1973

Teaching about mass media in society in the public schools

James Arthur Crook
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Teaching about mass media in society
in the public schools

by

James Arthur Crook

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I. INTRODUCTION

Man has looked to education to help him control his destiny. Answers to some of the most puzzling questions posed by a complex society come from investigations made by educated men and women. In order for students to learn more about their environment, schools define collections of information to be studied and prescribe varying combinations to achieve desired outcomes.

This dissertation follows a similar pattern. Faced with a series of complex societal problems posed by learned men and women, the study provides a direction for formally organized educational institutions to seek answers. By designing new combinations of curricular organization, it attempts to point out a new direction. The catalyst for the proposed change is the impact of the mass media of communication that is perceived by many people. There are few who would argue that mass media have an effect on society. Yet, until the last few years the study of mass media has been considered seriously and systematically only at the college and university levels.

Mass media in this study is defined as a combination of print media (newspapers, magazines and books) and electronic or broadcast media (radio, television and motion pictures). The impact of these media upon the society in which they exist provides the raw material for the proposals to be made. The
elementary and secondary schools are the target of the recommendations to be presented.

As the data for this project have been collected a number of periodicals and books of readings on the topic have been published. A few schools have begun to implement mass media studies programs of a variety of types. This presentation provides a review of some of these materials.

The controlling purpose of this study is to document the need for a new area of instruction in the public schools. It includes an assessment of the lessons of the past, a statement of the present and a projection for the future. That new area of instruction is that of teaching about mass media in society. The historical lessons are those presented by the nation's founding fathers when they wrote the Bill of Rights and established universal education to make their experiment in democracy work. The assessment of the present is one of the effect of mass media on contemporary society and the commitment made by schools to investigating this phenomenon. For the future, the writer will make recommendations for implementing mass media studies in school systems.

This dissertation appears in four parts. "An Analysis of Contemporary Media" reviews and documents information on the effects of the mass media previously published by leading social scientists. It singles out television and its influence on children for a special section because the
greatest amount of material applies to this medium. And, a look at the effect of mass media on education is included to show that the topic has national prominence and relevance to school systems. A historical account of the libertarian philosophy which provides a base for America's democratic form of government and America's commitment to universal education are related in "A Rationale for Teaching about Mass Media in Society." The influence of John Dewey and other reformers shows the development of the public school system curriculum as it exists today. "Teaching about Mass Media in Society in the United States in 1972" reports the results of a survey of the states between August and December. It shows the extent of mass media studies in school curricula across the country and provides information about the level at which it is taught and the organization of the teaching. In addition, the predictions of consultants at the state department of education level concerning the future of mass media studies are listed. "Recommendations for Implementing Mass Media Studies in School Systems" are made in the final chapter. Recommendations in include the thrust of the content at each level, the levels at which mass media studies could be introduced, the type of organization—units within existing courses or discrete courses, and the desirability of integrated curricula to avoid duplication of efforts.
II. ANALYSIS OF CONTEMPORARY MEDIA

A. Effects of Mass Media

Lessons learned from experience and research suggest that mass media affect contemporary society, but in imperfectly understood ways. A mass communication system characterized by newspapers, magazines, books, radio and motion pictures at the close of the World War II has increased in complexity with the astounding popularity of television broadcasting. All other media have adjusted their structure and functions to meet this challenge. The conviction grows stronger that the condition of the world and the people living in it affect the media and, in turn, are affected by the media.

Traditionally, the home, the school, and the church have been thought of as the major molders of the attitudes, values, and opinions of the people. They remain so today. But in speaking of the home, one now refers to more than the family members. An invited guest with an astonishing capacity to make "himself" welcome has joined the family circle for 35 to 40 hours a week. This visitor leaves a very considerable imprint upon the parents and subtly, yet powerfully, challenges their formerly dominant influence upon the minds and emotions of their children.¹

Although television is commonly thought of as a medium of entertainment, it is obviously much more than that. The pervasiveness of advertising and its values, of news and
occasional educational programs, as well as the kind of entertainment, inevitably have a major, if unclear, effect on those whose attention is riveted to the video screen.  

Criticism of television and/or mass media is common. The newspaper press gets considerable criticism as a collective unit, but very little on a paper-by-paper basis by responsible students.

By generalizing there is a danger of isolating the mass media from other social institutions, of making them a scapegoat for whatever is feared or disliked, of exaggerating their influence. A warning should be made against the opposite danger, also, Gilbert Seldes said. Ineffective mass media may represent a danger because they command so much leisure time and leave viewers indifferent or apathetic.

Although it must be reiterated that the mass media tend to reflect society and its values, contemporary civilization has created a demand for the functions of mass media. To a great extent, Charles Steinberg said, mass media have become a substitute for "real" experience. However, he warned, critics tend to overstress the impact and effect of mass media on society. Less emphasis can be placed on the omnipotence of the mass media as more studies are conducted on the effects of mass media.

In dealing with the effects of mass media, Seldes noted, one discovers an entire spectrum of judgments. They can be summarized: the mass media have no significant effects, no
profound effects, they affect only those predisposed to be affected, they have widespread effects reinforcing the effects of other institutions, and they have a peculiar and tremendous effect on all aspects of personal and social lives.\(^5\)

The report by the Commission on Freedom of the Press stated people seldom want to read or hear what does not please them. Similarly, they seldom want others to read or hear what disagrees with their convictions or what presents an unfavorable picture of groups to which they belong. When such groups are organized, they let the press know their objections to remarks concerning them. The press is therefore caught between its desire to please and extend its audience and its desire to give a picture of events and people as they really are.\(^6\)

While it may be true that people do not, in general, change their political stand as a result of the impact of mass media, this is not invariably true, Steinberg said. It is probably not true in terms of the effect of mass media on the other aspects of culture, apart from political influence.\(^7\)

What is equally as important as the content of the mass media, Steinberg added, is the "who" in the now classical equation "who says what to whom and with what effect." This is the role played by the communicator. Those whose opinions parallel the views of the communicator usually feel "justified" in their conclusions.\(^8\)
In the New York Herald Tribune, Sept. 7, 1954, Walter Lippmann charged "there can be no doubt that the movies and television and the comic books are purveying violence and lust to a vicious and intolerable degree.... A continual exposure of a generation to the commercial exploitation of the enjoyment of violence is one way to corrode the foundations of a civilized society. For my part, believing as I do in freedom of speech and thought, I see no objection in principle to censorship of mass entertainment of the young."\(^9\)

In the other camp are those who believe that the case against the media is greatly oversimplified and overstated. They point out that atypical instances are selected to support the argument that the media have an effect; moreover, they feel that the choice of instances is biased to indicate an injurious effect. While they are willing to grant that there may be an effect, observers like Geoffrey O'Hara seriously question whether it is as pervasive and persuasive as some critics believe.\(^10\)

Critics have been concerned with the effect of mass media on taste and values. Bernard Rosenberg in Mass Culture in America says that mass communication gives the receiver the feeling that everything is understandable and that all problems can be solved. Dwight Macdonald in A Theory of Mass Culture agrees, but adds that treating receivers as though they were "like-minded" may produce two other effects. The first is the
"overstimulation of the young," who, through watching the media, are given a knowledge of "life," without sufficient experience to understand or appreciate it. The second is the "infantile regression of the adult," whose intellectual maturity is retarded by offerings calculated not to stimulate him to reach beyond the limits of his grasp.\textsuperscript{11}

