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TOWARDS A PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATIONAL
TELEVISION FOR THE TEACHING
OF ADOLESCENTS

A thesis offered in partial
fulfillment for the degree of
Master of Arts

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INTRODUCTION

In this age of technological specialization, men are moving further and further from a common field of understanding and communication. The chasm that is being created by applied science and technology must be bridged through education. Young minds are being given a mass of facts and figures to help control and subvert the rising tide of technology, but too often, these facts and figures have not been fused into an integrate whole.

The bonding material that will provide the matrix for adhesion of isolated facts must be found in principles and values which young minds can only receive by a search of the truth, and consistently make value judgments that will be in conformity with this goal - truth.

Our age has provided television, a mechanical device which can extend the senses of sight and sound beyond their natural limits. Effectively controlled, television can provide a medium for communicating that will contribute a great deal to the aims of education.

An attempt, therefore, will be made in this study to establish a philosophy of educational television for teaching adolescents. The future of the educative process will be influenced by the mass media of television.

Everybody would like to see the television medium used

effectively. All who are busy evaluating this new media of communication agree that television has a unique and vital role to play in the education of our youth. What this role will be and to what degree television will be used, will somehow or other be determined by the basic questions and answers that are obtained through a thoughtful and thorough analysis of educational television.

This report will begin with a review of current studies carried out in educational television.

After surveying the current writings on educational television, the report will ask basic questions, such as: "Who is man?" "What is the data for man's understanding?" and "How does man arrive at an understanding of this data?"

If answers to the above basic questions are found, then it will be necessary to consider the particular developmental stage of man that is specifically under study - adolescence. There are specific needs and desires that adolescents have that condition to some extent their response. This report will consider briefly, some of these needs, and cater to them in the formulation of a philosophy of educational television.

How man communicates will be under review, and philosophical principles and norms offered to help alleviate faulty communication. For this latter purpose, recourse will be made to some current theories of communication, expounded by men like I. A. Richards, Kenneth Burke, Irving J. Lee and Daniel Fogarty, S.J.

If a philosophy develops from this report, for use in teaching adolescents by educational television, then this philosophy will gradually evolve from all of the component contributions that have been indicated. There will be no all-at-once solution, but even a move in the direction of asking the right questions, is a move towards a basis or foundation for any applied methodology of educational television that is on the horizon.

This report, then, is made up of two sections. Chapter I is a review of some current studies carried out in the area of educational television. Chapter II is a contribution towards a philosophy of educational television for teaching adolescents.

CHAPTER I

HISTORICAL SKETCH OF EDUCATIONAL TELEVISION

The research carried out for this historical sketch of Educational Television has been generally confined to Canada and The United States. There are also included some studies from other English speaking countries.

There was no attempt on the part of the writer to provide a complete review of any of the studies. Such a report would necessitate a separate study, and of course would not significantly further the cause of this theses.

The purpose of this chapter is to summarize pertinent studies. It is the writer's intention to indicate, at least implicitly, that the majority of studies to date have not provided the answers for educational television, which this theses will seek to provide.

Studies in the United States

On April 11, 1952, the Federal Communications Commission of the United States, yielding to the pressures of a joint committee of school and university officials, educational organizations and interested citizens, reserved 267 channels for the exclusive use of non-commercialized

educational television in the United States.¹

The first E.T.V. station, KUHT, Houston, Texas, went on the air May 12, 1953. Today there are fifty-four operative E.T.V. stations in the United States, with nineteen more under construction. In addition, according to the Joint Council on Educational Television², there are more than 150 closed-circuit installations in schools and colleges throughout the United States. A conservative estimate, based on data provided by the Joint Council on Educational Television, is that approximately four and a half million pupils in elementary and secondary schools throughout the United States are receiving some school instruction by means of television. All of this growth has taken place within the short span of nine years: it is only the beginning.

In the United States there is an acute shortage of teachers; the nation employs in the neighbourhood of 170,000, with 90,000 of these teachers not even certified; forty-eight percent of the schools not offering a single course in physics, and forty-three percent of the high schools

¹Teaching by Television, A Report from the Ford Foundation and the Fund for the Advancement of Education (New York: Ford Foundation, 1961), pp. 1-3.

²Ibid.

offering not a single foreign language.³

We further read from a report by Alexander J. Stoddard⁴ that the critical situations facing schools and universities in the United States today are: the finding and training of good teaching staffs; enough school buildings of the right kind and size to handle the swelling school population.

From the reports cited and numerous others that this writer has perused, it seems apparent that educational television in the United States is being groomed to meet the existing shortages of teachers and school units. These uses of educational television, important as they are, do not answer the full evaluation of educational television from studies undertaken to date. Let us now consider particular studies carried out in the field of educational television so that we may add their accumulated information to what has already been reviewed.

We will first refer to a study which amassed considerable statistical information on the effects of commercial television on school children across the United States; a study based on over 6,000 children and carried

³Charles A. Siepman, (Television in Education and Tomorrow,) Canadian Education and Research Digest, Vol. 1, No. 3 (September, 1961), p. 8.

⁴Alexander J. Stoddard, Schools for Tomorrow, (New York: the Fund for the Advancement of Education, May, 1957), p. 14.

out over a three year period.⁵

A controlled experiment of six hundred and twenty-two children was carried out in the Boston area in 1950-1951; half with television and half without, matched with respect to age, sex and socio-economic status. Observed results were that:

1. There was a substitution of television for radio, movies, and reading to a significant extent.
2. Cuts into both outdoor and indoor playing time and in helping with household tasks.
3. Sixty-nine percent of parents generally approved of children's programs as they are; twenty-six percent generally disapproved. Among the best-educated parents, greater percent of disapproval.

On subsequent pages⁶ we find additional evaluations gained through surveys.

The authors suggest from the surveys carried out that the orientation of the experiments should be shifted to finding out how tastes are formed. In addition there should be action taken on the part of parents, schools and councillors to lead children to as great a variety as possible among the appropriate offerings of television. Television can and should contribute to the reality and

⁵Wilbur Schramm, Jack Lyle, Edwin B. Parker, Television in the Lives of Our Children, (California; Stanford University Press, 1961), pp. 1-10.

⁶Ibid., p. 154.

fine arts experiences of children.

The survey also concluded that children were getting an erroneous picture of adult life, therefore, no positive contribution to socialization was being made by television.

As the author Wilbur Schramm says:

...continued exposure to such fare, might unnaturally accelerate the impact of the adult environment on the child and force him into a kind of premature maturity marked by bewilderment, distrust of adults, a superficial approach to adult problems,⁷ or even unwillingness to become an adult.

The preceding information was concerned with commercial television and its effects on school children. What about the limitations and advantages of educational television? There is considerable information available from empirical studies to analyze what has been going on in educational television.

Harold E. Wigren, Educational Television Consultant for the National Education Association, has prepared an information sheet on the limitations and advantages of educational television in the United States. The writer will now list them for the sake of brevity.⁸

Advantages of television instruction:

1. Television can reach large numbers instantly.

⁷Ibid., p. 154.

⁸Letter from Harold E. Wigren (which included a summary of), his report to the National Education Association for 1960-1961, Washington, November 8, 1961.

2. Provides close-ups and broad pictures of the same subject.

3. It is dramatic and thus focusses attention.

4. It is intimate.

5. Presents resources not always available to classroom teacher.

6. It is mobile: not limited to the boundaries of the school, state or nation.

7. Reaches the bedridden and ill.

8. Can use materials too large, too expensive, too dangerous, too cumbersome to be taken into the classroom itself.

9. Shares excellent teachers and resources with smaller centers.

10. Releases teachers from routine duties, thus offering more time for lesson planning and research.

Limitations of television instruction:

1. Difficult to take care of individual differences. It cannot be speeded up for the rigid learner and slowed down for the slower.

2. Initial cost is relatively high compared to most instructional tools.

3. Size of screen is small, making viewing difficult, even with multiple reviewers.

4. At the present time, it is primarily a one-way communication channel.

5. It cannot take into account readiness to learn.

Viewers may not be ready for a specific experience.

