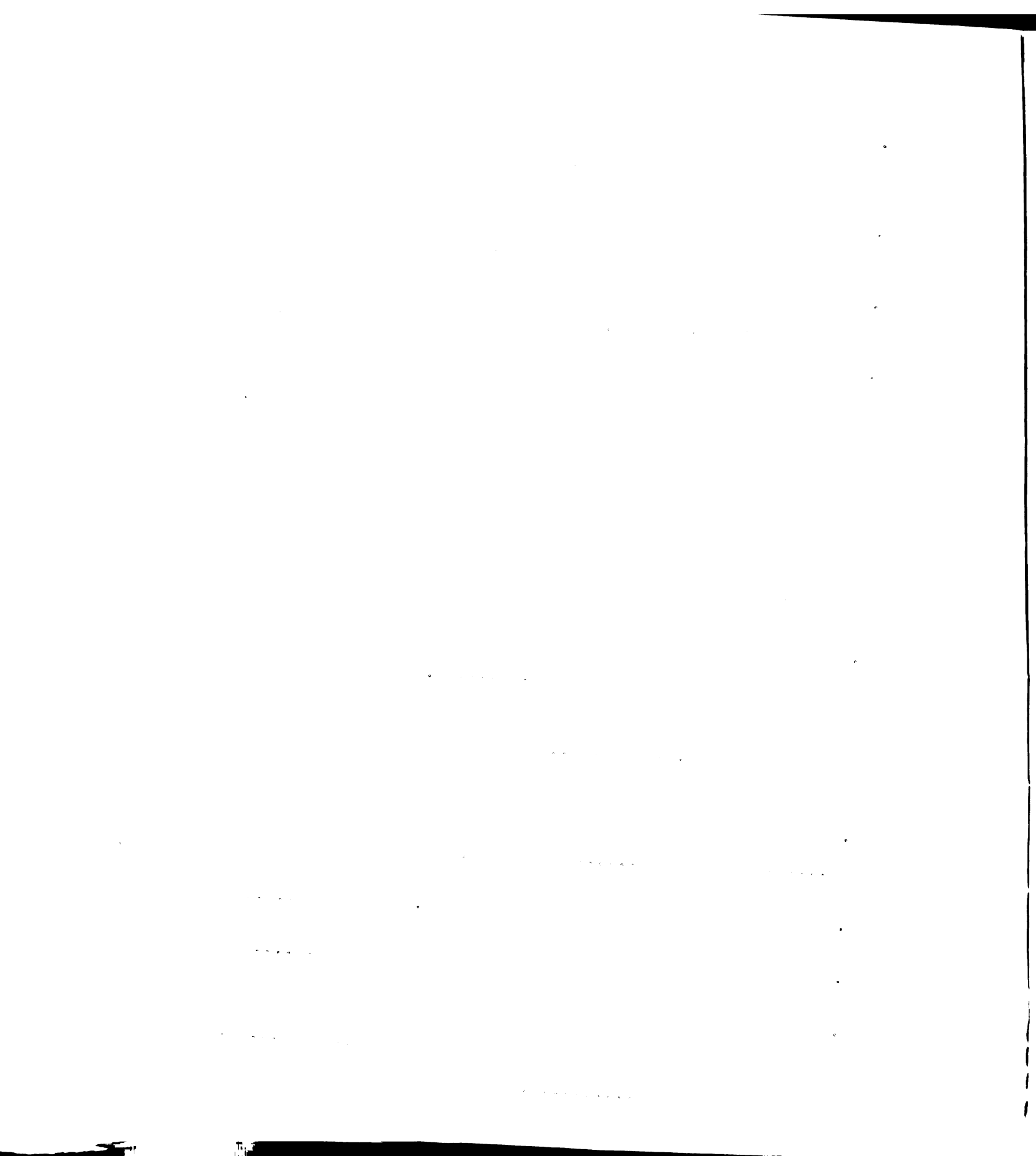
1. Does your institution have TV production facilities of a commercial type?
Yes or No
2. If Yes, what are the call letters of the station(s)?
.....,,
3. How frequently do you or institution originate programs?
Number per week.....; number per month.....
4. Into what categories do these programs fall?

<u>Type</u>	<u>Percentage of Programs</u>	<u>Type</u>	<u>Percentage of Programs</u>
Drama	_____	Talkshow	_____
Variety	_____	Straight Talk	_____
Music	_____	Interview	_____
Sports	_____	Forum (round table)	_____
Children's programs	_____	Children's programs	_____

5. Does your institution have any plans for expanding its TV production facilities?..... If Yes, by what date do you expect these facilities to be in operation?
Yes or No
Tentative date.....

TELEVISION PERSONNEL

1. Number on staff at the present time (excluding students):
..... full-time; part-time.
number number
2. Number of students used in production:.....used;.....paid
number number
3. Number of production staff teaching TV courses:
number
4. Do any university staff members, not formally attached to television production, teach TV courses?
Yes or No
If Yes, how many?.....
number



QUESTIONS

1. Do you feel that your institution provides the TV service which you need?.....
.....
2. Do you believe that your state is adequately served by educational television? If not, what
Yes or No
reasons do you have for improving this ser-
vice?.....
3. Are there any special problems or services in your state that could be handled by educational televi-
sion, such as illiteracy, correspondence colleges, voca-
tional re-training, etc.?.....
4. Are there any outstanding trends in the organization,
administration, or programming of university educa-
tional television systems that you have noticed dur-
ing the past few years? Yes... No... If Yes, please
describe them:
Organizational trends.....
.....
Administrative trends.....
.....
Programming trends.....
.....

PLEASE REMEMBER TO ENCLOSE STATEMENTS ON YOUR INSTITUTION'S
PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATIONAL TELEVISION.

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APPENDIX B
QUOTATIONS FROM STATE
UNIVERSITY PRESIDENTS

Louis Webster Jones, President, Rutgers University, New
Brunswick, New Jersey, in a speech entitled "Responsibili-
ties and Potentialities of Land-Grant Colleges in Extension"
March 11, 1952.

The Land-Grant Colleges, with their resident
faculty, research, and extension programs, are the
most important contribution of American democ-
racy to higher education. And extension is, perhaps
the most important contribution of all.
In the history of mankind, the extension idea is
distinctly American, far-reaching in its results, and
irrevocably successful. Indeed, like many great in-
ventions, it is frequently neglected and pro-
moted in the same breath.

The simple, straightforward educational invention
of the Land-Grant College was to bring knowledge and
the results of research directly to the people who
needed it for the improvement of everyday life
conditions.

.....
This man: I believe that the traditional phi-
losophy of the Land-Grant Colleges and their extension
services has lost its vitality, strength and appro-
priateness to the present needs of American higher edu-
cation. It is our job to carry it into effect with
decisive skill, in new as well as in old and well-
tried ways.¹

Frank Porter Graham, former President, Cornell University
Ithaca, New York, Chapel Hill, North Carolina, in his inaugural
address, 1931.

¹ Louis Webster Jones, "Responsibilities and Potential-
ities of Land-Grant Colleges in Extension," Association of
Land-Grant Colleges and States, Proceedings of
Sixty-Sixth Annual Convention, November 11-13, 1952, p. 40.

² Ibid., p. 45.

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APPENDIX B
EXTRACURRICULAR FROM STATE
"LITTLE-GRANT" COLLEGES

Louis Webster Jones, President, Rutgers University, New
Brunswick, New Jersey, in his address entitled "Responsibili-
ties of Little-Grant Colleges in Extension"
March 11, 1932.

The Little-Grant Colleges, with their resident
faculty, students, and extension program, are the
most important contribution of American democ-
racy to the world at this time. And extension is perhaps
the most important contribution of all.
In the world of today, the extension idea is
practically universal, from reaching to the remote, and
the little-extended. It is, like many great in-
ventions, little frequently misunderstood and pro-
duced in a hasty way.

The Little-Grant Colleges were to bring knowledge and
the extension idea directly to the people who
needed it for the improvement of everyday life.