Because of highly developed transmitting and receiving devices, twentieth century mass communication tends to be all-pervasive. The potential impact of a communication upon opinions and attitudes is multiplied as its audience is multiplied. The potential for influence must be considered, O'Hara said, for the greater the audience, the greater the potential.\textsuperscript{12}

Seldes suggested the values inherent in mass media differ in their power to stimulate action. Entertainment is at one end. The less it requires, the more it tends to leave an audience in a passive state. A great tragedy may have the effect of resolving an individual's inner conflict and a good comedy makes one forget his troubles. Neither is intended primarily to make the audience go out and do something, and both have a tendency to leave an audience fairly well satisfied with thoughts and emotions and ideas they already have. Propaganda is at the other extreme. If successful, it leads an audience to do something they had not thought of doing.\textsuperscript{13}
No one can say whether, in a society like that of Nazi Germany, where anti-Semitic films were put over with no holds barred, this sort of propaganda had no effect, said Nicholas Tucker. The Nazis themselves did not believe this, he said, and although some of their nastiest propaganda flopped, a few such films did apparently lead to spontaneous violence. Once again, the media reflect the society; anti-Semitic films did not create Hitler, but vice-versa.14

A concept called "predisposition" lies between the theory that the media have no significant effects and the theory that they profoundly affect virtually every aspect of man's existence. Seldes said the "predisposition" theory is in favor with the producers of entertainment because it suggests that, if anything evil is done as a consequence of hearing or seeing their productions, the malefactors want to do it anyway, and, at most, the program or picture acted as a trigger-mechanism.15

"Musical taste is developed by radio," said Klapper, "but most often among cultured persons predisposed to be interested in music." The predisposition to hear sounds that give a particular kind of pleasure is probably universal, but it takes the experience of music to make listening to the classics a great satisfaction. This experience is precisely what radio affords.
Behind the principle of predisposition, Seldes said, lies an unanswered question. If the predisposition is not inborn, how is it created? Is it possible the real effect of the mass media is that, in conjunction with other forces, they prepare the ground for what they eventually plant?\textsuperscript{16}

Paul F. Lazarsfeld and Robert K. Merton in their article "Mass Communication, Popular Taste, and Organized Social Action," provided three categories for grouping effects of mass communication. They are the status-conferral function, the enforcement of social norms, and the narcotizing dysfunction. Although their article was written before television became a nationwide reality, their categories and their generalizations are still valid.\textsuperscript{17}

The status-conferral function refers to the media's ability to make individuals or groups seem important by selecting them for attention or notice. "If you really matter, you will be at the focus of attention and if you are at the focus of mass attention, then, surely you must really matter." Once the selection has been made, the mass medium has tremendous ability to focus attention on the subject, to more or less monopolize the interest of the receiver.\textsuperscript{18}

The media also have an effect on the enforcement of social norms. Behavior and attitudes that are socially accepted are presented in an approving manner, and those that are rejected are not so presented. Through repetition, the
media reinforce existing social attitudes.¹⁹

The third effect is the narcotizing dysfunction. Americans rightly take pride in having information about world events. But a distinction must be made between knowing about something and understanding it and doing something about it. Since reception of mass communication is comparatively effort­less, the receiver tends to become apathetic; he knows about events, but he is not sufficiently stimulated to take positive action.²⁰

Sociologists and business researchers agree that broad­casting operates most effectively on established attitudes, Seldes said, and that it is much easier to persuade a person that he is right than that he is wrong, to confirm rather than convert.²¹

As a nation, the United States is committed to the ideal of a dynamic society, one in which change can take place. Americans may exaggerate the importance of the exceptional independent individual. The mass media, by definition, cannot devote themselves to the exception. But if the mass media serve as brakes on the mental and emotional development of their followers, they are helping to make the social structure rigid.²²

It is true that the U.S. standard of living is much higher than that of many countries of the world, but, O'Hara charged, the media tend to depict it as a good deal higher than it is. The average receiver of mass communication has
become so accustomed to having life presented in this way that it is frequently impossible for him to see clearly the lack of correlation between the media view of life and his own situation.23

B. Television and Children

A British study of television viewing by Himmelweit, Oppenheim and Vince showed in 1958 that children from ages 10-13 watched an average of 11-13 hours a week, or just under two hours a day. They spent more time on television than on any other single leisure activity.24 The popular image of the child glued to the television set, watching whatever is on, did not fit the facts, however. Most children viewed reasonably selectively, turning to other things when something was on which they did not like. The most important single background factor was undoubtedly intelligence; the higher the child's intelligence, the less his viewing. This was evident in the 10-11-year-olds and more pronounced in the adolescents.25 Viewing rapidly becomes a habit, the British study concluded, and veteran viewers reduce their viewing time by only about two hours in three years. From the age of ten onwards, at least half the children watched adult programs in the first part of the evening. Three quarters of the votes for the most favored program went to adult programs, particularly to crime thrillers and, to a lesser extent, to comedies, variety
programs, and family serials. Westerns were favored by the younger children. Children liked similar types of programs whether they occurred on television, or radio, or in the cinema, or whether they formed the content of a book. The interviews with children in the British study suggested that part of television's appeal lies in its easy availability and its consequent value as a time filler.

American researchers Schramm, Lyle and Parker, have noted that from ages 3-16 the average child spends more total time on television than on school. In these years he devotes about one-sixth of all his waking hours to television. In fact, he is likely to devote more time to television than to any other activity except sleep and, perhaps, play, depending on how play is defined.

Young children are conscious of television from the time they begin to talk, if not from the time they walk. But use comes later. By age three Garry estimated one-third of the children make fairly regular use of television. This proportion mounts rapidly until by the time school starts it is the rare child who is not a regular viewer. Television and the school are equal shareholders in the waking time of the elementary school child. Several studies show a big jump in comprehension and retention of program material occurs between the ages of six and nine, and that three out of five 11- to 12-year-olds can reproduce a plot of a program fully and repeat this performance nearly two years later.
Nearly all American children have easy access to TV, Erna L. Christensen noted, and have come to use it as an important factor in their lives. They accept it as a normal part of their living rather than as some great marvel. Children have continued to like television. It holds tremendous fascination for them, and it has become their major source of recreation. They have respect for television and regard it almost as a "third parent" in terms of affection and trust. Their devotion is evidenced by the many hours they choose to watch TV in preference to other activities. Many children become attentive viewers as early as two and continue throughout childhood.