6. Creativity and individuality are somewhat stifled.

7. Tendency to focus on teacher rather than learner.

What do leaders in educational circles in the United States have to say about educational television? The following report represents quotations from a few prominent educational leaders:⁹

Nathan M. Pussy, President Harvard University.

... television is, for good or evil, going to make more impact on human minds than any earlier means of communication ... it seems to be clearly important that an effort be made to establish throughout the country a system of educational television.

Charles H. Silver, President, Board of Education, New York City.

... television's power of immediacy, its intimate appeal to children, the effectiveness with which it can pinpoint the smallest detail of whatever it looks at, these are just some of the reasons why we must learn how to fit it into the administration and methodology of our modern schools.

James Killian, President, Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

Educational television should be fed to the minds of the hungry, and stimulate the intellectual appetites of those who have been well fed. ... the transmitters and receiving sets, cannot distinguish good from poor food. It is especially important now a days that the quality of the mental food that is transmitted be good. It then will stimulate the desire for more knowledge and increased excellence.

⁹"What They're saying about Educational Television", (quoted in pamphlet) Education Television and Radio Center, (Michigan, 1960).

John W. Dodds, Professor of English, Stanford University.

... it has a huge potential as a supplement to formal education at all levels, and as a direct medium in the wide field of non-formal, particularly adult, education. The impact of television in itself as an agent of communication is so powerful that its proper use in education must be supported earnestly by all those who have a concern for the intellectual welfare of our people.

As a final evaluation of educational television experiments and studies in the United States, we could consult no better survey on the influence of educational television than the programs carried out by the National Program in the use of television in the public schools.¹⁰

The National Program is a large-scale study of the use of television in school systems across the United States. The program was initiated in 1957, through the combined efforts of the Ford Foundation, along with participating school sections throughout the United States. The program is now in its third year (1959-1960) and encompasses regions from Florida to California and from Central Michigan to Georgia. In all, there are twenty different areas represented in the program - north, south, east and west - all sections of the country. Although their aims are diversified and local, they are all striving to answer one fundamental question: Can television be used as the chief

¹⁰Elmer F. Pflieger, The National Program in the Use of Television in the Public Schools, A Report on the third year of study prepared by the Ford Foundation (New York: May, 1961), pp. 6-9.

medium of instruction for larger than normal classes without reducing the quality of instruction?

From the annual reports submitted to the Ford Foundation by the members of the National Program we will summarize the following conclusions.¹¹

All the participating school centers used control groups (classroom taught) with which to compare their experimental television classes. Differences between the experimental and control groups were taken into account through analysis of covariance.

In the third year (1959-1960) of the National Program, 165 comparisons favoured the television groups, and 87 comparisons favoured the control groups. Over the three years, 330 of the comparisons favoured the television experimental groups and 185 favoured the control groups. Of these numbers, 119 were statistically significant in favour of the television experimental groups and 44 were statistically significant in favour of the control groups.

Before turning to studies in educational television carried out in Canada we should indicate an important difference between programing in United States television and other countries, particularly Canada. In the United States all television networks are privately owned, as a consequence, unless closed-circuit television was used exclusively, they would have to reach a working agreement

¹¹Ibid., pp. 49-50.

with commercial networks. This problem is not so formidable in Canada.

Studies in Canada

Let us take cognizance of two essential differences between educational television in the United States and Canada which effect their experimentation in this field.¹²

The teacher shortage, although acute in Canada, is not as pronounced as the teacher shortage in the United States, at least quantitatively.

Television programing in the United States is largely a private network venture. Here in Canada, the government owned Canadian Broadcasting Corporation handles most of the televizing to the Canadian public. The few privately owned television stations are still under the licence and jurisdiction of the B.B.G.

The conclusion offered by Dr. Stewart¹³ was that educational television in Canada was being pursued as an enrichment programming source for the schools and a means of furthering Adult Education in Canada.

At the request of the Canadian Education Association, the C.B.C. with the advice of the National Advisory Council on School Broadcasting undertook the production of eight experimental television programs which were transmitted to

¹²Andrew Stewart, "Some Observations on ETV in Canada," Canadian Education and Research Digest, Vol. 1, No. 3, (September, 1961), pp. 35-36.

¹³Ibid., p. 37.

the schools of Canada. This experiment began in November, 1954, the launching date of educational television in Canada.¹⁴

The initial study was for purposes of general curriculum enrichment covering subjects for grades five to eight, including history, literature, art and social studies. The overall result as reported by Dr. Rainsberry and the National Advisory Board was inconclusive, if anything, overcautious. No definite evaluation could be made.

Every second year since 1954, that is 1956, 1958, 1960, experimental programs have been offered by the C.B.C.¹⁵ Since 1958, the programming has been extended to cover all ten provinces and the curriculum courses broadened to cover primary (grades 2 and 3), junior (grades 4,5,6), and intermediate (grades 7 and 8).

At the end of the 1960 series of broadcasts a questionnaire was circulated to Canadian teachers. Of the 756 questionnaires returned:¹⁶

22% - rated the series high as a teaching aid.

56% - rated it medium.

15% - rated it low.

7% - no opinion.

¹⁴F. B. Rainsberry, "ETV: The Role of the C.B.C.," School Progress in Canada, Vol. 30, No. 12, (December, 1961), p. 37.

¹⁵Ibid., p. 39.

¹⁶Ibid., p. 40.

High rating because:

1. A good level of student interest maintained.
2. Contained a suitable amount of teaching material.
3. High professional performance.
4. Programming was good and receivers were well placed.

Low rating because:

Programs were not sufficiently academic.

The results of these programs have still to be evaluated conclusively, however, we might reach some conclusion from this statement made by Bruce F. Attridge, (a producer with the C.B.C.), which I quote:

The data available on educational television has been largely attendant upon projects and programs planned to solve administrative needs, the research has had an operational character from the beginning. By and large the models developed have been immediately useful, therefore, to administrators.

... Research in educational television should be unriveted from these administrative needs and applied to an emboldened and enlarged concept of continuity in the learning process and to the nature of the school experience within that continuity. ¹⁷

In Canada, we have not carried out experimentation in instructional television beyond the trial and error stage of airing a program and awaiting the public response, at least, one cannot find a more meaningful experience from the C.B.C. productions to date.

¹⁷Bruce F. Attridge, "A Producer Looks at Research", Canadian Education and Research Digest, Vol. 1, No. 3., (September, 1961), p. 64.

On a local and provincial level, there has been more progress made towards useful educational programming making use of the C.B.C. facilities in some cases. Among these specific studies are the following:¹⁸

1. A special educational television course is being offered at Ryerson Institute in Toronto, covering such training as script writing, make-up, stage sets and production. This is a preparatory course for teachers who will carry out televised instruction.

2. The University of Toronto in collaboration with the C.B.C. are producing a 24 week course in Russian, leading to credit in the first year arts course at the university.

3. At McMaster University in Hamilton, courses are given through the local television outlet towards a Bachelor of Arts degree.

In Halifax, Nova Scotia, in 1958, the local city school board carried out an educational television program in the schools of the city.¹⁹

There were a number of aims set as a target for the study; this summary will deal with the prevailing objective: "to evaluate teacher and pupil response to television as a teaching aid in the classroom".

¹⁸A. F. Knowles, "Meta's Story", Canadian Education and Research Digest, Vol. 1, No. 3, (September, 1961) pp. 71-73.

¹⁹Interview with Morris Keating, Superintendent of Halifax City Schools, May 5, 1960.

The programs were adapted to the Provincial curriculum and the course of instruction was for Grade VI Science, Grade VI geography and Grade VIII mathematics. Questionnaires were sent out to the classroom teachers who answered the general question: "Do you believe from the lessons you have watched that this type of teaching is effective?"

55.5% answered - yes.

44.1% answered - no.