.....
This is my belief: I believe in the additional phi-
losophy of the Little-Grant Colleges and their extension
program has left its capability, strength and appro-
priateness to the present needs of American higher edu-
cation. It is our job to carry it into effect with
flexibility, in a new as well as in old and well-
established ways.

Frank Porter Baker, former President, Campbell University
at Chapel Hill, North Carolina, in his inaugural
address, 1931.

¹ Louis Webster Jones, "Responsibilities and Potential-
ities of Little-Grant Colleges in Extension," Association of
Little-Grant Colleges and Grant Universities, Proceedings of;
Sixty-Sixth Annual Convention, November 11-13, 1932, p. 40.

² Ibid., p. 45.

APPENDIX C

SOURCE MATERIALS FOR OFFICIAL DOCUMENTS OF STATE UNIVERSITIES

1. A state university has three basic purposes: (a) to conserve knowledge, (b) to expand knowledge, and (c) to transmit knowledge.

BULLETINS AND CATALOGUES

University of California, 1958-59, p. 60
University of Colorado, 1958-60, p. 1
University of Connecticut, 1958-59, p. 4
University of Idaho, 1957-59, p. 5
Iowa State University, 1957-59, p. 8
University of Kentucky, 1958, p. 5
Michigan State University, 1958-59, p. 17
University of Nevada, 1958-59, p. 2
University of Texas, 1958-59, p. 12

2. A state university has the obligation to help people make their maximum contribution to society.

BULLETINS AND CATALOGUES

University of Delaware, 1959-61, p. 4
Kansas State College, 1958-59, p. 7
Michigan State University, 1958-59, p. 17
Mississippi State College, 1958-59, p. 10
University of Nevada, 1958-59, p. 2
University of New Mexico, 1957-58, p. 32
Oregon State College, 1958-59, p. 3

BRIEF OF THE JOINT COMMITTEE

Louisiana State University, Part VIII, pp. 226-227
University of South Carolina, Part VIII, p. 272

3. A state university is a part of the public educational system of the state.

BULLETINS AND CATALOGUES

University of Maine, 1958-59, p. 10
University of Nevada, 1958-59, p. 2
University of Texas, 1958-59, p. 12

BRIEF OF THE JOINT COMMITTEE

Rutgers University, Part I, p. 14
Oregon State College, Part V, p. 150
University of Wyoming, Part V, p. 122

4. A state university has a formal relationship to the people of the state.

BULLETINS AND CATALOGUES

Michigan State University, 1958-59, p. 17
University of North Carolina, 1957-58, p. 67
University of Texas, 1958-59, p. 12

BRIEF OF THE JOINT COMMITTEE

Ohio State University, Part II, p. 36
Utah State Agricultural College, Part V, p. 136
University of Vermont, Part I, p. 4

5. A state university must equalize the opportunity to obtain a college education.

BULLETINS AND CATALOGUES

University of Colorado, 1958-59, p. 3
Kansas State College, 1958-59, p. 7
University of New Mexico, 1957-58, p. 32

BRIEF OF THE JOINT COMMITTEE

Ohio State University, Part II, p. 37
University of South Carolina, Part VIII, p. 272

6. A state university has a special obligation to serve the entire state.

PULLETINS AND CATALOGUES

University of California, 1958-59, p. 60
 University of Idaho, 1957-59, p. 5
 Iowa State College, 1957-59, p. 8
 University of Kentucky, 1958, p. 5
 University of Maryland, 1957-58, p. 11
 University of Massachusetts, 1957-58, p. 11
 Michigan State University, 1958-59, p. 17
 University of Michigan, 1958-59, p. 17
 Mississippi State College, 1958-59, p. 10
 University of Missouri, 1958-59, p. 10
 Montana State College, 1956-58, p. 35
 University of Nevada, 1958-59, p. 2
 University of New Hampshire, 1957-58, p. 8
 University of New Mexico, 1957-58, p. 32
 North Carolina State College, 1957-58, 1958-59, p. 13
 Ohio State University, 1958-59, p. 3
 Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College, 1958-59, p. 6
 Oregon State College, 1958-59, p. 3
 University of Rhode Island, 1958, p. 8
 South Dakota College, 1957-58, p. 29
 State College of Washington, 1958-59, 1959-60, p. 1

BRIEF OF THE JOINT COMMITTEE

Alabama Polytechnic Institute, Part VIII, p. 241
 University of Colorado, Part VIII, pp. 123-124
 University of Georgia, Part VIII, p. 277
 University of Illinois, Part III, pp. 73-74
 University of Kansas, Part VII, pp. 215-216
 Louisiana State University, Part VIII, pp. 227-228
 University of Minnesota, Part IV, p. 92
 University of Nebraska, Part IV, pp. 115-116
 Rutgers University, Part I, p. 14
 University of North Carolina, Part VIII, p. 262
 University of North Dakota, Part IV, p. 110
 University of Oregon, Part V, pp. 152-153
 Clemson Agricultural College, Part VIII, p. 271
 University of South Carolina, Part VIII, p. 272
 Utah State Agricultural College, Part V, pp. 136-137
 University of Vermont, Part I, p. 5
 University of Virginia, Part VIII, p. 283
 University of Washington, Part V, pp. 142-143
 University of Wisconsin, Part IV, p. 86
 University of Wyoming, Part V, p. 123

7. Adult and extension activities have an integral role_
in the state university.

BULLETINS AND CATALOGUES

Kansas State College, 1958-59, p. 8
University of Kentucky, 1958, p. 5
University of Maryland, 1957-58, p. 11
University of Massachusetts, 1957-58, p. 11
Michigan State University, 1958-59, p. 17
University of Michigan, 1958-59, p. 17
Montana State College, 1956-58, p. 35
University of Nevada, 1958-59, p. 2
University of New Hampshire, 1957-58, p. 8
North Carolina State College, 1957-58, 1958-59, p. 13
Ohio State University, 1958-59, p. 2
Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College, 1958-59, p. 6
Oregon State College, 1958-59, p. 3
University of Rhode Island, 1958, p. 8
North Dakota College, 1957-58, p. 1

BRIEF OF THE JOINT COMMITTEE

University of Colorado, Part VIII, pp. 123-124
University of Georgia, Part VIII, p. 277
University of Illinois, Part III, pp. 73-74
University of Kansas, Part VII, pp. 215-216
Louisiana State University, Part VIII, pp. 227-228
University of Maine, Part I, p. 3
University of Minnesota, Part IV, p. 92
Mississippi State College, Part VIII, p. 247
University of North Carolina, Part VIII, p. 262
University of North Dakota, Part IV, p. 110
University of Oregon, Part V, pp. 152-153
Clemson Agricultural College, Part VIII, p. 271
University of South Carolina, Part VIII, p. 272
Utah State Agricultural College, Part V, pp. 136-137
University of Vermont, Part I, p. 5
University of Washington, Part V, pp. 142-143
University of Wisconsin, Part IV, p. 86

8. A state university should teach people how to do their_
work effectively.

BULLETINS AND CATALOGUES

University of California, 1958-59, p. 70
Iowa State College, 1957-59, p. 8
Kansas State College, 1958-59, p. 7
Michigan State University, 1958-59, p. 17
State College of Washington, 1958-59, 1959-60, p. 3

9. A state university must use the best and most efficient means of imparting liberal education.

BULLETINS AND CATALOGUES

University of Colorado, 1958-60, p. 3
University of North Carolina, 1957-58, p. 68

BRIEF OF THE JOINT COMMITTEE

University of Alabama, Part VIII, p. 246
Indiana University, Part III, p. 45
Kansas State College, Part VII, p. 218
University of Kansas, Part VII, pp. 216-217
Louisiana State University, Part VIII, p. 218
Michigan State University, Part III, p. 58
University of Mississippi, Part VIII, pp. 247-248
Oregon State College, Part V, p. 151
University of Oregon, Part V, p. 152
Utah State Agricultural College, Part V, p. 137
University of Wisconsin, Part IV, pp. 85-86

APPENDIX D

UNIVERSITY AFFILIATED WITH ELEMENTARY PHILOSOPHY OF JOHN D. T. M. T. M.