Christensen said investigations made over a period of years show that television tastes and habits vary with children and are determined by such factors as age, sex, intelligence, parents' attitudes, amount and kind of programming available, competing interests and activities, and social and emotional characteristics of individual children. It has also been shown that when children are free to select programs, their choices are overwhelmingly in favor of fantasy over reality. Television probably provides the greatest source of common experience in the lives of children in the United States and has extended these common experiences beyond barriers of all sorts.
Television affects the style of children—that I know. I receive letters from children, and many of them begin: "Dear Mr. White, My name is Donna Reynolds." This is the Walter Cronkite gambit, straight out of TV. When I was a child I never started a letter, "My name is Elwyn White." I simply signed my name at the end.33

It is commonplace to observe that the values adolescents find in entertainment or the mass media are a function of group behavior—standing in the peer group, frequency of dating, parental value, et cetera, Clark said. Entertainment is a broad category and as difficult to define as leisure. Included are popular media—such as Top 40, movies, and television—and the performing arts—like symphony and theatre—that attract narrower audiences. Experiencing these entertainments is not simply an individual act; viewing and listening are more usually social behaviors undertaken in group settings. It follows that responses as well as choice of entertainment may be a function of social expectations and perceptions.34

Himmelweit and Schramm research has indicated that the media patterns which appear to be suggestive of adult behavior emerge at approximately grade ten. The leisure time of the creative adolescent is full, Wade said. That time which is not occupied by the demands of the school is taken up with specific individual or group activities. The creative adolescent is a "joiner," he is also a hobbyist—a collector, a musician, an artist, and frequently a sportsman. He pursues
life with enthusiasm and shuns edited experiences. He reads about as much, watches TV less, and generally exposes himself to more highly diversified activities (including media) than his less creative peers. When the creative adolescent does seek out media for information and entertainment, he exhibits differential patterns. Daily media selection is done on a random basis while selection that implies more investment of time is done with reference to some reliable source, frequently family or friends. He shares his media experience with others, both friends and family, through frequent discussion of media.\(^{35}\)

After reviewing extensive evidence on parent-adolescent similarities in reading and television viewing, researchers have expressed strong doubts about hypotheses that say parents influence adolescents' media behavior. Chaffee, McLeod and Atkin suggested an alternative hypothesis that the child's media use might influence his parents'. Evidence that the parent-adolescent correlations are often weaker among older adolescents indicate the youngsters' media habits are not gradually shaped into an approximation of adult patterns at home.\(^{36}\)

The amount of exposure to television is not a very important variable in predicting different kinds of consumer learning. This finding adds to the growing body of literature which indicates that media exposure time is simply not a
powerful explanatory variable of communications effects. The learning of advertising slogans seems to be mainly a function of the intelligence of the adolescent, Ward and Wackman said. The learning of attitudes toward television advertising and a materialism orientation seems to be mainly a function of the adolescent's reason for viewing commercials. And the learning of purchasing behaviors is clearly an overt social process. Communication with parents about advertising, consumer goods, and consumption processes seems to be an important variable intervening between exposure to advertising and the purchase of consumer goods. 37

For the most part, Schramm said, the children's hour on commercial television is a succession of fast-moving, exciting fantasy, leavened with broad humor and a considerable amount of romantic interest. It is extremely violent and shootings and sluggings follow each other interminably. The picture of the adult world presented on the children's hour is light in intellectual interchange and deeply concerned with crime. There is little attention paid to earning a living, and the child who wants career information will get little unless he cares to be a private eye or a Western sheriff. 38

Children are not little adults. Garry noted a child's view of the world differs radically from the adult's in a number of striking ways. The adult understands the relationship that words have to things, but the child is still
developing this ability. The adult has a large fund of remembrances that provide points of reference for his thinking. Adults are likely to be bored with something that is repetitive, but the child enjoys repetition for it reinforces what he knows. He derives a real pleasure from encountering something recognizable by its repetition and likes to stay with it. For the young child, a daydream is something that happens to him on a level that is as real as his walking across the street. What the programmer intends to be reality may be perceived by the young viewer as fantasy and vice-versa. The adult can see that parts of a program contribute to a whole, but the child does not understand this.

Another difference is seen in children's responses to certain kinds of auditory appeals. The rhythm, form, word choice, and flow of poetry have deep meaning for the child. Another auditory appeal that the child finds difficult to resist is provided by music. This is one reason for the enormous popularity of film and television cartoons, which are semi-abstract and depend upon movement, activity and sound effects rather than actual words.

In order to understand television's impact and effect on children Schramm suggested getting away from the unrealistic concept of what television "does to children" and substituting the concept of "what children do with television." It is not scientifically justifiable to say that television is good or
bad for children. The relationship is always between a kind of television and a kind of child in a kind of situation. And always behind the child there are other relationships of importance—notably with family and friends, school and church. Television enters into the whole life of the child, not merely the corner of it that happens to intersect a particular program.  

In order to predict the effect of television, one must know something about the television and something about the child, Schramm said. But there is one element in the relation of child to program which seems rather more important than any of the others in determining what effect the program has. This is the extent to which the child can identify with one or more of the characters in a program. Most students of television effects on children are unwilling to say, however, that identification or incidental learning from television plays any large part in causing delinquency or crime. The roots of criminal behavior lie far deeper than television; they reach into the personality, the family experience, the peer group relationship of the delinquent or criminal individual. At most, television can be merely a contributory cause, and is likely to affect only the child who is already maladjusted and delinquency-prone.  

Schramm's research indicated the most and the least intelligent children in a television community now start school
about one grade higher in vocabulary than do their fellow students in non-television communities, and furthermore, at this stage, high vocabulary is related to heavy viewing. However, by sixth grade, most or all of this fast start seems to have been lost, and thereafter children with television know more about the subject matter which is emphasized on television, less about what is not. That is not encouraging, because it implies that television would help bring up a generation better informed about the fantasy entertainment which is the major part of television, but not about matters of reality.44

Klapper points out that adult television fare deals almost exclusively with adults, and usually with adults in conflict situations. He suggests that 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, or even unwillingness to become an adult. Himmelweit et al., say that "Adult television plays leave few of the comforting black and white philosophies of childhood intact." Fewer viewers than nonviewers, for example, believe that "good people always come out all right in the end."45

By the time the average child enters kindergarten he has already spent more hours learning about his world from television than the hours he would spend in a college classroom
earning a B.A. degree, Johnson said. Whenever the question arises of the impact of television programming upon the attitudes and behavior of the audience, industry spokesmen are likely to respond with variants of what Johnson termed three big myths.

1. We just give the people what they want.
2. Entertainment programming doesn't have any "impact" upon people.
3. We report the news. If it's news we put it on; if it's not we don't.

Roughly 85 per cent of the prime time audience watches the networks. Each network is trying for its slice of that 85 per cent and for most purposes that audience is viewed as homogenous. Thus no programming will be shown by the networks unless aimed at the whole audience, and each network strives to gain no less than one-third of the audience. Too often the viewer's only choice is on or off. To say that this is what the audience wants in any meaningful sense is either nonsense or unbelievable naivete.