The general conclusions on the part of the administration are as follows:

Advantages

1. It is primarily a teaching aid and used as an aid it has tremendous possibilities.
2. Improvement for poorly qualified teachers and areas lacking experienced classroom teachers.
3. Assistance is offered to inexperienced teachers in watching specialist teachers at work.

Disadvantages

1. More integration with the regular work of the class is necessary. Classroom teachers may have to be provided with lesson outlines for best results.
2. More cooperation and understanding is necessary between teacher and television producer.
3. Master teacher plan seems to have a limited use; other methods of television teaching could be more effective

for certain subjects. (ex: Social Studies)

In conclusion, it is to be noted, that Canada has not kept pace with the United States in introducing educational television instruction. This conservative attitude is due, as we tried to indicate, to different incentives and motivations, however, in the long run it may prove to be the best procedure, since there are a lot of questions which remain to be answered.

Miscellaneous Studies from other English Speaking Countries Great Britain

A comprehensive report²⁰ on the effect of educational television on children was the following study carried out during 1955 and 1956 in England. The main sample consisted of 946 thirteen-and fourteen-year-olds and 908 ten-and eleven-year-olds. Half of each group were viewers of television, half were not viewers. They were all carefully matched as to age, sex, I.Q. and social class. The geographical areas were London, Bristol, Portsmouth and Suderland.

Conclusions:

1. How many hours per week do children view television? About twelve to thirteen hours - more than on any other leisure activity.
2. Lower viewing among those with higher intelligence,

²⁰Hilde Himmelweit, A. N. Oppenheim and Pamela Vince, Television and the Child, (London: Oxford University Press, 1958), pp. 298-330.

active life, and with close parental companionship.

3. The children watched many adult programs.

4. One channel which has restricted programming, found that children's tastes can be developed towards programs they would not ordinarily choose themselves.

5. To what extent is the children's outlook colored by what he sees on television? The values of television make an impact if they are presented in dramatic form, if they touch on ideas or values for which the child is emotionally ready, and if the child cannot turn for information on the same points to parents and friends.

Australia

Moving across to the other side of the world we have a brief report from Australia from a study carried out in the effects of the western film via television on the youth of the country.²¹

Western films were shown to children through the television film and evidence of responsive behaviour was collected by use of the Rosenzweig Picture Frustration test.

Conclusions:

1. Evidence was detected of "perceptual defense" against possible shock from such a film.

2. Identification with hero, who seemed more dynamic and effective after the film, probably dissipated much of

²¹F. E. Emery and David Martin, Psychological Effects of the Western Film - A study in television viewing, (Melbourne: University of Melbourne release, 1957) pp. 1-10.

the anxiety resulting from the film's "stress-laden themes".

There are many surveys from all of the countries reported on that were not considered in this resume. The writer would refer anyone who is interested in additional studies carried out in educational television to the bibliographic section of this theses, where a list of additional references is given.

The selections chosen typified the type of research available for evaluation. The writer endeavoured, at all times, to make the selection portray the true picture of research to date.

CHAPTER II

A Philosophy of Educational Television

For the Teaching of Adolescents

The mass communication media of television holds out to educators an opportunity for a scientific revolution in the field of teaching and learning.

The educative process is still based on information gained from the printed word. Textbooks become obsolete almost before they are off the press. The teacher, with textbook in hand, goes down to the classroom to teach, but finds to his dismay, a different kind of student. The student who sits and waits today is a product of our modern day electronic age, filled with vivid and stimulating images gained through the prime persuader of the mass communication field - television.

Television is not a way of education,²² it is not a process, but a means of conveyance, neither good or bad in itself. Television, however, has the instrumentations to take the student on a world tour in a matter of minutes, introduce the student to the originators of lasting thoughts, of prolific skills and talents, men of truth and wisdom.

²²Philip Lewis, Educational Television Guidebook, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co. Inc., 1961), p. 1.

Television can make education dynamic, offering concrete visual images to the adolescents which should narrow the gap between limited meanings of the thing and the thing itself, furthering truer perception and conceptualizing. Television can take advantage of and enhance the true development of man's unique symbolic talent - the power of speech.

All of the advantages of television for educating are based on the premise that television be used effectively. This leads directly to the purpose of this study - a philosophy of educational television.

The opening paragraphs to this chapter have introduced several terms that have varied connotations in current usage, connotations, which must be established for this report, before we may proceed.

Educational television, therefore, will be considered as the use of the television medium to further the learning process for adolescents, by giving to the adolescent sound and true mental images, which will lead to understandings for the adolescent.

Television will be the medium employed to give understandings to adolescents and since television is a communicative device; then this study will be concerned with faulty communication and how to correct this condition. It is necessary to have an understanding of the term communication. The meaning which best suits the purpose of this study is one used by Daniel Fogarty, S. J.

Communication ... is that science and art which provides understandings of the basic presuppositions underlying the functions of discourse, makes use of the findings of literature and science, and teaches the individual how to talk and write, listen and read, in the ways that will suit his needs.²³

In view of the succinct meaning given to communication by Father Fogarty, which is adopted for this report, educational television can be considered communication. There is also an inherent philosophy indicated in Father Fogarty's meaning of the term which will be clarified in the pages that follow.

Meaning now must be given to the term "adolescent", since he is the recipient of all that educational television has to offer. There is a wide choice of authorities to draw upon for the connotation of the term adolescent; the reference here is to a description given by Alexander A. Schneiders.

An adolescent is an individual who is "bounded" on the one side by childhood and on the other by adulthood or maturity. It is therefore a period of transition, a time when the individual is no longer a child, nor yet an adult. It is also a period of continuous development marked by changes and growths in all aspects of personality.²⁴

The insights provided for the central terms around which this report will revolve will perhaps be sufficient

²³Daniel Fogarty, Roots for a New Rhetoric, (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1959), p. 134.

²⁴Alexander A. Schneiders, The Psychology of Adolescence, (Milwaukee: The Bruce Publishing Company, 1951), p. 8.

to permit an introduction to the theme of this report - a philosophy of educational television for the teaching of adolescents.

A philosophy of educational television is concerned with the principles that govern, or should govern, the medium of television in its use as a communication instrument for educative pursuits, directed towards the teaching of adolescents.

There are many and varied facets of educational television that are currently being studied, (see chapter 1) many of which deserve study. But the basic philosophical concepts underlying a discipline or field of knowledge must be given prime importance. This report therefore, will not consider a number of involvements connected with educational television such as: different means of televising, production, costs, to name a few since they would exceed the purpose here proposed. However, insofar as these facets of the television medium have a bearing on the philosophical aims in this study, then, to that degree will there be involvement.

What will follow then will be an attempt to provide educational television with aims and objectives, principles and norms that will steer this teaching method towards truth. Since this philosophy is equally applicable to the receiver of the communication, then the adolescent will have measuring instruments provided by the philosophy in order to critically evaluate what is true from that which is false. This

purpose will be greatly enhanced through the instrumentation of television, since it can give to the adolescent a representative of the thing in the form of a concrete vivid image, as well as communicate by means of articulate verbal sounds.

It remains only to indicate the organization or procedure which will be followed before beginning.

Chapter II begins with a study about man, and as with any philosophical study, the question will be asked, "what is man?" The answer to this question involves his ultimate end and purpose which will condition all utterances that follow:

After positing an understanding of man we will next consider the adolescent, whom it will be seen, has his own particular problems associated with this stage of development. Educational television will be offered as a partial answer to these problems.

Some theories of communication will be elucidated, wherein substance can be found to pave the way for the philosophy of educational television. The teacher's understandings and responsibilities must be increased to carry out effective educational television. There should be some information in this report for the teacher's role in the new medium.