1. University of Illinois - Urbana - Philosophy - Division -
University of Illinois - Urbana - Philosophy - Division -

University of Illinois	University of Illinois
University of Illinois	University of Illinois
University of Illinois	University of Illinois

2. University of Illinois - Urbana - Philosophy - Division -

TELEVISION PHILOSOPHY OF 1957

University of Illinois	North Dakota Agricultural College
University of Illinois	University of North Dakota
University of Illinois	Ohio State University
University of Illinois	University of Oregon
University of Illinois	Clark A. M. College
University of Illinois	Indiana Polytechnic Institute
University of Illinois	University of Wisconsin
University of Illinois	University of New Mexico

CHIEF OF THE JOINT COMMITTEE

Albany Polytechnic Institute, Part VIII, pp. 241-242
 University of Colorado, Part V, pp. 123-124
 University of Colorado, Part IV, pp. 115-116
 Oregon State College, Part V, pp. 150-151
 Clemson Agricultural College, Part VIII, pp. 271-272
 University of South Carolina, Part VIII, pp. 272-273
 University of Texas, Part VII, p. 196
 University of Virginia, Part VIII, p. 283

1957 TELEVISION PHILOSOPHY ADDITIONALS

University of Alabama	The Woman's College of U.N.C.
University of California	Oregon State College
University of Georgia	Clemson Agricultural College
Kansas State College	University of South Dakota
University of Kansas	University of Utah
University of Michigan	University of Vermont
University of Nebraska	Washington State College
Rutgers University	University of Washington
North Carolina State College	West Virginia University
University of North Carolina	

LIST OF COLLEGES OF AGRICULTURE INFORMATION FOR THE
1957-58 SCHOOL YEAR.

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA

University of Alabama	University of North Carolina
University of California	The N.C.'s College of U.N.C.
University of Florida	North Dakota Agricultural College
University of Georgia	Ohio State University
University of Illinois	Oregon State College
University of Iowa	University of Oregon
University of Kansas	Glacier Agricultural College
University of Kentucky	University of South Dakota
University of Louisiana	University of Utah
University of Maryland	University of Vermont
University of Michigan	Virginia Polytechnic Institute
University of Minnesota	Washington State College
University of Missouri	University of Washington
University of Nebraska	West Virginia University
University of New Mexico	University of Wisconsin

LIST OF THE JOINT COMMITTEE

Alabama Polytechnic Institute, Part VIII, pp. 241-242
University of California, Part V, pp. 123-125
University of Florida, Part I, pp. 22-24
University of Georgia, Part VII, pp. 126

(2)

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA

University of Alabama	North Carolina State College
University of Arizona	University of North Carolina
University of Florida	The N.C.'s College of U.N.C.
University of Georgia	North Dakota Agricultural College
University of Illinois	Ohio State University
University of Iowa	Oregon State College
University of Kansas	University of Oregon
University of Kentucky	Glacier Agricultural College
University of Louisiana	University of South Dakota
University of Maryland	University of Utah
University of Michigan	University of Vermont
University of Minnesota	Virginia Polytechnic Institute
University of Missouri	Washington State College
University of Nebraska	University of Washington
University of New Mexico	West Virginia University
	University of Wisconsin

LIST OF THE JOINT COMMITTEE

Alabama Polytechnic Institute, Part VIII, pp. 241-242
University of Florida, Part I, p. 2
University of Georgia, Part VII, pp. 223-224
University of New Mexico, Part I, pp. 2-4
University of North Dakota, Part II, p. 110
University of Mississippi, Part VIII, p. 249



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UNIVERSITY PUBLICITY OF 1957

University of Alabama	North Carolina State College
University of California	University of North Carolina
University of Colorado	The Women's College of U.K.C.
University of Connecticut	State University
University of Delaware	Georgia State College
University of Florida	University of Oregon
University of Illinois	Shenandoah Agricultural College
University of Indiana	University of Utah
University of Iowa	University of Vermont
University of Kansas	Washington State College
University of Kentucky	University of Washington
University of Louisiana	West Virginia University
University of Maryland	University of Wisconsin

UNIVERSITY PUBLICITY OF 1957

University of Alabama, Part IV, pp. 122-125
 University of California, Part IV, pp. 122-125
 University of Colorado, Part VIII, pp. 247-248
 University of Connecticut, Part VIII, pp. 272-273
 University of Delaware, Part VIII, pp. 272-273

1. University of Alabama

UNIVERSITY PUBLICITY OF 1957

University of Alabama	University of North Dakota
University of California	University of Wisconsin
University of Colorado	

UNIVERSITY PUBLICITY OF 1957

University of Illinois, Part V, pp. 122
 University of Indiana, Part VII, pp. 212-213
 University of Iowa, Part VII, pp. 212-213

2. Educational television, both by law and by moral responsibility,
and by the University of Wisconsin.

UNIVERSITY PUBLICITY OF 1957

University of Alabama	Western State College
University of Florida	University of Nebraska
University of Georgia	North Carolina State College
University of Illinois	University of North Carolina
University of Indiana	The Women's College of U.K.C.
University of Iowa	University of South Dakota
University of Kentucky	University of Utah

LIST OF THE JOINT COMMITTEE

University of California, Fort VIII, pp. 241-242
 University of California, Fort VI, pp. 126-127
 University of California, Fort VII, pp. 128-129
 University of California, Fort VIII, pp. 224-225
 University of California, Fort VIII, pp. 226-227
 University of California, Fort VII, pp. 228-229
 University of California, Fort VII, pp. 230-231
 University of California, Fort VII, pp. 232-233
 University of California, Fort VIII, pp. 234-235

1. University of California - Fort VIII, pp. 241-242
University of California - Fort VI, pp. 126-127
University of California - Fort VII, pp. 128-129
University of California - Fort VIII, pp. 224-225
University of California - Fort VIII, pp. 226-227
University of California - Fort VII, pp. 228-229
University of California - Fort VII, pp. 230-231
University of California - Fort VII, pp. 232-233
University of California - Fort VIII, pp. 234-235

UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA, FORT VIII, 1957

University of California	University of North Carolina
University of California	The Women's College of U.N.C.
University of California	North Dakota Agricultural College
University of California	Ohio State University
University of California	Oregon State College
University of California	University of Oregon
University of California	Clatsop Agricultural College
University of California	University of South Dakota
University of California	University of Vermont
University of California	Virginia Polytechnic Institute
University of California	Washington State College
University of California	University of Washington
University of California	West Virginia University
University of California	University of Wisconsin

LIST OF THE JOINT COMMITTEE

University of California, Fort VIII, pp. 241-242

1. University of California - Fort VIII, pp. 241-242
University of California - Fort VI, pp. 126-127
University of California - Fort VII, pp. 128-129
University of California - Fort VIII, pp. 224-225
University of California - Fort VIII, pp. 226-227
University of California - Fort VII, pp. 228-229
University of California - Fort VII, pp. 230-231
University of California - Fort VII, pp. 232-233
University of California - Fort VIII, pp. 234-235

UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA, FORT VIII, 1957

University of California	North Carolina State College
University of California	University of North Carolina
University of California	The Women's College of U.N.C.
University of California	Ohio State University
University of California	University of Oregon
University of California	University of Utah
University of California	University of Vermont
University of California	Washington State College
University of California	West Virginia University
University of California	University of Wisconsin

LIST OF THE JOINT COMMITTEE

University of California, Fort VIII, pp. 241-242

5. The television facilities of a state university should
serve in addition to the educational systems of the state.

TELEVISION PHILOSOPHY OF 1957

University of Alabama	Montana State College
University of Florida	University of Nebraska
Florida University	North Carolina State College
Iowa State College	University of North Carolina
University of Iowa	The Woman's College of U.N.C.
Michigan State University	University of South Dakota
University of Michigan	Texas A. and M. College
	University of Utah

OPINION OF THE JOINT COMMITTEE

University of Colorado, Part V, pp. 123-125
 Indiana State University, Part VIII, pp. 226-228
 University of Iowa, Part I, p. 3
 Michigan State College, Part VIII, pp. 247-248
 University of Mississippi, Part VIII, p. 249
 North Carolina Agricultural College, Part V, pp. 136-137
 University of Wyoming, Part V, pp. 122-123

6. The television facilities of a state university should
provide in-service education to professional people.

TELEVISION PHILOSOPHY OF 1957

University of Florida	North Carolina State College
Iowa State College	University of North Carolina
Michigan State University	The Woman's College of U.N.C.
University of Michigan	

7. The television facilities of a state university should
serve as a tool for in-service commercial and educational
television.