Johnson said the argument that television entertainment programming has no impact upon the audience is self-contradictory. Television is able to attract about $2.5 billion annually from advertisers on the assertion that it is the advertising medium with the greatest impact. Galbraith observes "the industrial system is profoundly dependent upon commercial television and could not exist in its present form without it."
The suggestion is made, Johnson added, that there is a socially desirable, professionally agreed-upon definition of "news"—known only to those who manage television stations and networks—which is automatically applied, and that any efforts to be reflective about it might contribute to the collapse of the Republic. Johnson responded with Kintner's quote, "Every reporter knows that when you write the first word you make an editorial judgment." \(^{48}\)

C. Mass Media Effect on Education

Many educators are realizing that they should not ignore mass media. Nor can they continue to regard them with either condescension or ill-conceived contempt. The media today are responsible for the overwhelming bulk of the public's entertainment and information. Mass communication has become an institution as integral to the functioning of American society as education, religion and the capitalistic economic system. The question is squarely before the educator who would presume to prepare the student with an ability to function as a responsible and informed citizen. \(^{49}\)

One is reminded of Jefferson's admonition in a letter to his friend Carrington in 1787.

The basis of our government being the opinion of the people, the very first object should be to keep the right; and were it left to me to decide whether we should have a government without newspapers, or newspapers without a government, I should not hesitate a moment to prefer the latter. But I should mean that every man should receive
those papers, and be capable of reading them.\textsuperscript{50}

The last phrase is, perhaps, the most important to this discussion.

As the environment has become rich in information, Coleman suggested the child's learning has begun to be shaped by neither the family nor school alone, but also by comic books, television, paperbacks and the broad spectrum of newspapers and magazines that abound, from the \textit{Chicago Tribune} to the \textit{Berkeley Barb}, and from \textit{Reader's Digest} to \textit{Ramparts}.\textsuperscript{51}

Stensland said the public character of the classroom or the seminar or the reading library puts certain demands on education. At times it is forgotten that the student is a member of the public, present or future. Since that is the case, teaching needs to focus, at times more specifically, on the public problems outside the classroom walls.\textsuperscript{52} To fill his role as a mature member of society, the citizen must meet three special needs. The first is the need for knowledge; not just facts, but knowledge of the sources of facts. The second is the need to communicate intelligently. Three simple questions are involved: Who is "talking?" What are his motives? What does it mean in my life and my work? The third requirement is the need for discrimination in the cultivation of attitudes and the choice of values. What is needed is not just a general commitment to democracy, general awareness of freedom and responsibility, but specific attitudes, awareness of specific values.\textsuperscript{53}
The media make a real difference in the way men live, Dale wrote. The child lives as a unitary person, not as a person having a school personality and an out-of-school personality. He brings his out-of-school experiences to school. Sometimes the mass media work at cross purposes with objectives the schools and parents are trying to achieve. The motion picture, for example, may unrealistically dramatize such conflicts in values as selfishness vs. cooperation; lawful solution to crime vs. solutions outside the law; sex as a noble human trait vs. vulgar exploitation. The television screen may present cruelty and trickery as the norm; indeed, as admirable.\textsuperscript{54}

The child spends more time with the mass media than with any other voluntary educational agency, and these experiences may be affecting his stock of information, his attitudes, his play patterns, his speech, or his choice of occupation.\textsuperscript{55}

In addition to preparing students in the skills they will need for social survival, schools can make students aware of the differences in the quality of the types of information and entertainment they receive through the mass media. The media, by their nature, demand varying degrees of passivity on the part of their receivers. Some of them, like motion pictures and television, are so effortless in their reception that the receiver is required only to sit back and let the material flow to him. Therefore, the material is likely to engage the
receivers' emotions but not their minds. At this point the role of the teacher becomes crucial in determining the future communication behavior of the students.\textsuperscript{56}

A teacher can alert students to the difference between knowing and acting. Knowledge is of no practical value unless it is capable of being translated into action; and action is of value only when it is guided by knowledge and a sense of purpose. Quite frequently the media will impart knowledge without showing how it can be used or how it applies to a receiver's own situation. Conversely, they will frequently imply that action of some sort is needed without supplying the knowledge for understanding why it should be taken or to what ends it may be directed.\textsuperscript{57}

Mass communication is an institution integral to the functioning of society as a whole. As an institution, the media exercise varying degrees of social control. They present certain forms of behavior and certain attitudes as desirable, while they show others to be undesirable. For the most part they make little attempt to show that certain forms of undesirable behavior may have mitigating circumstances behind them.\textsuperscript{58}

Educators can concern themselves with the matter of taste in media, as they do with taste in art courses, music appreciation classes, and interior decoration. If the newspaper represents a world different from the world in the school
room, teachers need to make great efforts to reconcile those worlds. This does not call for compromise, but it calls for a continuous use of the medium that provides us with material for evaluation and choice.\(^59\)

Mass media represent the collaborative effort of a number of people under the guidance and control of a producer, director, or editor. This collaboration has two effects on material, O'Hara said. First, since any mass communication requires the combination of a number of specialized talents, a unified perspective on the subject is sometimes lacking. Second, and this is especially true of the news media, editorial control can give the handling and interpretation of events an all-too-central focus so that only one perspective is presented.\(^60\)

There is reason to believe that the enlightened consumer of the mass media can change them significantly. Rational choice must be substituted for uncritical acceptance. The critically minded consumer must replace the consumer who blandly absorbs whatever is placed before him. The teacher has an obligation to be a discerning person, to associate with excellence in the mass media. Teachers must help stimulate national thinking in regard to the kinds of programs that should be available on the air—not only on educational television stations—but on commercial television stations. The teacher has a responsibility to see that the air, the film,
the press are free. Civil liberties are an inescapable part of the intelligent, discriminating use of mass media.  

There are significant experiences to be secured in the press, in comic strips, in motion pictures, and in television. It is possible to make such experiences unusually rich ones in the learning of the children and young people. Margaret Mead put it like this: "Teachers who never heard of a radio until they were grown up have to cope with children who have never known a world without television."  

Students grow up with mass media. They are conditioned to learn from them. Average and below average students seem to learn more in facts, attitudes and values from films, television, recordings and popular magazines than books.  

Given a phenomenon upon which many men can agree, that the mass media have unusual effects upon society, it would seem appropriate to look to history to see how a democracy has met other phenomena which have threatened to change its society.
D. Footnotes


2 Ibid.


5 Seldes, loc. cit.

6 Christenson, op. cit., p. 117.

7 Steinberg, loc. cit.

8 Ibid., p. 413.


10 Ibid.

11 Ibid., p. 60.

12 Ibid., p. 52.

13 Seldes, op. cit., p. 46.


15 Seldes, op. cit., p. 49.

16 Ibid.

17 O'Hara, op. cit., p. 59.

18 Ibid.

19 Ibid.

20 Ibid.

21 Seldes, op. cit., p. 52.
22 Ibid.
25 Ibid., p. 12.
26 Ibid., p. 13.
31 Ibid., p. 4.
32 Ibid.
38 Schramm, _op. cit._, p. 139.


40 _Ibid._, p. 146-47.

41 Schramm, _op. cit._, p. 169.

42 _Ibid._, p. 8.


44 _Ibid._, p. 151.

45 _Ibid._, p. 156.


47 _Ibid._, p. 369.

48 _Ibid._


50 Christenson, _op. cit._, p. 110.


53 _Ibid._, p. 218.