Some Understandings About Man

Philosophy is concerned with asking fundamental

questions and seeking basic answers about the nature of a thing, in other words, asking what it is and why it is?²⁵

A question is directed towards something which can be known or something that is, otherwise, there could be no data for inquiry. The object of questions, or that something which can supply answers is referred to as being.²⁶ Being may be contingent and particular, answering to the needs of some questions, or it may be ontological, that is, being can be the answer to all the questions that could possibly be asked. The latter aspect of being, that is, when being is referred to as the totality of all that is, answers for Christians their understanding of God.

The dependency or contingency of being would allow for a search for ultimate being, but this search would necessarily have to fall short of complete knowledge of all that is. It would follow that the ultimate goal of knowledge and of education is unlimited as long as questions can be asked and answers have to be found. Being in all its aspects, immediate and ultimate, can also be considered under the aspect of truth, since truth can be nothing more or less than a direct conformity to what is, or being.

The next inquiry should lead into who should ask the questions? Man is the only contingent being capable of

²⁵"Philosophy", The Oxford International Dictionary, 4th. ed, p. 1488.

²⁶Bernard J. Lonergan, Insight, (New York: Philosophical Library, 1957), p. 4.

making rational inquiries into being or concrete reality; he can search for truth through an epistemological inquiry or a theory of knowledge. Man, therefore, is the knower, it is he who has the power of articulate speech, who can draw out the intelligibility of a thing and by abstraction arrive at the true meaning of reality or being.

How does man arrive at truth or reality? A child at the dawn of reason will begin to ask questions through an innate sense of wonder. This wonder which is part of man's nature, would seem to be a necessary part of man's rational nature, since without these questions on the part of a child, the conclusion would be that the child is retarded, or at the extreme an imbecile. These questions are directed towards being or reality, the sensible concrete world therefore, provides the data or thing for inquiry. Man shares this look or orientation towards the sensible with all animals and this initial response is called sensation.

The process of knowledge so far, has taken place on the sensible level, and at this point in the inquiry man's essential rational nature moves beyond the sensible into the intelligible. The image or sign forms more than an indication of things for man, but they form representations of the thing itself.²⁷

²⁷ Susanne K. Langer, Philosophy in a New Key, (New York: The New American Library, 1958), p. 37.

Animals stop their inquiry at the sensible level, the image or sign provides a representative for further inquiry for man. It cannot be overemphasized for purposes of education and particularly educational television, that the image of representation of the thing, forms for man the source of all of his intelligent inquiry.²⁸ Man moves now into the area of insight, which is taking a look at the image and asking the question, "Is this a true representation of the concrete reality that is under inquiry?" There will be clusters of insights from this question, conditioned and reinforced by prior knowledge and experiences, taking in the total psychological and emotional experiences of the man who inquires. If the insights that a man has into the perception are sufficiently complete and can answer the question, what is it? - then man has drawn out intelligibility from the sign and can communicate or verbalize the thing. At this point in the knowing process man has an idea or concept of the thing.

A concept²⁹ or understanding of the thing, does not posit the truth or falsity of the thing for man. This leads to a further reflective area or the area of rational judgment. After considering the understanding that he has, man takes a good look into the conditions or condition that gave him his understanding, (another look

²⁸Lonergan, op.cit., p. 6.

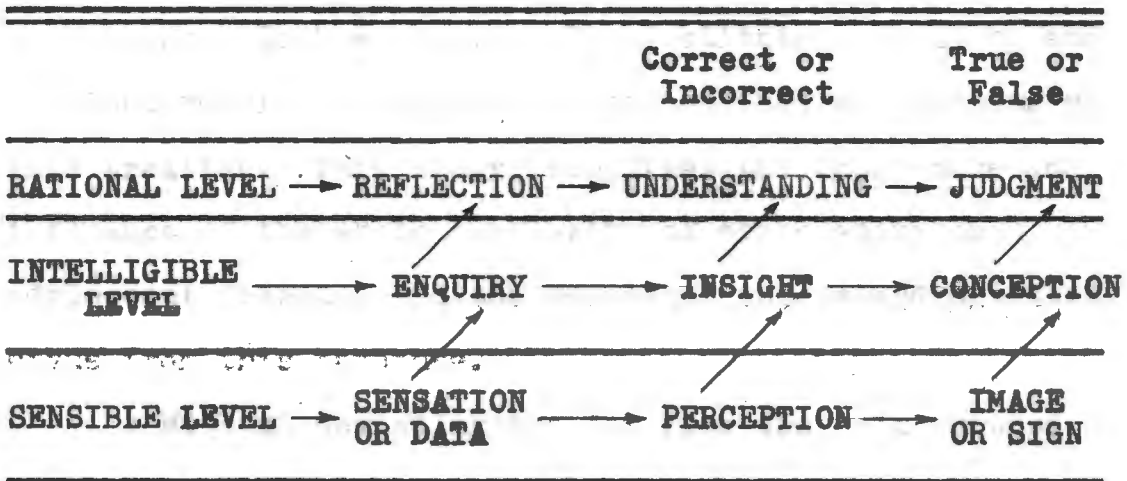
²⁹Ibid., p. 7.

at the image), and then passes a judgment, a self-commitment as to the truth or falsity of the object of inquiry. It is this final judgment that posits the truth or falsity of the thing.

The following diagram will help to recapitulate the process graphically.³⁰

FIGURE 1

DIAGRAM OF METAPHYSICAL PROCESS



The diagonal arrows indicate the direction in which the process moves to final judgment. Most of the adolescent intellectual activity is in the areas of the sensible and intelligible, as can be seen from the above diagram.

³⁰H. J. Labelle, S.J., "Philosophy of Education" (unpublished lecture notes, Saint Mary's University, 1958), p. 5.

Adolescent Adjustment

Adolescence³¹ is a term reserved for the stage of life in man's development when he has left childhood and has not yet reached maturity.

Is there distinctive behaviour or response to reality on the part of the adolescent? To answer this question fully would require a preamble on all facets of adolescent psychology, taking in physical, motivational, social, as well as the intellectual development of the adolescent. Such a study would constitute a separate and distinct report, quite out of the confines and purpose of this treatise. This study recognizes the importance and influence of the whole complexity of personality on adolescent response and the resultant understandings that ensue from this response.

Without deviating too far from the main purpose of the report, which is a philosophy of educational television for teaching adolescents, an attempt will be made to highlight the main needs and desires of adolescence. These needs should point the way to the specific principles and norms which must be inculcated in a philosophy of educational television, if it is to serve the needs of the adolescent.

Briefly, then, adolescents as a general age group,

³¹Schneiders, op.cit., p. 8.

have to make adjustments to the following.³²

1. Physiological needs

Activity is perhaps the most significant physiological need for adolescence. The energy of youth must be directed towards acceptable conduct, otherwise the need for action may manifest itself in acts that would be socially and morally reprehensible.

2. Need for security

The adolescent is unsure of himself, and since he is just beginning to take his place in society at large, he may retreat from society if dealt with too harshly. Responsibility must be learned gradually over a period of years from childhood, not abruptly during the years of transition. This has particular significance for learning, especially by means of television, since a retreat from the social sphere and responsibility, is a retreat from reality. The result is a fantasy world of unreality, leading to perpetual false judgments.

3. Need for independence

There is also a need on the part of the adolescent for emotional, volitional and

³²Timothy Gannon, Psychology: The Unity of Human Behaviour, (Boston: Ginn & Company, 1954), pp. 436-439.

intellectual independence and the freedom of action which this independence makes possible. Independence is needed as much as security, and of particular significance for this report is volitional independence, or the opportunity for the adolescent to make and adhere to his own decisions. Youth must have an opportunity to exercise independent judgment, to gain experience in intelligent deliberation. Security and independence go hand in hand, the adolescent should be given the chance to make decisions under the guidance and security of a mature person.

4. The need for Integrity or Worth

In adolescence there is a growing awareness of personal worth and dignity, attributes which belong to all men worthy of the name. This again must be handled delicately; older people should respect the adolescents' personal thoughts and feelings and indicate confidence and trust in their achievements.