TELEVISION PHILOSOPHY OF 1957

University of Florida	University of North Carolina
Iowa State College	University of North Dakota
State University of Iowa	Ohio State University
University of Illinois	University of South Dakota
Florida University	Washington State College
Michigan State University	West Virginia University
University of Michigan	
University of Missouri	

BRIEF OF THE JOINT COMMITTEE

University of Georgia, Part VIII, pp. 242-243

9. The television facilities of a state university should be maintained as a public service for research.

TELEVISION PHILOSOPHY OF 1957

University of Georgia	North Carolina State College
University of Illinois	University of North Carolina
North Carolina State College	Ohio State University
University of Kansas	University of Wisconsin
Michigan State University	

BRIEF OF THE JOINT COMMITTEE

University of Illinois, Part V, p. 133

9. The television facilities of a state university should be maintained as a permanent and integral part of the institution in the areas of instruction and extension services.

TELEVISION PHILOSOPHY OF 1957

Michigan State University	University of Michigan
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BRIEF OF THE JOINT COMMITTEE

University of Georgia, Part VIII, pp. 276-277

10. The television facilities of a state university should also perform a public relations function for the university.

TELEVISION PHILOSOPHY OF 1957

University of Georgia	University of North Carolina
Florida University	The Woman's College of U.N.C.
University of Michigan	North Dakota Agricultural College
North Carolina State College	University of Utah

BRIEF OF THE JOINT COMMITTEE

Indiana University, Part III, p. 45
 University of Mississippi, Part VIII, p. 249
 Utah State Agricultural College, Part V, pp. 131-137
 University of Virginia, Part VIII, p. 233

APPENDIX E

STATE UNIVERSITIES FOR TELEVISION PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATIONAL BROADCASTING

1. A list of the state with which a state university is able to cooperate in educational broadcasting is:

- Arkansas

University of Arkansas
Marion De March, Chairman of Radio and Television Committee

Indiana University
H. C. Schaller, Director, Radio and Television

Oregon State College
Herold E. Livingston, Chairman, Television Committee

University of Oregon
Glenn Merrill, Director of Television

University of South Dakota
Edward J. Slack, Director KUDD

2. Cooperation of teaching and supplementing the curriculum in elementary and secondary schools as well as in higher education.

Alabama Polytechnic Institute
Edward Seigler, Director, Educational Television

University of Arkansas
Marion De March, Chairman of Radio and Television Committee

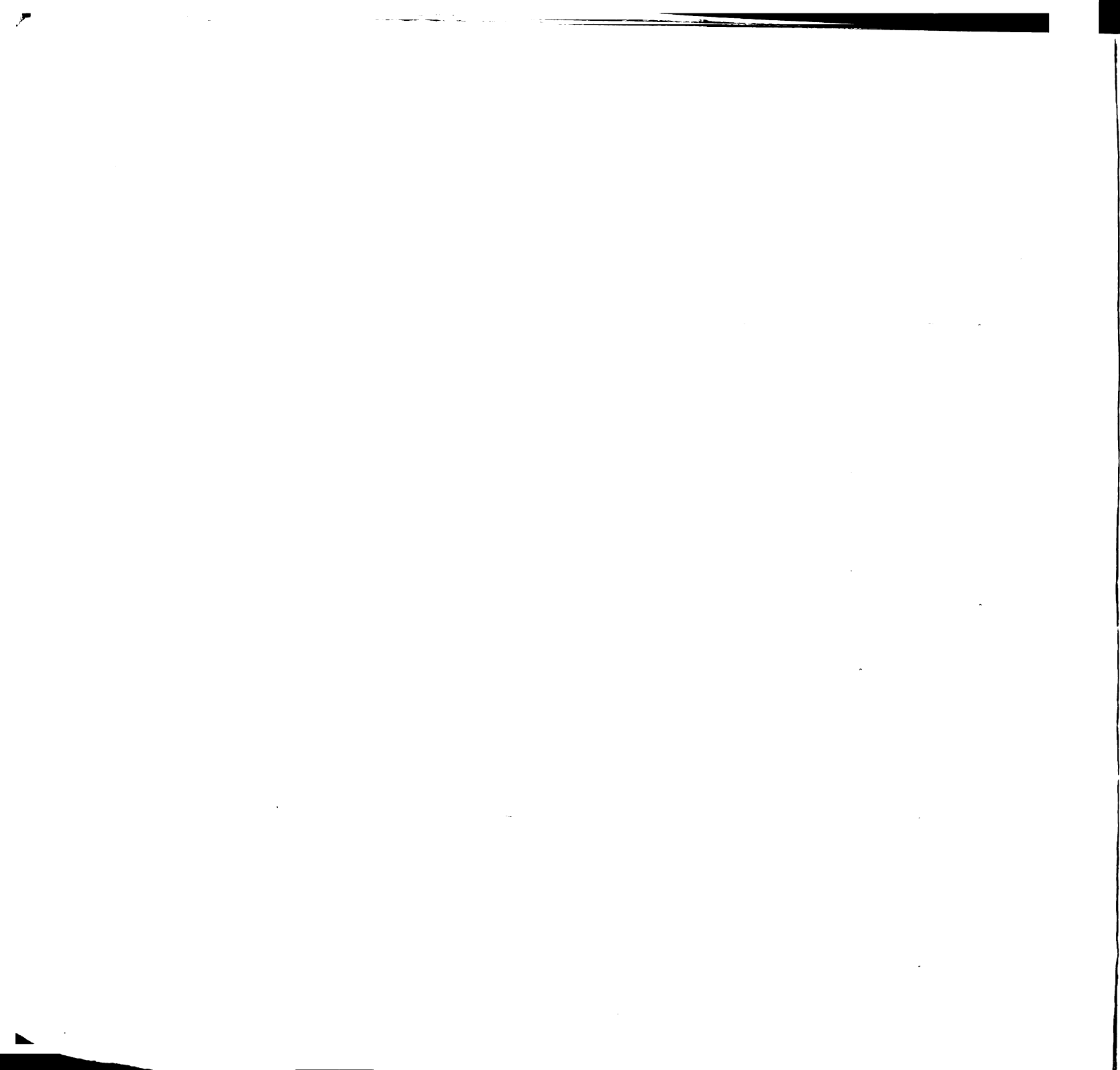
University of Colorado
L. E. de Kieffer, Director, Bureau of Audio-Visual Education

University of Illinois
Frank E. Scherley, Director of Broadcasting

Iowa State College
Robert Mulholl, Manager, WOI-TV

University of Kentucky
C. Leonard Press, Program Supervisor

University of Massachusetts
Raymond Wynn, Director of Audio-Visual Center



University of Illinois
Robert L. Merrill, Director of Television

North Dakota State College
Robert L. Merrill, Director, Radio and Television
Film Center

University of North Dakota
Robert L. Merrill, Director, KNDU

Ohio State University
Robert L. Merrill, Director, Radio and Television Broadcasting

University of South Dakota
Robert L. Merrill, Director, KUSD

North Carolina University
Robert L. Merrill, Director, School of Journalism

University of Wisconsin
Robert L. Merrill, Director, Division of Radio and Television
Education