55 Ibid., p. 3.
56 O’Hara, op. cit., p. 10.
57 Ibid.
58 Ibid., p. 5.
59 Stensland, op. cit., p. 220.
60 O’Hara, op. cit., p. 5.
62 Ibid., p. 8.
63 Ibid.
III. A RATIONALE FOR TEACHING ABOUT
MASS MEDIA IN SOCIETY

Schools exist so that pupils may investigate their heritage and their environment. Communication is indispensable both to the act of investigation and to the process of transmitting the results of investigation.

Rarely today can pupils investigate life directly. Instead, a major share of their world comes to them through words and pictures selected, ordered, and dispensed by the mass media. Concern is mounting over the short- and long-term effects of mass communication on the individual and his role as a responsible citizen.

On one hand, critics say the media often present an unrealistic view of society. They tend to over-represent the rich and under-represent the poor; to minimize social problems, condone middle-class morality, and glorify poetic justice. They sometimes remain silent on subjects of a sensitive nature, in effect affirming the status quo. On the other hand, the media have broadened cultural horizons far beyond bounds once dreamed possible. The problem lies in sifting the useless from the useful. Consumer judgment in media use is an urgent need.¹

Mass media achieved their place of prominence in American life through the concept of freedom of the press included in the Bill of Rights to the U.S. Constitution. While the concept
was formulated to maintain free print media, Eugene F. Shaw noted the right has evolved to encompass the electronic media as they were introduced and perfected. "We have no doubt that moving pictures, like newspapers and radio, are included in the press whose freedom is guaranteed by the First Amendment," is a key statement of the U.S. Supreme Court ruling of 1948 in the Paramount monopoly case. ²

American press freedom is philosophically based on the libertarian philosophy of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, noted William L. Rivers, Theodore Peterson and Jay W. Jensen in The Mass Media and Modern Society. The rising commercial class of the seventeenth century disputed the privileges of the nobility and challenged the supremacy of the monarch. When the century began, the authoritarian order seemed secure; when it ended, the Crown was subordinate to Parliament, and liberalism was in the ascendancy. ³

A libertarian philosophy underlies the American democratic form of government. Theorists of the Enlightenment said the world is a vast perpetual-motion machine governed by the laws of nature. Man is guided by reason, they said, not passion or self-interest. With this reason, he can discover the laws of nature and bring his institutions into harmony to build a good and just society. Men are born with natural rights, they claimed, which limit the hand of government and demand protection for the individual's liberty and property.
Therefore, men voluntarily form governments to secure their natural rights. The best way to accomplish this, they said, is to leave the individual alone. Truth derives from the intellect of man, not from authority. Man is not to be led or directed toward the truth; he is to find it himself with reason.  

Libertarians drew heavily from Sir Isaac Newton, John Locke and Adam Smith. Newton sketched a picture of the universe as an orderly machine, timeless, unchanging, running on discoverable laws. Locke set out to show that all knowledge comes from the senses, from experience. Man is rational, he said, and has free expression as a natural right. Smith demanded a laissiez faire position for government, lest it upset the delicate workings of natural law. As each person works for his own gain, he serves the welfare of the community. That is, the press is accountable to the public and the public controls it by the choices they make.  

The libertarian theory of the press was based on the same arguments. The press (now the media) must have wide latitude to aid men in their quest for truth. To find truth, man must have free access to information and ideas. Man can distinguish truth from falsehood by employing his intellect. Therefore, if man is faithful to reason, truth will emerge from the unrestrained interplay of information and ideas. Few restrictions are necessary for the majority of men are moral
creatures. Censorship before publication is evil, because it violates man's right to free expression, it enables tyrants to perpetuate themselves, and it hinders the quest for truth by throwing off the delicate balance by which truth emerges. Governments may permit some restrictions on expression after the fact in the form of libel laws, right of privacy statutes, obscenity laws, sedition laws and contempt of court laws.  

The defense of a free press draws support from the poet John Milton in his Areopagitica of 1644. He argued against repression of freedom of expression by advocating reliance upon truth

Let her and Falsehood grapple: who ever knew
Truth put to the worse in a free and open encounter?

Those who are afraid of truth will, of course, seek to prevent its entrance into a "free market place of thought," but those who believe in the public liberty should realize that its existence depends upon liberty of the press, wrote Edwin Emery, Phillip H. Ault and Warren K. Agee in Introduction to Mass Communications.  

Milton's major arguments in Areopagitica against licensing books, pamphlets and papers charged licensing is the evil child of evil parents. It is used to prevent anything the licensor wants withheld. It is impractical because it assumes infallible and incorruptible censors. And, licensing hinders man's search for truth. Free expression carries its
own correctives, a self-righting process.  

In America Thomas Jefferson saw two major functions for the press, to enlighten the public and to safeguard personal liberties. In a 1787 letter to his friend Carrington, he wrote:

The basis of our government being the opinion of the people, the very first object should be to keep that right; and were it left to me to decide whether we should have a government without newspapers, or newspapers without a government, I should not hesitate a moment to prefer the latter. But I should mean that every man should receive those papers, and be capable of reading them.

Jefferson used the word "reading" because the problem of absolute illiteracy still was a major one in his day; he meant also "understanding" in the sense of intellectual literacy. The ability of journalists to discharge their responsibilities to society is conditioned, as Jefferson warned, by the level of public education and understanding; there is a public responsibility in this regard implied in this philosophic statement of the role of the press liberty in supporting all of society's crucial freedoms. Jefferson's thoughts were recorded in a letter to Edward Carrington, also.

I am persuaded myself that the good sense of the people will always be found to be the best army. They may be led astray for a moment, but will soon correct themselves. The people are the only censors of their governors. The way to prevent irregular interpositions of the people, is to give them full information of their affairs through the channel of the public papers, and to contrive that those papers should penetrate the whole mass of the people.
The concept of press freedom espoused by Jefferson was the predominant one at the time the U.S. Constitution was being written. In *Freedom of Speech and Press in Early American History*, Leonard Levy noted that many Jeffersonians, most notably Jefferson himself, behaved when in power in ways that belied their fine libertarian sentiments. Levy said it is not known exactly what the First Amendment's freedom of speech and press clause meant to the men who drafted and ratified it at the time that they did so.\(^{11}\)

The justification for a free press had been changed from Milton's argument that free expression was the will of God, to one valuing it as an inherent natural right of man. Freedom meant the right to question everything including the fundamentals of democracy. The new government was to permit publication of everything with mild sedition, libel and obscenity laws. With their vested interest in property rights, the framers were most interested in a *lassiez faire* government thoroughly discouraging an authoritarian state.\(^{12}\)

Shortly after mid-century, English scholar John Stuart Mill added two new ideas to libertarian theory. He said free expression can be justified on the grounds of utility to prevent the majority from tyrannizing the minority and stifling minority thought. The individual needs freedom to bring his capabilities to maximum. As each individual flourishes, society as a whole will benefit. Fighters for
liberty, Mill wrote, usually think of government as their enemy. However, the majority can tyrannize just as surely as government by imposing its collective opinion on the individual.\textsuperscript{13}

In America Justice Oliver Wendell Holmes somewhat narrowed the libertarian theory in opinions that balanced the rights of the individual against the protection of society. Government must protect the majority as well as the minority. Words allowed at one time under one set of circumstances may not be allowed at another time under another set of circumstances, he wrote. The "clear and present danger doctrine sets wide bounds of freedom while allowing the government to protect itself in emergencies."\textsuperscript{14}