This by no means exhausts the multiple adjustments of the adolescence period, but should give some insight into the complexity of adolescent learning and communication. Communication that is true and correct must somehow or other compete and win over the adolescent to authentic understandings through the maze of physical, emotional and social conflicts

that are hampering his thinking.

The next question to be considered is: Do intellectual capacities, like concept formation, judgment and reasoning also develop during adolescence? In the operation of the intellect, the concept and judgment follow perception, insight and understanding, as was previously related.³³ They were considered to belong to the rational level of knowing, consequently they are the domain primarily of a mature mind. This is not to say that adolescents are incapable of carrying out rational judgments, as a matter of fact, the Stanford-Bizet test³⁴ given to adolescents, have some of their items based on the capacities to form judgments and inferences.

However, one must keep in mind, that the knowledge of an adolescent is limited in scope. The narrowness of his experiences and the general dynamism of his age, indicate that emotions, prejudices and wishes are a strong influence on any judgment that he would make. Critical analysis and judgment making on the rational level can come a little later in life for the average adolescent; the immediate job is to present clear and true perceptions and images to the adolescent, so that he can formulate concepts and understandings that are true. This job can be done effectively through educational television, as this

³³Lonergan, loc.cit.

³⁴Schneiders, op.cit., p. 127.

report will indicate. There is a necessity, of course, for guidance towards self appropriation for youth, which is the responsibility of authentic teachers. This area, the role of the teacher, will also be considered as we evolve a philosophy of educational television.

Alexander Schneiders has something to say about the responsible and right of the teacher to make judgments for adolescents, from which the following is taken:

Whether it is good or bad to indoctrinate from the psychological viewpoint, depends entirely on the nature of the determining tendencies and the response itself. If the response thus practically determined is socially, biologically and psychologically beneficial, or of principles or ideals of a high order, then it doesn't matter whether the choice is of the free will or is determined. ³⁵

The implications contained in the above statement for teachers speaks for itself.

The period of adolescence is one immediately directed towards maturity, maturity of mind and body. The area of abstraction, the rational level, is a new and hazardous road for the adolescent without the proper experiences born out of true and real images. The guiding hand of the mature teacher should always be close at hand to lead the adolescent from understandings to interpretive response of a free and self-sustained nature. If there is some appreciation of the adolescent here for the philosophical principles that follow then it must be that adolescents need

³⁵Schneiders, op.cit., p. 127.

first of all correct understandings of reality. The will is the agent of judgment and as a principle of choice can only act on the cognitive choices that are presented for judgment. It can be seen that the whole cognitive process is a buildup from sensation on the sensible level to judgments on the rational level. If the initial symbol or intelligible form drawn out of the sensation or thing is incorrect, then all the other intellectual functions will be incorrect. The purpose of this report will be to correct, as far as possible, the image or symbol offered to the intellect and then bring about a conformity of the object under inquiry and the concept or idea that is inferred from this object.

Communication Is All Important

One of the absolute necessities of life for man is contact with his fellow men. This interaction is necessary to perpetuate knowledge, transfer information, tell others what he thinks, receive in turn their responsive understandings and generally act in accordance with his essential rational nature. Communication³⁶ is the term used to describe how man gets in touch with his fellow men.

The instrumentations of communication can best be described by the term symbol, in the sense that is used by I. A. Richards, when he says:

³⁶Fogarty, op.cit., p. 3.

For words, arrangements of words, images, gestures, and such representations as drawings or mimetic sounds, we use the term symbols.³⁷

Considering this interpretation of symbol, man can be described as a symbol user. The understandings arrived at through intellectual dialectic therefore, must be formulated through symbolistic acts if man is to communicate his thoughts. All of the above symbolic means are used by man but words in the form of language,³⁸ have a central part to play in human communication.

It is through language that man generally fulfills his need of communication, since language caters particularly to the abstractive processes of man. In keeping with this report, the communicative process will now be directed towards the adolescent stage of development.

Since the adolescent is more or less a neophyte in the area of abstractive or rational understandings, communication must provide clear and vivid symbols for adolescent conceptualizing. Obviously, when the symbol that stands in reference for the object under inquiry, is as close to coinciding with the object as is possible, then the adolescent has an opportunity to grasp the true meaning of the object.

³⁷C. K. Ogden and I. A. Richards, The Meaning of Meaning, (London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, Ltd., 1923), p. 47.

³⁸Ibid.

I. A. Richards concurs with this view,³⁹ when he speaks of language that is supported by gestures being a more perfect means of communication. He further states, in the same sequence of thought, that we can know more perfectly what has occurred if a scene is well re-enacted, than if it is merely described.

Susanne K. Langer⁴⁰ gives corroboration to this understanding when she speaks of the need to have the image or symbol charged with detail and completeness, making the reference unequivocally congruent with the object.

If the adolescent could be directly confronted with the object of inquiry and be given the opportunity to converge on the object with all his senses at play, then surely this would afford him the clearest and truest symbol for understanding. This actual contact is understandably an impossible condition to achieve, even in the life time of an individual, let alone the few short years of adolescent development.

There is in our present day an electronic apparatus that can extend the senses of sight and sound beyond their natural limits - this apparatus is television. By television's association of the twin senses of hearing and seeing, coupled with the vital quality of immediacy, television as

³⁹Richards, op.cit.

⁴⁰Langer, op.cit., p. 57.

a communication medium surpasses every other known to man.⁴¹ This is the medium that can give the drama, the vitally clear images, that the adolescent must build upon if his thinking is to ascend the ladder of abstraction to rational deliberation and judgment. If personal contact with the object of inquiry is not always possible, then television would appear to fulfill the nearest approach to personal contact.

If form representations in images cause less ambiguity than words, there is still the necessity to provide for the adolescents unique communicative response - the power of speech, Susanne K. Langer states this idea very well when she says:

Speech is the readiest active termination of that basic process in the human brain which may be called symbolistic transformation of experiences.⁴²

It is through speech that language is expressed, thought content is communicated and man can interact with his fellow men. The printed word offers a medium of language communication, but most languages have been able to survive only because they are rooted in common speech. The spoken word then is the real life blood of language or as indicated by Charlton Laird:

⁴¹Alexander J. Stoddard, Schools of Tomorrow, A Report to the Fund for the Advancement of Education, New York, May, 1957. Prepared by the Ford Foundation (New York: 1957), p. 27.

⁴²Langer, op.cit., p. 48.

Language lives and grows as spoken language. ... Language was invented as a spoken language, and during the greater portion of its existence it was only a spoken language, because only in relatively recent times could anybody read or write. Originally and therefore basically, language was spoken language.⁴³

The place of language as basically expressed through verbal symbols was made here to indicate that knowledge that is based on the monarchy of print or considers that education can be conducted in terms of one language or medium at a time is archaic.⁴⁴ Today, as never before, the printed word must share human attention with the newer languages of the mass media, particularly television.

Marshall McLuhan states the case for the new language in these words:

The world of electronic information movement is an all-at-once world. That is why in accepting it at all we abandon some of the assumptions of printing which include one-thing-at-a-timeness and indicate that words shall have one meaning at a time, and that discourse shall move one plane at a time.⁴⁵

Mr. McLuhan goes on to state that the printed word served adequately our communicative needs, when printing and industrial processes were paralled, but today, in this age of advanced technology, educational procedure must keep pace with the living language, the spoken language.

⁴³Laird, op.cit., p. 104.

⁴⁴Marshall McLuhan, "Grammars for the Newer Media" Communication in General Education, Ed. Earl J. McGrath, Shoemaker, Foredale. (Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Co., 1960), Part 1,2, p.25.

⁴⁵Ibid., p. 21

The impact of new inventiveness is always strongly received by the most receptive and vital group in a society - the youth of that society. Adolescents today approach their world using language derived from several media and often have prior knowledge of the world we live in that has not yet been exposed in print. Television once more can provide the newer media, the new language that can keep in harmony with the instant and changing conditions that are part of this modern age, keeping in tune with and perpetuating man's unique symbolic utterance - the power of speech.