INTERVIEW

University of Missouri
Robert L. Merrill, Director, KOMU

Other Educational Institutions

University of Arkansas
Robert L. Merrill, Chairman, Radio and Television Committee

University of Colorado
Robert L. Merrill, Director, Bureau of Audio-Visual Education

University of Florida
Robert L. Merrill, Director, School of Journalism and
Communications

University of Georgia
Robert L. Merrill, Associate Director of Communication Services
Georgia Center for Continuing Education

Indiana University
Robert L. Merrill, Director, Radio and Television Communi-
cations

Iowa State College
Robert L. Merrill, Manager, WOI-TV

University of Kentucky
Robert L. Merrill, Program Supervisor

University of Michigan
Robert L. Merrill, Director of Television

Central University

James H. Miller, Executive Television Specialist

Missouri Agricultural College

Robert L. Dean, Director of Communications

University of Oregon

William J. Ellis, Director of Television

Missouri Agricultural College

W. C. Stalling, Agricultural Editor

State College of Washington

Allen Miller, Professor of Journalism and Speech

West Virginia University

Paul H. Reed, Director, School of Journalism

University of Wisconsin

H. E. Roberts, Director, Division of Radio and
Television Education

Illinois

University of Illinois

Michael L. Miller, Program Director WILL-TV

b. out-of-school in-service education.

University of Florida

The O. Miller, Director, School of Journalism and
Communications

Furman University

James C. Miles, Director, Radio Station WBAA

Iowa State College

Robert Mulholl, Manager, WOI-TV

University of Kentucky

C. Leonard French, Program Supervisor

University of Michigan

Garnet E. Garrison, Director of Television

University of Washington

Loren E. Stone, Manager, KCTS-TV

c. general service programs to people of all ages.

University of Alabama

Graydon August, Director of Broadcasting Services

University of Arkansas

Norman De Marco, Chairman, Radio and Television Committee

James H. "Bud" Miller, Jr., Television Specialist

Mr. J. Edgar Hoover
Director of Communications

1000 ft. elevation

Item: Additional Filter
S.N. 70986, Additional Filter

Allen Williams, Jr. School of Journalism and Speech

Barry L. Zant, Director, School of Journalism

U. S. Department of Education, Division of Radio and
Television Education

[illegible]

University of Illinois
 1000 L. Allen, Room 6 Director WILL-TV

1. 1 1 1 1 1 in-service education.

University of Florida
The C. W. Miller, Director, School of Journalism and
Communications

Furline University
James C. Miles, Director, Radio Station WBAW

Iowa State College
Robert Malt 11, Manager, WOI-TV

University of Kentucky
C. Leonard Fleen, Program Supervisor

University of Michigan
Garet E. Garrison, Director of Television

University of Washington
Loren E. Stone, Manager, KCTS-TV

e. general services programs to people of all ages.

University of Alabama
Graydon Ausmus, Director of Broadcasting Services

University of Arkansas
Norman, Ark. 72702, Chairman, Radio and Television Committee

University of Colorado
H. C. Klassen, Director, Bureau of Audio-Visual
Education

Illinois University
Robert E. Nelson, Director, Radio and Television
Communications

Indiana College
Robert Kuhlman, Director, WOI-TV

University of Michigan
Garret E. Garrison, Director of Television

University of North Dakota
Helen K. Curry, Director, KNDU

University of Oregon
Glen Herlihy, Director of Television

State College of Washington
Allen Miller, Professor of Journalism and Speech

University of Wisconsin
H. L. McNulty, Director, Division of Radio and
Television Education

6. Public relations and informational service about all
public relations.

Furber University
James G. Miles, Director, Radio Station WBAA

University of Michigan
Garret E. Garrison, Director of Television

North Dakota Agricultural College
Robert L. Olson, Director of Communications

INTERVIEW

University of Missouri
Edward C. Luskert, Assistant to the President in charge
of Television

Consolidated University of North Carolina
Earl E. Wynn, Director, Communicatio Center

Ohio State University
Richard E. Hull, Director, Radio and Television
Broadcasting.

6. A radio-television facility should attempt to
include the capability of all levels.

University of Connecticut

William L. Wilson, Radio and Television Supervisor

University of Illinois

James L. Johnson, Jr., Director, Radio and Television
Film Center

Consolidated University of North Carolina

Earl Wynn, Director, Communication Center

Ohio State University

Michael E. Hall, Director, Radio and Television Broadcasting

University of Oregon

Glen Starlin, Director of Television

University of Utah

Paul E. Reed, Director, School of Journalism

University of Wisconsin

H. B. McCarty, Director, Division of Radio and Television
Education

7. Television should be regarded as an integral part of the
institution's educational facilities and offerings.

State University of Iowa

John Paul Nicks, Director, Radio and Television
Film Division

University of Kentucky

C. Leavelle Jones, Acting Head, Department Radio Arts

University of Massachusetts

Ray Rodgers, Director, Audio-Visual Center

University of Michigan

Garnett E. Garrison, Director of Television

Cornell University

James F. Wesler, Extension Television Specialist

Consolidated University of North Carolina

Earl Wynn, Director, Communication Center

Ohio State University

Michael E. Hall, Director, Radio and Television Broadcasting

University of Oregon

Glen Starlin, Chairman, Department of Speech

4. The commercial television should ideally, reach all
portions of the state, and the educational television network
be available to everyone.

University of Alabama

Ernest A. Adams, Director of Broadcasting Services

University of Arizona

John Marshall, Executive, Radio and Television

University of Florida

W. C. Sullivan, Director, School of Journalism and
Communications

University of Illinois

Richard H. Allen, Program Director, WILL-TV

University of Kansas

L. Dale Johnson, Assistant Professor of Radio and Television

Chapel Hill University of North Carolina

Paul W. Lee, Director, Communication Center

Ohio State University

Richard E. Hull, Director, Radio and Television Broad-
casting

University of Oregon

Glenn Starlin, Director of Television

Oregon State College

Harold M. Livingston, Chairman, Television Committee

South Dakota State College

W. F. Wentzy, Head, Audio-Visual Education Department

State College of Washington

Allan Miller, Professor of Journalism and Speech

West Virginia University

Forley I. Reed, Director, School of Journalism

University of Wisconsin

H. B. McCarty, Director, Division of Radio and Tele-
vision Education

5. A state university should prepare personnel for the fields
of commercial and educational television.

University of Alabama

Ernest Adams, Director of Broadcasting Services

University of Illinois

Charles L. Levy, Director, Public Information

University of Illinois

W. E. Hoffman, Director, Bureau of Audio-Visual

University of Illinois

Harold C. Smith, Director, School of Journalism and
Communication

University of Illinois

David L. Auld, Associate Director, Communications Services
Chicago Center for Continuing Education

University of Illinois

C. Martin Cole, Chairman, Educational Television Committee

University of Illinois

Richard Miller, Program Director, WILL-TV
Robert E. Schaefer, Director of Broadcasting

Indiana University

Elmer G. Gilson, Director, Radio and Television
Communications

Indiana University

James C. Miller, Director, Radio Station WIAA

State University of Iowa

Carl H. Howler, Director, Radio Stations WSUI and KSUI

Iowa State College

Robert McMillan, Manager, WOI-TV

University of Kansas

L. Elmer Towre, Assistant Professor of Radio and Television

University of Kentucky

C. Leavelle Press, Program Supervisor

Louisiana State University

Dr. Claude M. Wise, Chairman, Department of Speech

University of Michigan

Barnet E. Garrison, Director of Television

Michigan State University

Arnold L. Hunter, Director, Radio and Television
Development

University of Minnesota

John Schwarzwaller, Station Manager, KTCA-TV

University of Missouri
Dr. W. L. Dyer, Assistant to the President in charge
of Television

University of Nebraska
Dr. W. L. Dyer, Director, Radio and Television
Film Center

University of Nebraska
Dr. W. L. Dyer, Director of Television and KUON-TV

University of Nebraska
Dr. W. L. Dyer, Director of Radio and Television

University of New Mexico
Dr. W. L. Dyer, Director, University of Television
and Radio