The mass media, in original libertarian theory, had two major tasks. The first was to inform; the second was to entertain. Eventually, a third—advertising, or sales—developed as the press sought financial independence. Akin to the first function of the press is another—servicing the political system. Democratic government places heavy responsibility on both the citizen and the press. To govern himself wisely in congregation with others, the individual citizen must be aware of the problems and issues confronting the state and of their possible solutions and consequences. In a government resting on the public opinion, then, the press ideally furnishes the people with the information and ideas
they need for making sound decisions.\textsuperscript{15}

There is some evidence that this occurs today. In a study of three Iowa newspapers and their communities, James Hilton Dye concluded that the more information mass media disseminate on local governmental affairs, the more people will know about those affairs. He also concluded that the more exposure people get to the local mass media, the more people will know about local governmental affairs.\textsuperscript{16}

Although libertarian ideas still guide thinking about the press system in America, a new theory is emerging. Called the social-responsibility theory, it rests on this proposition: Whoever enjoys freedom has certain obligations to society. Today publishers and broadcasters commonly speak of the "public's right to know" and the "responsibility of the press." This amounts to a shift in the theoretical foundation of freedom of the press from the individual to society.\textsuperscript{17}

It was not until 1947 with the report of the Commission on Freedom of the Press that the new ideas of press theory were integrated into one statement. The commission report listed five requirements that contemporary society requires of the press. The first was to provide a "truthful, comprehensive and intelligent account of the day's events in a context which gives them meaning." Second, to "serve as a forum for the exchange of comment and criticism." Third, to "give a representative picture of the various groups that make up
society." Fourth, to "present and clarify the goals and values of society." And, to "provide full access to the day's intelligence." Most publishers and broadcasters initially criticized the social-responsibility concept, mainly because professional journalists were not a part of the commission, but despite disavowals, much of the theory has found its way into the ideology and behavior of the mass media.  

The break with traditional thinking evidenced by the social-responsibility theory would guarantee a flow of information rather than assuming it would be a natural consequence of free and open market place of knowledge and ideas. The media are seen more and more as instruments of the public, rather than individual, will and interest. With monopoly ownership increasing, the media are asked to be agents of the public rather than the owners.

Jerome Barron said in 1969 the concentration of ownership of the mass media in a relatively few hands, resulting in a form of private censorship, and the changed physical characteristics of the population—changed in its composition, location and habits—have frustrated adequate presentation of the voices of dissent. Modern realities have demonstrated that the goals of the first amendment can be fully achieved only by imposing an affirmative duty on the owners of the media and government to provide access for protest. Prof. Barron was arguing that merely prohibiting censorship does not exhaust
the meaning of the First Amendment. It has an affirmative
dimension. The battle for freedom of expression has not
ceased. While most newspapers and other mass media outlets
attempt to provide an outlet for dissenting views, citizens
must press for their full rights. Prof. Barron advocated a
guaranteed access to the media by all citizens through
legislation.

Parallel with libertarian ideas of political organization
and press freedom, a commitment to universal education
developed in America. Education of all classes became
necessary for the efficient and effective functioning of a
democratic government. Noah Webster argued that while
despotic governments may well restrict education for fear
enlightenment will corrode their own power, in a republican
government corrosion will set in unless public enlightenment
is as widely suffused as possible. 20

The constitutions (of the colonies) are
republican, and the laws of education are
monarchical. The former extend the civil
rights to every honest and industrious man;
the latter deprive a large portion of the
citizens of a most valuable heritage.

Jefferson said that while the safest repository for political
power is with the people, they are an unsafe repository with­
out knowledge and information. He spoke for an enlightened
electorate, noted John S. Brubaker in A History of the Problems
of Education. And, James Madison wrote:
Nothing could be more irrational than to give the people power, and to withhold from them information without which power is abused. People who mean to be their own governors must arm themselves with the power which knowledge gives. A popular government without popular information or the means of acquiring it is but a prologue to a farce or a tragedy, or perhaps, both.21

Both John Adams and John Hancock begged their contemporaries to provide education for all classes. Keeping order in the young states was not the least of their concerns. And in his Farewell Address, George Washington called for the promotion of education "in proportion" to the extent the government gave force to public opinion. The Federal Constitution left qualifications of suffrage to the states and they varied widely in their liberality. Educational provisions varied widely, also, Brabacher said and it is on this account that in the early national period the government was known as a republic rather than a democracy. It gave force to only a limited, instead of inclusive, public opinion.22

The public school system was born in the period of Jacksonian democracy, the rise of the common man. Compulsory attendance followed soon after. High schools were started and American workers were satisfied that their children were having access to the same ladder of educational opportunity open to the children of the "haves."
John Dewey's volume *Democracy and Education*, a thorough and systematic presentation of the educational implications of democracy, appeared in 1916 at the end of a century of evolution of education along democratic lines. Dewey criticized the miscellany of educational concepts of the period and presented a plan to direct educational activity of the future.23

Education must provide for man, Dewey wrote, the tools required for making intelligent decisions and solving problems when faced with alternatives. He argued that genuine educational aims should be an outgrowth of problematic situations arising in "ongoing" activities. The aims should grow out of the means chosen to attain them. They are determined internally within the process, Dewey wrote, not externally to it. They give direction to present action, provide motivation, and at the conclusion of action are the standards by which consequences are evaluated.24

Educational aims for American schools were organized by the National Education Association in 1918 into the *Seven Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*. The aims were chosen to reflect the sociological realities of the America of that day. While there was no particular ordering of the principles, they obviously followed the aims projected by British philosopher Herbert Spencer in the later part of the nineteenth century in answering his own question of how to
"live completely." According to the NEA commission, education should aim at preparation for health, command of the fundamental processes, home membership, vocation, citizenship, leisure, and ethical character.25

Curriculum reformers such as Franklin Bobbitt, a Dewey follower, proposed to make an "activity analysis" of the broad range of human experience and divide it into its major fields. This would provide direction for the school curriculum. Activity analysis took a variety of forms later. It became "job analysis," the activities in which one would have to perfect himself to prepare for a particular job or post. In some instances analyses were made of the social activities of a particular community or group in the community, such as the consumers, and courses of study were proposed.26

The predominant educational philosophy of the day to which reformers turned was that of Dewey. Curriculum reconstruction was profoundly influenced by his pragmatism.27

Dewey was more radical than most. He did not think of educational aims as being drawn up in advance and independent of a problem demanding learning. Lists of objectives were useful only to determine scope and proportion in the whole course of study. The curriculum literally emerged from the process of adapting and readapting past experience to achieve aims that were the best way of solving the changing problems of the learner.28
Dewey pointed out that the child, because he is a beginner, is not ready to start with the completed experience of an adult. Consequently the teacher must organize the curriculum, in a psychological order to capitalize on the child's present experience and capacity.\textsuperscript{29} Since Dewey made educational aims depend on each situation, to him they were as numerous and varied as the situations of life. He did not, however, suggest unguided and uninhibited self-expression. He pointed out the need for the mature adult to assist in giving direction to the budding capacities of children. He expected the individual's aims to be basically conditioned by the need for social efficiency in industry and politics.\textsuperscript{30} The impact of Dewey's philosophy upon present-day education is in the methodology of teaching rather than the theory.