There can be no inherent evil in a piece of machinery. Television is spoken of today as if it had the persuasions and voice of a demi-god, reaching out to engulf the youth of a nation with licentious purposefulness. As a machine it is man made, man manipulated, consequently man is the potential of good or evil behind the use to which television will be put. On subsequent pages philosophical guides will be offered for the correct orientation of this new and dramatic medium.

As Father Fogarty indicates:

The simultaneity of the reactions to communication of news, opinions, information and entertainment, demands that young people be trained in critical abilities that will make them aware of and responsible for the means of controlling the mass media. ⁴⁶

⁴⁶Fogarty, op.cit., pp. 128-129.

Effective television then is offered as a partial answer to faulty communication in the education of adolescents. Before considering some theories of communication it would be well to examine just what is meant by faulty communication.

The period of adolescent was explained as a period of change and flux.⁴⁷ For the adolescent to think clearly, he must suppress many biological, sociological and psychological drives that are in competition with the rational movement towards being and truth.

In reflecting on the epistemological structure of man⁴⁸ and the adolescent in particular, the central task for the operation of the intellect is to bridge the gap between word-thought-thing relationships. Comparing these terms with the thinking process: the word stands for the symbol or the form of the thing that is drawn out; the thought is the group or cluster of insights that the individual has about the symbol in the process of conceptualizing. I. A. Richards describes the area of thought as the whole complex network of psychic, emotional and biological events that the individual may have about the thing under question.⁴⁹ The thing is self explanatory; it is the object of inquiry, that which the individual is

⁴⁷Gannon, loc.cit., pp. 12-13.

⁴⁸Lansrgan, loc.cit., pp. 1-9.

⁴⁹Richards, op.cit., p. 11.

trying to understand.

The thought or conception of what a thing is, has to be in conformity with the thing, otherwise our conception would be false and any judgments that follow would be false. There is necessarily a relationship between the thought and the thing and between the thought and the word that stands for the thing. The crux of the problem in communication would lie in a faulty understanding that there is a relationship between words and things. Man receives concrete sensible stimuli, but through his active intellect, draws out the intelligibility or form of the sensible and makes it understandable. It is the symbol that is our reference for understanding, the word, which stands in place of the thing. Any ambiguity in communication follows from this false idea that the word and the thing are directly related. The word teacher can mean: "the warden", "higher taxes", "a responsible individual doing a responsible job", or "a ward of the state". It depends on who is thinking about it, whether it is the student, a responsible citizen, a municipal council, with a new sewerage system to put in, or the teacher himself. Richards sums up the faulty relationships between words and things:⁵⁰

We shall find, however, that the kind of simplification typified by this once universal theory of direct meaning relations between words and things is the source of

⁵⁰Ogden and Richards, op.cit., p. 12.

almost all the difficulties which thought encounters.

This gives all the more reason to have the closest connection possible between the thing and the word. Conformity among peers is a strong tendency in adolescence and there is reason to believe⁵¹ that a common background of meanings for teenagers exists, if this is understood, greater facility of communication between the adolescent and the teacher can be developed. The new language of television should help the student to look with words as well as at them. A choice of words which will effectively ask the right questions can go a long way to clearing up faulty communication. Words therefore are mere vehicles which can be used to convey thought content, the problem is to have the receiver of the communication understand the word to mean what the sender had intended it to mean. Both the sender and receiver have their own contextual fields to draw on, to give meaning to the word and only a portion of these respective fields are in mutual and common context.

A clearer understanding of what happens during the process of communication can be arrived at by referring to a diagrammatic sketch.⁵²

⁵¹William F. Lynch, The Image Industries (New York: Sheed Publishing Company, 1959), p. 69.

⁵²Daniel Fogarty, S.J., Roots for a New Rhetoric, (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1959), p. 138.

FIGURE 2

CHARTING THE DIRECTION OF COMMUNICATION

A - Sender

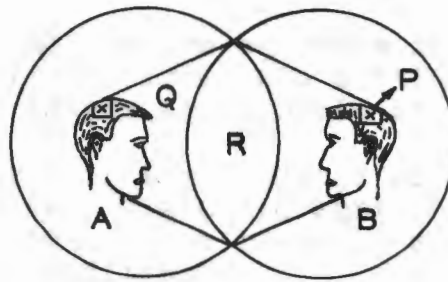
B - Receiver

Q - Restricted sense
of definition
suitable to both
A and B.

P - Reduction and
partial context
of B.

X - Message (idea - "street")

R - common context where A and B
have mutual understanding



The mutual field of understanding, denoted by the letter, "R", is the area in which "A" and "B" have a meeting of minds, or have mutual communication. There is always so much that interferes with this sector of commonality, and the adolescent stage of life certainly does not lead itself to concentrated attention to cooperative understanding for any great length of time.

Communication has its inherent problems, but if a method can be found to keep communication within the area of mutual understanding, "R", then a big step has been taken towards clear and true communication.

Television has much to offer in correcting faulty communication for adolescents. Some of the advantages over the printed word are the following:⁵³

1. Live telecasts of events actually taking place before our eyes.
2. We see, hear and feel that we are on the scene.
3. A means of enjoying an experience second hand, that has been a first hand experience for someone else.
4. Does not depend on reading to convey meaning.
5. Offers "visual verbal shorthand", images which are vivid and clear and give to the adolescents data which is free of abstractive ambiguity.
6. Adolescents thrive on drama and action; printing crystallizes into static notions; television images are dynamic and moving.
7. Television is the language of the future, we can use verbal aids to enrich the picture, instead of television regarded as the visual aid, as is traditional.
8. Television does not encourage passivity; when used effectively it can lead to self-dependent students who only need the help of a competent tutor.

This study will now move to some current theories of communication, where guiding principles can be found to help the adolescent, teacher and all who will use television as an educative means. Supported by sound philosophical principles and aware of the aims and goals that follow from his rational nature, the adolescent with

⁵³Audio-Visual Aids in Teaching, Edited by Eggar Dale ("Educational Television", No. 14, 2nd ed. rev.)(New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1954), pp. 197-213.

the help of the teacher, should find, in educational television, excellent communication.

Guiding Principles from Theories of Communication

What is needed for effective communication by educational television, in the education of adolescents, is basic principles and laws that will guide the system in its search for truth. The emphasis should be on the interpreter or receiver, the adolescent. If the adolescent is provided with basic philosophical assumptions that will indicate the road to truth, then the particular advantages of television, already considered, may bring about decided advantages over conventional classroom procedures.

In recent years, a good deal of pertinent research has been carried out by competent men in the field of rhetoric. The term, "rhetoric", is considered to be:

The science of recognizing the range of the meanings and of the functions of words, and the art of using and interpreting them in accordance with this recognition.⁵⁴

The theories of communication that will be considered, therefore, will help to clarify the meaning of words, indicate their function, and give some idea as to the manner in which they should be interpreted and used.

Some of the theories of communication under discussion will have philosophical concepts at variance with

⁵⁴Regarty, op.cit., p. 130.

the metaphysical and epistemological understandings that were established for this report.⁵⁵ There is an essential harmony between the basic questions asked by this report and those which are asked by "the current traditional theory of communication".⁵⁶

There will be little time and research spent in analyzing these differences of orientation, since it would not appreciably contribute to the purpose of searching these theories of communication. This report is after guides and aids to interpreting and directing educational television. A concise analysis on the background of the communicative theories, is given in Father Fogarty's book, "Roots for a New Rhetoric", for any who wish to further their evaluation of the theories. This report will draw on the instruments that are provided for interpretation, leaving the controversy intact.

I. A. Richards' Theory of Interpretation

I. A. Richards' particular interest in communication was directed towards how the message is received and interpreted. Besides the abstractive operation, there are many biological, psychological and social influences that enter into the interpretation of the sender's message.

⁵⁵Longergan, op. cit., pp. 6-10.