University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill
Dr. W. L. Dyer, Director of Radio and Television

University of North Dakota
Dr. W. L. Dyer, Director of KFJH

Ohio State University
Richard W. Hall, Director of Radio and Television Broad-
casting

University of Oklahoma
John W. Dyer, Director of KETA

University of South Carolina
Nicholas P. Mitchell, Director of Extension

University of South Dakota
Eliot J. Clock, Director of KUSD

University of Tennessee
Kenneth D. Wright, Director, Department of Broadcasting

University of Texas
R. F. Scherck, Director of Radio and Television

State College of Washington
Allen Miller, Professor of Journalism and Speech

University of Washington
Loren E. Cline, Manager of KCTS-TV

West Virginia University
Barley I. Reed, Director, School of Journalism

University of Wisconsin
H. E. McCarty, Director, Division of Radio and
Television Education

6. Public University television should be responsible to its
community.

University of Illinois
Frank E. Scherley, Director of Broadcasting

Iowa State College
Robert Mulhall, Manager of WOI-TV

University of Kansas
H. Edwin Brown, Assistant Professor of Radio and
Television

Central United University of North Carolina
Earl Wynn, Director of Communication Center

University of Oregon
Blenk Merrill, Director of Television

University of Utah
Robert L. Brown, Station Manager, KUED

University of Wisconsin
H. B. McCarty, Director, Division of Radio and
Television Education

INTERVIEW

University of Alabama
Ervin A. Adams, Director of Broadcasting Services

7. A public university should constantly be involved in three
major areas of research.

Alabama Polytechnic Institute
Edward Wapner, Director, Educational Television

University of Georgia
Garold L. Apy, Associate Director, Communications Services,
Georgia Center for Continuing Education

University of Illinois
Frank E. Scherley, Director of Broadcasting
Richard L. Hider, Program Director, WILL-TV

Indiana University
George C. Johnson, Education Director, Radio and
Television

Iowa State College
Robert Mulhall, Manager, WOI-TV

University of Iowa
Arnold L. Hunter, Director of Television

University of Illinois
Dr. Forrest M. , Professor of Speech

University of Iowa
Arnold L. Hunter, Director, Radio and Television
Development

University of Minnesota
James H. Swaffler, Station Manager, KTCB-TV

University of North Carolina
Earl Wynn, Director, Communication Center

University of North Dakota
Agnes K. Curry, Director, KFJH

University of Wisconsin
Michael F. Hall, Director, Radio and Television Broadcasting
Dr. W. F. Felt, Program Supervisor, WCSU Radio and Television

Oregon State College
Harold K. Livingston, Chairman, Oregon State College
Television Director

2. The word "educational" should be kept foremost in the programming
of university educational television.

University of Florida
John C. Walker, Director, School of Journalism and
Communications

University of Kansas
L. Elmer Felt, Director of Stations KFXU and KANV
Assistant Professor of Radio and Television

Michigan State University
Arnold L. Hunter, Director, Radio and Television
Development

Indiana State College
James Luderstadt, Director, Radio and Television Film
Center

University of New Mexico
Dr. Lawrence Cooper, Director, University Television
and Radio

University of North Carolina
Earl Wynn, Director, Communication Center

1. University

1. J. L. Hall, Director, Radio and Television Broad-
casting

2. University of Wisconsin

2. J. L. Hall, Director, Division of Radio and Television
Education



APPENDIX F

While no definite set of answers can be given which would apply to all state universities, the following may be used as a guide, a basis of comparison with opinions expressed throughout this study.

CRITERION I

1. Answers - in order of preference--a, b, c, and d.

Since the state university television activity usually thrives best under a close alliance to the administration, the activity would profit most from a, being administered by the president's office. Administration under public relations would be the fourth choice, since it denies the basic function in the area of instruction and would tend to keep the activity as an appendage of the university and not an integral part.

2. Yes

It is important, however, that the university maintains the right of its television activity to express both sides of controversy as part of its duty toward public enlightenment.

3. Yes

Regardless of the size of the television activity, money should be provided through regular university channels.

4. No.

The university should finance the major part of its television activity and not depend on outside sources.

5. Yes

6. Yes

The audience has come to expect certain technical standards for television programming; consequently, audience numbers will drop if technical quality (and production techniques) are too poor or too amateurish.

7. and 8. Yes

If the university owns a station, is a major participant in an educational station's programming, or does a number of program series which are recorded in the university's own studios, this equipment is essential.

9. and 10. Yes (regardless of the size of the television activity.)

11. Yes

Those staff members working closely with faculty members in the planning and production of television programming should have an academic rank.

12. Yes

Faculty members from other departments on campus who appear on more than one television program should be reimbursed for their time. This insures the proper amount of preparation and adequate rehearsal for the programs--resulting in the superior type of instruction which one should expect on a medium entering every home in its coverage area.

CRITERION 2

1a. Yes--ideally.

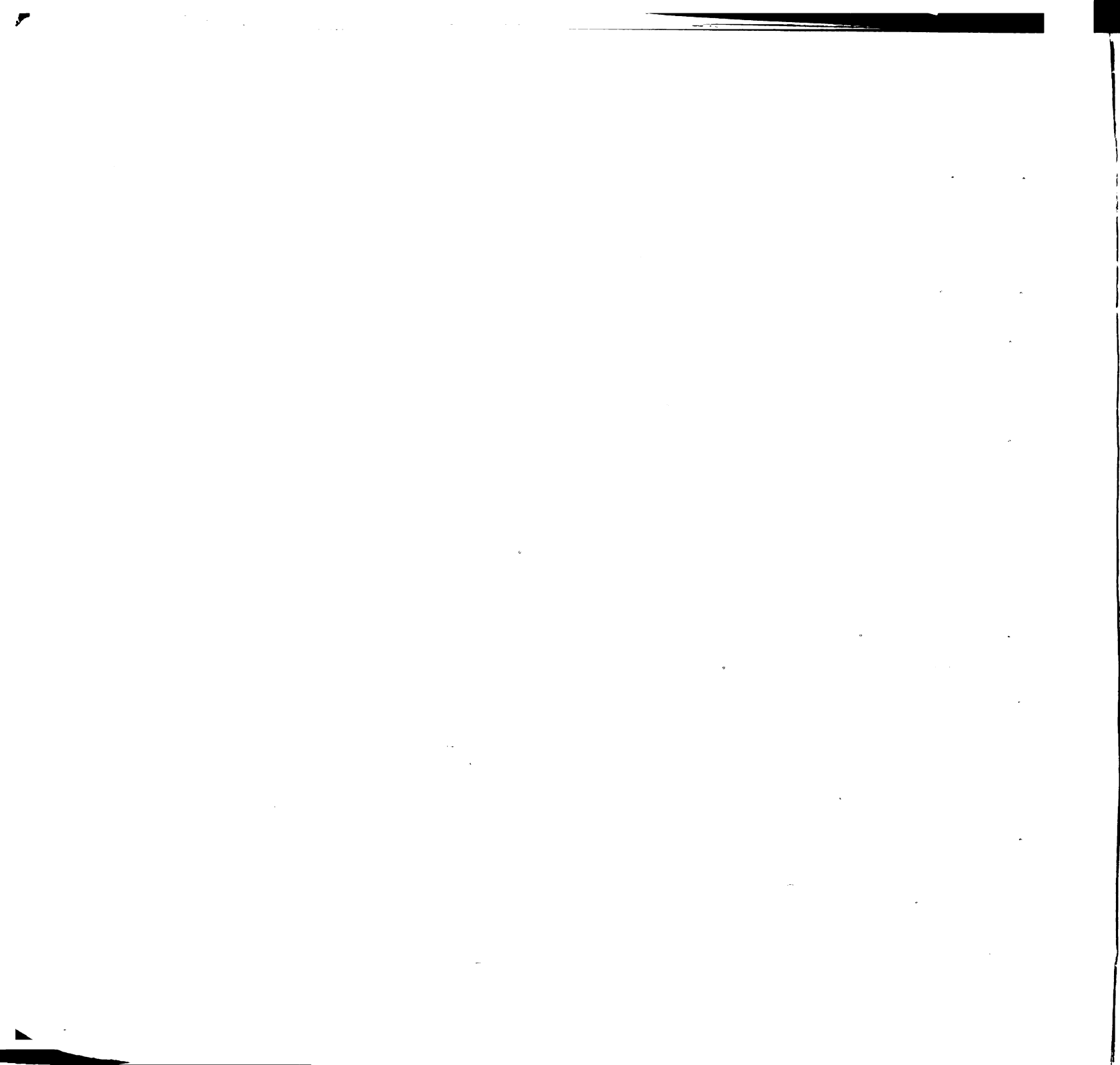
1b. Yes--if answer to 1a is no.