 Democracies have been devoted to education, Dewey noted. But a democracy is more than a form of politics, it is a way of associated living, of communicating experience. The criteria of a good society include two traits, he wrote, the number and variety of interests that individuals consciously and mutually share, and the extent and freedom of interplay between one society and another. The increased interpenetration of interests breaks down barriers of race, nationality, and social or economic class. A society with many channels of communication between its elements can mobilize resources of
initiative and inventiveness limited only by the size and talent of the whole body. As barriers are lowered there is an increase in number and variety of points at which individual interests touch. This puts a premium on an education that cultivates individual ingenuity and adaptability.\textsuperscript{31}

Given the libertarian underpinnings of American democracy, the commitment to universal free education, and the desire of curriculum planners to be flexible to meet the needs of an ever-changing student population, the orderly and coordinated study of the mass media in American society would seem to be an important addition to public school curricula.

Thanks to his television and radio sets, today's young adult sees many more national political figures and hears much more political talk than his father did 50 years ago. He probably talks less politics face-to-face, however, and participates less in campaigns.\textsuperscript{32}

The quality of passiveness affects the nature of the learning involved, as educators well know. There has been repeated demonstration of the fact that learning becomes better as participation increases.

There is considerable feeling among elementary education specialists that little children do not need to see too many things; they need to talk over and develop deeper concepts and understandings about the things they now see.\textsuperscript{33}
For the great majority of individuals, conformity or non-conformity per se is seldom a matter for careful study. Social behavior is, instead, a cluster of small running decisions, most of which are made almost unconsciously and without debate. It is these decisions, hundreds of them a day, in which communications plays the biggest part. The mass media seem to imply "this is the way millions are doing it."\(^{34}\)

In the light of the time spent by today's student with the media of mass communication, some study of these media and the communication process is essential. This means, first, the creation of an awareness of the place communication holds in the modern environment. Identification of the source of perceptions and attitudes would be important in evaluating them, and there is evidence that the average individual does not make such identification with any regularity. The realization that radio and television and books have an effect on one's view of the world can begin at a fairly early age, long before the time of formal social-science study. This should not be a matter of formal instruction in the early stages, but the cultivation of a habit of thought.\(^{35}\)

In the later stages of public education, more specific aspects can be examined in the classroom. Few people who had been trained how to listen would have been upset by a broadcast about an invasion from Mars. People who know how to watch will not be taken in by a candidate's pretense that he is
extemporizing from the heart when the corner of his eye keeps moving to a teleprompter. The recognition that a picture can express editorial opinion even more easily than the written word can help build a wall against propaganda. Study of the nature of the institutions of mass communication generally will have to come last, chronologically speaking, when there is already some understanding of the workings of social institutions.  

British educator Nicholas Tucker noted many teachers are not fully aware of the educational implications of the two most important sociological revolutions of the past twenty years; that is, the electronics revolution and the revolution in adolescent freedom and economic power. The culture provided by the mass media, particularly by film and television, represents the most significant environmental factor that teachers have to take into account. The media help to define aspirations and they offer roles and models. They not only supply needs (and create them), but many influence attitudes and values. Through mass media pupils can learn, with guidance, to sharpen their perception. Exercising their own judgment on experiences will within their comprehension is an important piece of general training.

The Newsom Report noted that in British schools it is not uncommon to find discussions going on about television or advertising, or to see a class engaged on a newspaper project.
However, the report advised, it should be the universal practice. It is too rare and some of it appears to be dangerously superficial, calculated to induce a facile cynicism. When pupils of average or below average ability have left school, the report warned, television will constitute for them "the most important source of knowledge about the world outside the confines of their own experience; of the enjoyment of the arts; of the acquaintance with the full range of human personality, and of contact with ways of speaking and thinking other than those of their own social group." 39

Mass media education should include attempts to teach about mass media as a phenomenon. It should not stop at the uses to which media can be put as illustrative material in some subjects. In Britain over the last decade, for example, English teaching has placed less emphasis on the received tradition of high culture and more on personal and primary experience from which language and thought may emanate. This exemplified by textbook titles such as "Impact," and "Encounter." In these, mass media are often preferred to literature, modern literature to older. 40

Just as there is a multiplicity of styles, contents and ideologies within the mass media, mass media teaching should not be a blanket, mass product. When one is confronted by the mass media, he makes consumer style choices. He chooses his ideology. One uses a segment of the mass media to symbolize
and to celebrate his own attitude and his sense of social position. Therefore, if pupils see a critical framework as hostile to those aspects of media that they enjoy, they may see the teacher as hostile to their chosen way of life—a "he who attacks the Stones attacks me" attitude. The teacher may know precious little about mass media unless he gets in amongst it. He should know more about the many choices that a teenager can make and why he makes them. He must acknowledge that the mere possession of culture—or the knowledge of culture—confers no benefit whether it be high or low culture. An approach is needed which can encourage a more valued neutrality and more explicit discussion. Society does need explicit teenagers. If they are not, education in this, as in other aspects, has failed.  

If "without free speech and assembly, discussion would be futile," as Justice Brandeis put it, the corollary has to be that everyone needs the skill to use free speech and assembly. In Mass Media and Education Per G. Stensland said, better communications and wiser choice require preparation. And freedom of the press (and of assembly) become empty words, unless schools develop freedom of readership and participation. Such freedom is irresponsible, unless it is based on judgment, appraisal and consistency. It is the responsibility of educators to present opportunities by which citizens (and future citizens) can prepare themselves to trade wisely in the
market of ideas. 42

The importance of mass media is underscored as they fill much of people's leisure. With shorter hours and less absorbing work, leisure is almost the whole of life. It is in leisure, not in work, that most people nowadays really live and find themselves. More and more what men do with their leisure decides the quality of their living. If this is correct, the mass media matter a great deal; they may well be altering the aims and character of the nation. They certainly seem to be a main formative influence on young people. 43

Many intellectuals do not understand the nature of the mass media. Leo Rosten noted they do not understand the process by which a newspaper or a magazine, movie or television show is created. These critics project their own tastes and values upon the masses who do not unfortunately share them. 44

Despite the conclusive evidence of the widest possible acceptance of newspapers by the public, despite the growth of a great variety of communications media serving public needs for information, one cannot forget the surveys of what Mr. John Doe really knows. The public is still massively uninformed. 45

The newspaper daily transmits information. But students reach little understanding merely by absorbing this information in sponge-like fashion. In the newspapers, more than in the usual textbooks, students need to sift and select; they need
to take part in deciding their own "lesson." An increasing number of American communities now have only one newspaper, many only one radio station and that owned by the newspaper. In such communities, maybe more than in others, it is important that students in schools and colleges be alert enough to discriminate, to choose. While one cannot talk back individually to the newspaper, he can most certainly weigh it, discuss it, and eventually exercise some effect on its policies. If newspaper communication is to be two-way, schools and colleges must make the readers able to do their part of the communicating. 46

In a recent work on the developing theory of visual communications and their effects on society, Caleb Gattegno saw the electronic image of television as the harbinger of a new age of visual learning. In time information the world over will be instantaneously and visually accessible to everyone, bringing about a realization of the global village. In speculating about this new world toward which man is being projected, Gattegno made much of a distinction between knowledge and knowing. According to Gattegno, tradition sees memory as man's key faculty; thus, the educated man possesses a storehouse of knowledge. Knowing, on the other hand, stresses the development of a learning structure: "...the learner has to be sensitized to a reality in which he will perceive for himself what others found in it." 47 In this new and developing
world of instantaneous visual access to a vast wealth of knowledge and information, such a new emphasis on knowing is becoming increasingly important. As man moves ever closer to this visual culture, Gattegno continued, he must develop a power to think quickly and correctly in a complex way on complex things. Thus he concludes that the point of education is to help people to trust their perception more than they trust other people's words.