⁵⁶Based on the works of Aristotle, as in Longergan's philosophical considerations in his book, Insight. (such works as "Rhetorica", "De Interpretations", "Analytica Priora" et al.).

Richards worked for norms or guides to enable the individual to interpret all kinds of human communication.

The problem, as Richards saw the problem, was the non-conformity between the symbol and the thing it represented.⁵⁷ Richards' terminology for thought-word-thing is different, since he feels reference-symbol-referent is more exact. Abstraction, which is the unique way in which man acquires information, has to be nurtured by experience, and for adolescents experiences with abstraction are new and difficult.

There are some terms which have a wide connotation and present the basic structural terms for a language. When one considers such terms as love, truth, good, being, is, know, purpose, to name a few, then one has reached the terms with the greatest universal use and ambiguity.⁵⁸ These are the terms most commonly used by philosophers, which have an ontological significance, and provide the greatest difficulty for understanding.

How then can we clarify the meaning of words, particularly, the basic terms just cited?

The culmination of Richards' theory was seven instruments or norms which may be used to compare various meanings of a symbol, so that accurate and true comprehension

⁵⁷Richards, op.cit., p. 24.

⁵⁸I. A. Richards, How to Read a Page, (New York: W. W. Norton and Company Inc., 1942), p. 240.

will result.⁵⁹

The seven instruments:

1. Indicating - pointing out the thing.
2. Characterizing - sorts it out, makes the thing more discernable.
3. Realizing - more comprehension.
4. Valuing - objective appraisal, drawing out the worth or justice of the thing.
5. Influencing - change the understanding, or preserve it.
6. Controlling - measures the influence or the claims of the first six instruments.
7. Purposing - is the measuring of the intention, the motive, making up the end of the utterance.

The emphasis of these instruments is on interpretation by the receiver, but they could be very well used by the sender before communicating. If the adolescent was provided with these instruments for evaluating instruction via television, then his critical faculties for truth could become very acute.

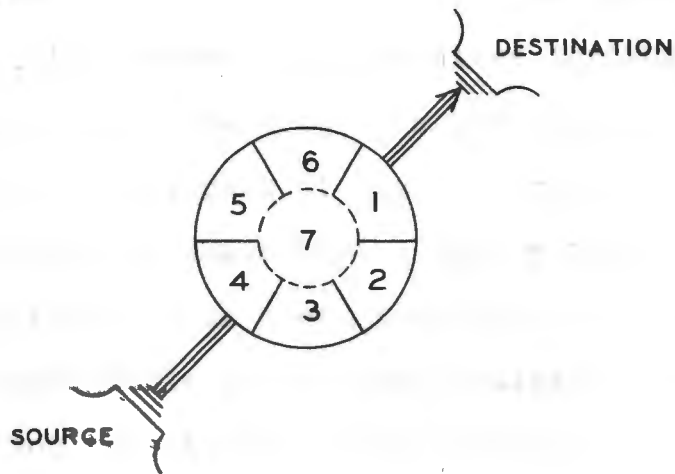
If these instruments were placed on a wheel, with the numbers on the wheel corresponding to the particular instruments, and then diagrammatically superimpose this wheel mid-way between the sender and receiver, a clearer picture of their purpose should ensue. Father Fogarty has provided a diagram in "Roots for a New Rhetoric", that is illustrative for this purpose.⁶⁰

⁵⁹I. A. Richards, Speculative Instruments, (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1955), p. 26.

⁶⁰Fogarty, op.cit., p. 54.

FIGURE 3

RICHARDS SPECULATIVE INSTRUMENTS
IN THE COMMUNICATION DIAGRAM



Number seven (7), purpose, is placed at the center of the wheel to show that purpose is connected with the basic drive or motive for the utterance. There is no definite order or sequence necessary for using these comprehending instruments; their use will be conditioned by the purpose or reason for the communication.

Some of the prime persuaders of adolescent response are found in imitating older people, particularly heroes and heroines of war, sport or entertainment fame.⁶¹ Much of adolescent experience comes to him through the mass communicative devices of radio and television. It has been

⁶¹Schneiders, op.cit., p. 181.

said that commercial television has contributed to overt behaviour patterns of our youth, leading to immoral, unsocial and unreal responses, and a general turning away from reality.⁶²

If television can elicit adolescent response to the extent indicated above, then with the proper guiding principles, (like Richards' speculative instruments), television could also be used to a positive advantage. Unfortunately, a good deal of the research available has approached this new communicative medium from a negative and destructive point of view, but there is a whole new world of knowledgeable experiences available to the adolescent from television, if the adolescent is properly equipped to handle the medium.

A further advantage is seen in the dramatical effect of television, taking advantage of heroes and heroines of movie fame to depict truth, goodness and sustained virtues by acting out these traits in drama, thus moving these basic terms into concrete situations that are more understandable for our youth. Evil, vice, fantasy are terms that are at opposite poles to the positive virtues which contribute towards character building. If it is easy for the adolescent to acquire these traits through imitation via television, then why should it not be just as simple for the adolescent to acquire lasting values?

⁶²J. A. M. Meerl, "Television Addiction and Reactive Apathy", Journal Nervous and Mental Diseases, Vol. 120 (1954), pp. 290-291.

Burke's "Pentad Format".

Burke's orientation towards the meaning of words and symbols in communication is based on the motive or drive for communicating.⁶³ Burke sees man as striving for peace, inner peace of mind and outer tranquility with his fellow men. This search for peace and harmony provides the basic drive in man and should, to some extent condition his verbal utterances and responses. Man will communicate in accordance with the satisfaction that can be obtained for his motive of peace.

Beginning, therefore, with introspection, Burke carried on a kind of dialectic⁶⁴ within his own mind, groping for a method of inquiry into the way or why behind communication. Out of the search Burke came through with what he called his "pentad" of aspects,⁶⁵ a five point view of anything that can be discussed by man. These aspects should also provide principles and norms for clarifying meaning for the adolescent in educational television.

The five aspects:

1. Scene - the environment point of view.
2. Act - the thing itself as represented as an idea.
3. Agent - the derivational or efficient cause aspect of the thing.

⁶³Kenneth Burke, A Grammar of Motives, (New Jersey: Prentice Hall Inc., 1945), Introduction p. xvi.

⁶⁴Burke, A Rhetoric of Motives, p. 41

⁶⁵Burke, op.cit., p. xvi.

4. Agency - the "how" and "with" assistance of the thing or act.
5. Purpose - the agent's motivation.

The similarity between these basic questions and those used by scholastic philosophers is striking enough to be indicated here. Mention was made of this similarity by Father Fogarty.⁶⁶ The reference here is to the basic philosophical questions: the who?, what? where? why? how? when? of a thing. The origin of all these sets of inquiry is Aristotle, and the reflection of this method of inquiry also stands out in scientific experimentation study, where the purpose, means, procedure and result are somewhat similarly used.

Burke calls the use of these five terms his dramatic approach to language.⁶⁷ The significance of this view is obvious in a dramatic medium like television. If Burke considers that a symbol should be viewed much as a drama upon a stage, let this thought occupy the reader with the significance it could have for educational television.

The adolescent provided with these tools, in viewing educational programming by television, would first consider the scene. The questions would be asked, "this is a setting or scene of what? by whom? how? and why?" The same reasoning could be carried through the act, the agent,

⁶⁶Fogarty, op.cit., p. 63.

⁶⁷Burke, op.cit., p. xxii.

the agency and to the end - the purpose. Burke's "pentad format" or five viewpoints of meaning, seem to be ideal in interpreting and giving meaning to educational television. There is an obvious merit in the use of these principles in commercial television. The adolescent could discover for himself the casual way in which truth is used in many instances.⁶⁸

Irving L. Lee's Art of Human Communication

Earlier in this report⁶⁹ reference was made to the important role that the teacher would have to play in inculcating the philosophical principles for the effective use of educational television by the adolescent.