2. Yes

If the answer to 1a is no, every effort should be spent towards extending the university's television programming to cover as many of the state's citizens as possible. This is equally important when a state university owns an educational station.

3. Four or more programs

Many state universities, cooperating with agricultural extension, achieve state-wide coverage for a single series on agriculture. While this is an important first step toward fulfilling the university's obligation to serve the entire state, it should not be considered as more than "a first step." Agriculture is only one interest of the farmer; it may be of no particular interest to the rest of the popu-



lation. An effort should be made to produce series on different subjects so that at least one university program will have interest to each of the state's citizens.

4. There can be no definite percentage given which would apply to all states or to all state universities. However, agriculture should never be more than one-half of the university's television programming.

5. No

Duplication of services is a waste of the taxpayer's money. Consequently, at the sacrifice of "school pride," services of state-owned institutions should not overlap.

CRITERION 3

1. (a, b, and c) Yes

This question is chiefly a "thought provoker," for the principal ways in which television can help the public schools are a, b, and c. If the television activity merely duplicates the educational service already available in every classroom within its coverage area, television is not meeting its obligation to equalize educational opportunity.

2. Yes

Regardless of the size of the television activity, one of the prime obligations is to help equalize educational opportunity by offering university credit-bearing courses.

3. Yes

Since the obligation to instruct is of such importance, the television activity should constantly be making strides toward more and more opportunity to earn high school or university credit by home study.

4. Yes

The "core" subjects are basic to all college curricula; consequently, if the television activity's purpose is to aid the individual in attaining a college education, it is essential that more and more of these subjects are offered by television.

5. Yes

An average of the enrollment fees charged for state university telecourses shows that fees of over \$15 should be carefully scrutinized.

6. No

It would be difficult for any state university to have a written regulation bearing additional restrictions; however, in a number of states, an admission to telecourse credit has a "discretionary element."

7. Yes

Unless university television programming reaches areas where cultural and educational opportunities are not easily attainable, the television activity is not fulfilling this criterion.

8. An answer cannot be given unequivocally.

An attempt should be made to utilize VHF channels in so far as possible, since UHF receivers are found in so few homes.

9. Answer should be yes, but it cannot be stated unequivocally.

There is greater likelihood of there being more UHF receivers in homes which are reached by more than one UHF station.

10. Yes

Attempting to attract listeners to UHF, and to do so at the least possible cost to the audience, would be the obligation of the UHF state university television activity.

CRITERION 4

1. through 6.

The answers to all of these questions should be yes. These questions when stated as exposition are simply steps in good teaching procedure.

7. No

Any elements which distract from the purpose of the program should be eliminated. This is not to say, however, that there should never be elements which might cause the members of the audience to smile or to be amused.

CRITERION 5

The answers to all five questions should be yes.

The educational station is charged by law to cooperate with these organizations and agencies to the fullest extent. Other state university television activity, as the top of the public's educational system, is morally obligated to do likewise.

CRITERION 6

1. Answers to all sections should be yes; for, since adult education is so very important to the state university, the various areas should be covered in state university television activity.

2. The answer for all state university station owners and major participants in a station or network should be yes.

Since those adults over 65 are occupying a larger percentage of the nation's population and since the educational needs and desires of this group may vary from the remainder of the adult population, this group should be given especial consideration in the state university's television programming. This does not mean that if a state university produces only one or two television programs that one of these should deal with "the oldster"; but, in any programming expansion, the needs and problems of this group should be considered.

3. through 5. Yes

These questions deal with the need to cooperate with agencies on campus which are already functioning so that the television activity may implement and supplement already existing functions. The purpose of the state university is to give the best education possible as efficiently as possible and not to promote one activity over another.

6. Yes

Unless the television activity has this cooperation, the audience cannot receive the stimulus of achieving formal recognition for course work completed.

CRITERION 7a

1, 2, and 3 Yes

While working out details for this type of adult programming is not usually a simple process, and this is even more true when there are television coverage problems to be arranged, in-service programming is a most important function of any state university television activity.

4. Yes

5. Active

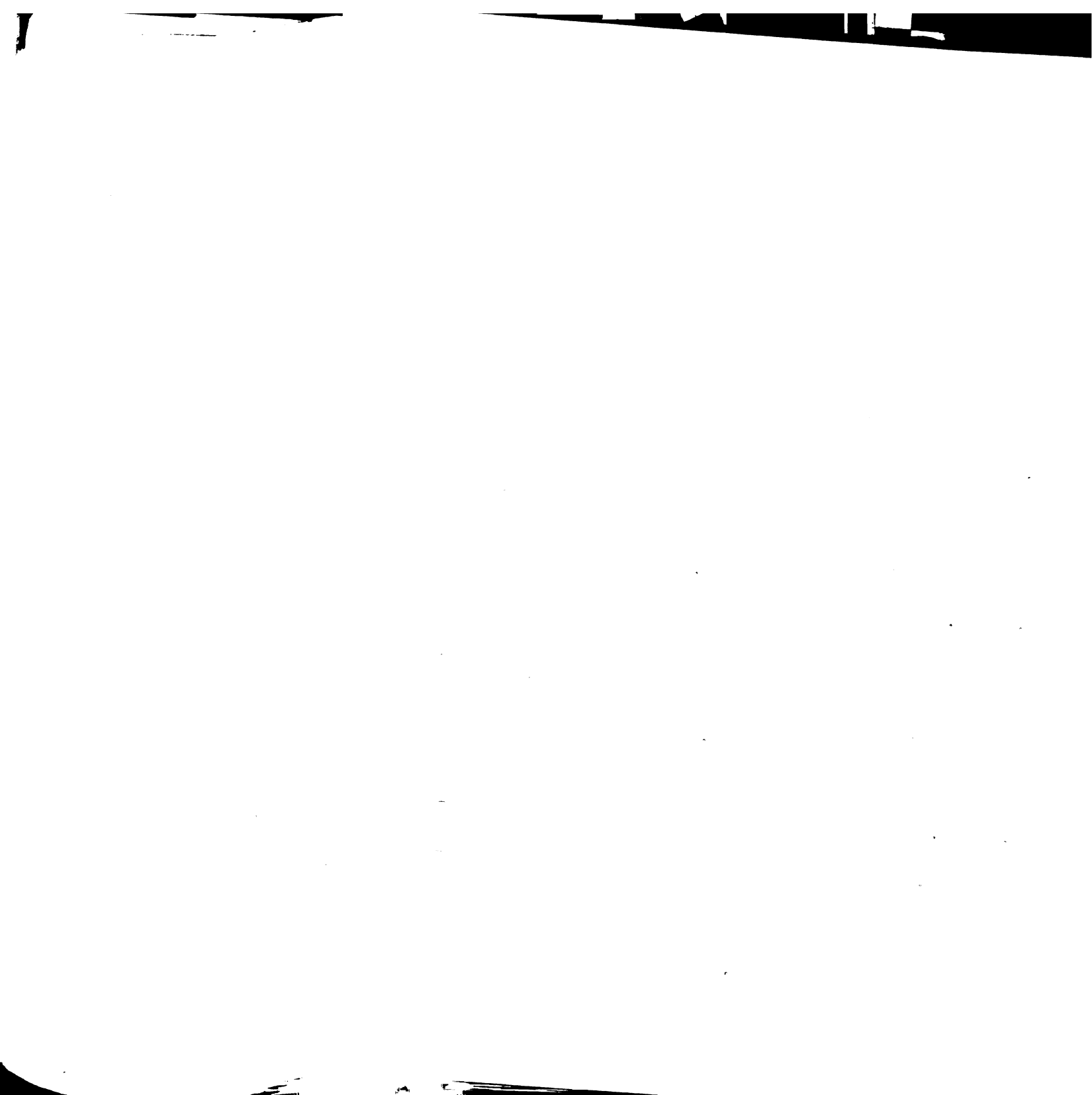
The active cooperation of the organizations most closely associated with the business, industry, or profession helps assure the university of a successful program series--the knowledge of the precise needs of the group, the most up-to-date information on the problem, and a guaranteed audience for the series.

6. and 7. Yes

The very best efforts of the university should be spent so that the opportunity to receive a program of special interest to a person, and designed to help him with his job, will reach a television receiver accessible to him. If the program is successful in helping a person do his work more effectively, one should not unnecessarily be deprived of the opportunity to learn from it.

CRITERION 7b

1. and 2. On campuses where the state university and land-grant college are combined, training should be offered in all three (technical training, production and programming, and research). On those twenty campuses that are state universities, under the precise definition of the term, technical television training would be offered only if the presence of a School of Engineering makes such a step feasible. To the same extent, students should be offered the opportunity to major or "concentrate" in these areas on the state university or land-grant college campus.



2a. Yes 2b. (1) and (2) Yes 3c. Yes 4. Yes

Availability of studio space and equipment for an adequate training program is most important for any state university in attempting to fulfill this criterion. While it has been pointed out that the emphasis on a state university production and programming training program should not be on the accomplishment of certain trade skills, a thorough knowledge of the medium is based on a certain familiarity with the "technics" of the medium, the tools of the trade. All too frequently university closed-circuit facilities are: (a) in such bad repair, (b) available in such a small quantity, and (c) used jointly with programming facilities; consequently, the student training program is virtually shoved aside in the flurry of meeting programming deadlines.

5. Yes

Since all students of television have to cope with problems involving research, it is essential that all receive at least a rudimentary knowledge of research procedures. In that way, if one is not able to conduct the research himself, he will be familiar with its procedures and with what he may expect to find by means of research techniques.

6. Yes

The field of educational programming is becoming increasingly wide. Educators should be preparing others to enter this field and to do new and better programming with startlingly better results. Those students entering commercial television should be trained to do a better job of the educational and public service programming that is scheduled. It is only through the preparation of students for all phases of television programming that one may be sure that he receives the best preparation a university can give today for his whole future of tomorrows.

7. Yes

A state university should not confine its student training to the undergraduate program but should extend the program, gradually, through the graduate levels. This is especially true in the technical and research programs and in the preparation of educational broadcasters.

CRITERION 8a1. Yes1a. Yes1b. Yes

If a university regularly produces television programs, it should have a citizen's advisory committee meeting at regular intervals and appointed by the governor or the president of the university. In order to secure the services of people who might be considered as opinion-molders, it is essential that the appointment come from a high administrative source.

2. and 3. Yes

All too frequently the only advice the television activity asks of the advisory committee is "where can we get more funds"? If a committee feels that fund-raising is to be its primary function, the interest of its members and their help with all the other problems of such an activity will be lost. These people should know the people of their state better than any other representative group that might be assembled; it should be the privilege of the university administration and of the educational broadcaster to answer their questions and to seek their advice.

4. Yes

Regardless of the size of the television activity, it should attempt to show the general public the value that is being received from the monies spent on public higher education and to interest them, directly, in receiving benefit from the university's services.

5. and 6. Yes

It is only through a careful analysis of the people themselves, of their needs and their desires, that a state university television activity can be sure that it is doing the service it was created to perform.

7. Yes

The basic responsibility of the university administration and the educational broadcaster lies with the public; the basic responsibility of the public is to make itself an alert, discriminating audience. Therefore, the university staff should be attempting to teach analysis and criticism of the mass media by providing standards, techniques of analysis, and bases for judgment. Mass media, for the most part, have become centralized--they are now remote from the

people. In order for the people to keep their representation in the mass media, it is necessary for them to develop powers of discernment and to evidence their opinions either with tangible evidence or by the turned dial.

CRITERION 8b

1. Yes

Each of the suggestions for bringing the university television activities to the attention of the public should be used to the fullest extent plus any others which may be invented. For it is only through familiarity with the university's television efforts and through constant reminders of their availability, that the university can hope to serve all who need or want the service it provides.

2. The answer depends on the amount of television activity in which the university is involved.

In any case, with more than one program there should be at least a part-time employee whose duty is to launch promotion and publicity materials at all levels. Such a task cannot be buckled onto an already full academic or television staff position. The person heading up publicity needs training and experience; the job should not be entrusted to student help.

3. Yes

Such an affiliation between high administrative and academic officials and the television activity serves two major functions. (These are not listed in order of importance.)

- (1) It brings the university close to the people of the state when they "become acquainted with" its officials.
- (2) It acquaints the officials with the television activity, its happenings and its problems.

4. Yes

As the apex of all public education, it is the university television activity's obligation to bring the general public closer to the program and the problems of their public schools.

5. Yes

Generally speaking, man is wary of the unknown and

he resists change. It has been definitely proved in commercial radio and television that by having a well-known person, or one familiar to the audience, "heading up" a broadcast that the audience's interest in the program is sustained through to the point where they may accept the program on its own merits--despite unknown faces and unknown subject matter. Therefore, the state university television activity should help its on-the-air personnel meet the audience in whose homes they visit and become well-known throughout the television coverage area.

CRITERION 9

1. through 3. Yes

Research, which is so very important in the mass media, should be one of the major ingredients of any state university television activity. It should be encouraged at every level and by every means available.

4. and 5. Yes

Both the pre-testing of new programs and the evaluation of on-the-air shows are vital in keeping a program schedule full of well-designed, well-produced programs that meet the needs and desires of the state's citizenry.

6. and 7.

A single, definite answer cannot be given as to the number of research personnel a state university should employ in its television activity. However, research needs a well-trained person with responsibility in this area; for, since research needs do not have the "immediacy" of a daily or weekly program, there is a tendency to overlook this important, traditional objective.

8. through 10.

The university should not be satisfied merely to make an educated guess as to the audience it is reaching with its educational programming; it should constantly explore ways of discovering exactly who their audience is, the programs they prefer, and the hours, days, and months that they do most of their viewing.

11. and 12. Yes

While they are the most difficult types of research, depth of effect and cumulative effect of university television programming are undoubtedly the most important types of research in which a state university television activity can engage.

CRITERION 10

1. If a state university is to be at all involved in television activity, it should have quality transcription equipment; for it is through such a device as a kinescope recording, for example, that the university will be able to meet its obligation of service to the state. Furthermore, it is only through these means that the university is able to conserve these materials--special lectures, concerts, etc.--that may have increased value in the near or more distant future.

2. and 3. Yes

A special item in the budget should be set aside for making films, kinescopes, and tapes for either long or short term use. This does not mean that materials should be wasted; for example, film should not be used for programs not quite ready for production. But the university should not be in the position of allowing important programs to go by for the lack of money to preserve them.

4. Yes

If these materials are kept they should be handled and preserved properly so that deterioration is kept at a minimum.

ROOM USE ONLY

~~AUG 16 1961~~

~~DEC 9 1961~~

~~APR 20 1962~~

~~MAY 2 1962~~

~~SEP 1 1962~~

~~DEC 14 1962~~

~~JUN 5 1963~~

~~JUN 1 1964~~

~~JUN 1 1964~~

~~JUN 1 1964~~

~~JUN 1 1964~~