The teacher will often be the sender of the communication, the interpretator of the message and always the voice of wisdom for the adolescents. This idea or concept of the teacher is made more descriptive and understandable in the words of Gilbert Highet:⁷⁰

The business of the teacher is to pass currents of interest and energy through the facts, while they are being learnt and afterwards, so that they melt, fuse, become interconnected, acquire life and grow into vital parts of the minds which hold them. One excellent way to do this is to demonstrate how apparently remote facts are organically linked.

⁶⁸Sergei M. Eisenstein, The Film Sense, trans. Jay Leyda (New York: Harcourt Brace Co., 1942), p. 77

⁶⁹Supra. p. 6.

⁷⁰Gilbert Highet, The Art of Teaching, (New York: Vintage Books, 1958), p. 59.

Television should provide, with its concrete images and factual representations, the true symbols for inquiry. The instrumentations of Richards' and Burke's are ready made tools for both the adolescent and the teacher to use for interpretation. The teacher must help to guide the adolescent to a sound philosophical basis for interpretation and reaction in communication by educational television. This communication is a verbal, articulate dynamic kind of communication, catering to the first and natural means of man's expression - speech.

Irving J. Lee has foreseen the need of effective human communication and indicates fourteen trouble areas that should be avoided in group discussion.⁷¹ The teacher of the future, the teacher who is to deal with educational television for teaching adolescents, either as a receiver in the classroom, or as a sender at the studio, will have to communicate by voice, not by writing. To the extent that communication is made effective, to that extent will true understanding result.

Lee begins his inquiry by asking three questions:

- A. Do people make an effort to understand each other.
- B. How do they respond when another talks?
- C. How do they approach problems?

⁷¹Irving J. Lee, How to Talk With People (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1952), pp. 2-10.

The fourteen problem areas are:⁷²

1. Misunderstanding results when one man assumes that others use words just as he does. (Must learn not how to define terms, but to ask what they had intended to say.)
2. Trouble arises when somebody contradicts somebody else without seeing what the first man was talking about. (Must ask ourselves whether difference is in details or conclusions).
3. Men not only disagree, but they become disagreeable about it.
4. Prescribing for problems, rather than describing them. (Argumentations arise over the answers before the questions are properly explored). Ask what is wrong, before we ask what should be done about it.
5. When some people look at the problems as if they were the same ones that were solved before; while others see them as brand new. (Narrate the problem without recommendations or conclusions, keeping the old-new conflict in abeyance.
6. When partisans hit head on, seeking to satisfy the needs of each group, regardless of the feeling of the other. (Must see that each is satisfied without disrupting operations, by saying something about the value of compromise.) There is decency in "giving a little" and intelligence in the desire "to work things out".
7. Sometimes it is impossible to talk about men and their ideas without naming them. But a name which has astigmatizing effect can stop or deter sensible analysis. Stigma names usually hurt feelings and usually lead to more of the same.
8. Conflict within a group is compounded often out of proportion when one person takes another's difference of opinion as a personal attack on himself. One can quarrel, debate and argue a point without doubting another's sincerity or casting aspersions on another's integrity. (Reassurance that the issue at hand is the only objective, softens the blow).

⁷²Ibid., pp. 2-10.

9. Angry men work against and not with each other. (Ask them to take another look at the source of anger, a realignment of perception so that they may think and feel anew.)
10. Leader of discussion, (teacher), thinks along with the group, never tells the others what to do and how to think. (Group accomplishments, not individual ones.)
11. Spot an observer or remainder in the group, who is there to help the chairman cut down on needless debate and time consuming rambling.
12. Analysis is the agenda.
13. Human intelligence and imagination is not geared to the demands of a timepiece. (An easy and inadequate solution introduced as a time saving measure often backfires; the importance of the issue should precipitate the time spent.)
14. Meetings must be pleasant as well as productive. A business like procedure is necessary, but committees work best when the talk swings between the personal and the purposeful.

It can now be clearly stated that words in print restrict the meaning and thought content that is trying to be conveyed through communication. The interest should not be with the meaning of a word, but what the speaker means. In this day and age with instantaneous communication available, education is in danger of becoming restricted and narrow when interpretation of information is confined to the word structure on a page.

There is available for the teacher, the adolescent and all who have interest and need of effective communication the beginnings of a philosophy of language in the basic rules and laws offered by Richards, Burke and Irving J. Lee.

Television can give the concrete factual images and symbols for data, television uses the living language of speech, the philosophical guides can be partially found in the instruments of Richards, Burke and Lee. There has been criticism of the new media of television, from the point of view, that television has nothing to offer for intellectual stimulation and moreover increases passive and unresponsive behaviour on the part of the viewer. Surely any communication so dynamic and concrete, used with effective philosophical guides, is most advantageous for teaching adolescents.

The authoritative emphasis can be relegated to a minor role in educational television, rote memory can be largely dispensed with and discussion and verbal expression can lead to a more self sufficient and self-expressive adolescent, than any conventional authoritative classroom could produce. There is much work to be done before the merits of a philosophy of educational television for teaching adolescents can be finally formed. If this report has stimulated any interest in the needs of such studies then its purpose has been fulfilled.

Charles Siepman has envisaged the role of television in education, which expresses the writer's sentiments quite clearly:

Television offers a new language that none of us has yet learned, a language of the eye and the ear, the combination of which, when subtly and imaginatively realized transcends anything

that you and I can do through speech alone, or with such apparatus as a blackboard or models in a classroom - a new language of communication.⁷³

Summations and Reflections

This report was written to establish a philosophy of educational television for teaching adolescents. At its conclusion it is well to reflect on the purpose, to evaluate whether the condition or conditions have been fulfilled. In order to establish a need for this type of study, Chapter I dealt with some current studies that were carried out in the field of educational television. Studies were included from Canada, The United States and other English speaking countries, which fairly represented what type of research is currently available. There was a decided lack of answers for basic philosophical questions, "what educational television is", "why we should consider this medium", "who and what kind of individual is to benefit and why"?

From the conclusive evidence available from all of the above studies, it appeared that the philosophical principles and norms necessary for the effective use of any discipline were not explicitly laid down, and in most cases were not even considered. As Irving J. Lee said, "prescribing

⁷³Charles A. Slepman, Television in Education Today and Tomorrow, A talk given to the National Educational Television Conference, Toronto, May 23 to May 26, 1961. Prepared by the Canadian Education and Research Digest (Toronto: The Conference, 1961), pp. 10-11.

for problems rather than describing them".⁷⁴

In Chapter II, the philosophy was launched, starting with the metaphysical understandings of being, or that which is. The object of the intellect having been established, then the most basic question was established, what man is searching for through education and why.

Following these basic premises, consideration was given to man's method or means of arriving at an understanding of being, particularly being under the aspect of truth. Generally, the metaphysical and epistemological basis of man's desire to know and how he goes about knowing were established.

Man as an adolescent, was the next area of inquiry. The report endeavored to point out the distinctive needs and problems that the adolescent stage of development has, so that such understandings would orientate our study for their particular needs.

Television is a communicative device, therefore, an understanding of communication among humans was vitally necessary, if philosophical norms were to be introduced into this study. The report took a great deal of care to establish that television had a dual role to play in teaching adolescents:

1. Providing concrete visual images, which would mitigate the problem of abstraction for adolescents.

⁷⁴Lee, supra, p. 56.

2. Providing data in the living language of the spoken word, which is in complete harmony with the adolescent's essential nature.

The concomitant effects of the above should be ease and facility with the sensible and intelligent levels of understandings, allowing for accelerated movement into the rational levels of judgment and personal commitment.

From some theories of communication, the adolescent and the teacher were provided with razor sharp instruments for deciphering the meaning and thought content behind words and symbols. Burke's "pentad format", Richard's "speculative instruments" and Lee's "fourteen suggested problem areas", put in use by the adolescent and teacher should lead to effective education through television.

The concluding idea of this report, could well be a reiteration of the same thought that introduced Chapter II. The mass communication media of television offers educators an opportunity for a scientific revolution in the field of teaching and learning.

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York...

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