American mass communication is primarily predicated on commercial bases with the control of the instruments of communication, the media, in the hands of private citizens. In the United States the only government regulation on the broadcast media is that exercised by the Federal Communications Commission, and this, for the most part, has concerned itself with seeing that standards of program balance and fair play are maintained. Motion pictures, to a degree, must contend with decisions of local and state censorship boards, but even these decisions may then be subject to review by the Supreme Court. The printed media are perhaps the most free being governed only by palpable requisites of truth and decency.

The nature of this competition, in its turn, influences what the mass communicator will present to the public. He may specialize his material, as he would for some magazine and paperback publishers, thus assuring himself of a reasonably
stable audience. Or he may search for a "common denominator" enabling him to appeal to as broad a spectrum of the public as possible. Since the latter path is the one most frequently taken, much of mass communication tends to be imitative, exhibiting a marked sameness in its products regardless of the medium. 51

The primary aim of much American mass communication is to market a product which will, in turn, serve as a vehicle for getting sponsors' products before the general public. Information and "uplifting" goals must, of necessity assume secondary importance in such a matrix. In order to market their product, mass communicators must reach as many people as possible regardless of their educational, financial, social, racial, religious, and ethnic differences. Since mass communication is competitive, a mass communicator is only as successful as he is able to capture and hold a significantly large portion of his potential audience. 52

It is this competitive environment which shapes the mass media messages consumed by the graduates of the public schools. And the one thing that curriculum planners can expect from the mass media is a recording of change.

Change is swifter in our times than ever before in human history and news of it is almost instantaneous. If we are to be serious in the belief that school must be life itself and not merely preparation for life, then school must reflect the changes through which we are living. 53
Pupils may be ahead of teachers. For years new developments in media have been condemned by older generations, only to be welcomed later, once they have become fashionable. The teacher should at least be on hand to suggest direction and check some of the instant, unfounded generalizations that always seem to occur when the media are discussed. Regardless of the approach, Tucker said, educators must realize that there are still many children who never see a book until they get to school. They should do more to cater to them. 54

Almost everybody, it seems, not only talks about mass communication, but wants to do something about it. Those concerning themselves with public morality sometimes want to suppress material which they consider obscene or otherwise corrupting; some have proposed breaking up the emerging pattern of concentration of ownership; some feel that steps should be taken to correct the bias of what they describe as the "one-party press." The Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association noted, public opinion polls have demonstrated a surprising willingness on the part of the general public to accept closer regulations of the mass media by government, and proposals have been put forth to make this possible. 55

In effect, most of the proposals have been directed at modifying the basic nature and functioning of the mass communication industry itself. As a profession, education
cannot directly effect changes in a vast industry, and it can do little about altering immediately the way the professional communicator goes about his job, even if it seems desirable to do so.

Education can do much, however, about the audience--about the individual who reads and watches and listens. And the only important social effects of mass communication are those which are expressed in terms of people as individuals, not power structures or economic institutions. Education can help see to it that the great advantages to be gained from mass communication development are gained indeed, and that the new problems arising from the same development are properly met. Since the whole structure of mass communication in America depends upon the support given by the audience, education can thus ultimately affect the whole pattern of the continuing revolution in communication.

It can do these things by recognizing so far as possible the changes in the conditions of public education which have already come about; second, by preparing students to make more effective use of their perpetual exposure to mass communication; and third, by taking advantage of new knowledge and new technology to do a better job throughout the whole program of education.
A. Footnotes


4 Ibid., p. 70.

5 Ibid., p. 74.

6 Ibid., p. 70.


8 Rivers et al., op. cit., p. 72.

9 Emery et al., op. cit., p. 32.


12 Rivers et al., op. cit., p. 78.

13 Ibid., p. 80.

14 Ibid.

15 Ibid., p. 81.

17 Ibid., p. 89.
18 Ibid., p. 92.
22 Brubacher, op. cit., p. 43.
23 Ibid., p. 48.
24 Ibid., p. 49.
25 Ibid., p. 17.
26 Ibid., p. 285.
27 Ibid., p. 283.
28 Ibid., p. 285.
29 Ibid., p. 292.
30 Ibid., p. 21.
31 Ibid., p. 49.
33 Ibid., p. 63.
34 Ibid., p. 66.
36 Ibid., p. 109.


39 Ibid.


41 Ibid., p. 42.


45 Macdonald, op. cit., p. 7.

46 Stensland, op. cit., p. 219.


48 Ibid., p. 101.

49 Ibid., p. 39.


51 Ibid., p. 5.

52 Ibid.

55 Educational Policies Commission, op. cit., p. 125.
56 Ibid., p. 126.
IV. TEACHING ABOUT MASS MEDIA IN SOCIETY IN THE UNITED STATES IN 1972

American public schools are beginning to offer units and courses about the mass media. In order to discover the extent to which this is a common practice, and the levels on which it is being introduced, a survey of the states was designed. The purpose was to distinguish between courses and units being taught about the mass media in society, and to chart the acceptance of the subject matter at elementary, junior high school and senior high school grades. An attempt was also made to obtain projections of the future adoption or rejection of mass media education in the states.

A three-item questionnaire was mailed to members of the National Association of State Education Department Information Officers along with a cover letter asking them to forward the questionnaire to the appropriate curriculum supervisor in their organization. Mr. Richard Schallert, director of information and publications, Iowa Department of Public Instruction, supplied the mailing list and allowed his name to be used in the cover letter. The questionnaire was prepared in consultation with Miss Sharon Slezak, language arts consultant, Iowa Department of Public Instruction. The first mailing of questionnaires was on July 10, 1972. A response was requested by August 10, 1972.
Thirty-two states were represented with replies in the first month of the survey. On August 10, 1972, a second questionnaire and cover letter were sent to state department information officers in the remaining 18 states. A similar request was made of them and the letter indicated the number of responses received to that date. The questionnaire asked for a response within a month.

An additional six responses were received during August and September. On October 13, 1972, the questionnaire was sent to a blind address in the remaining 12 states. Envelopes and inside addresses were marked "Language Arts Consultant" at the state departments of education. Again, a response was requested within a month.

The third mailing brought the total number of responses to 46 with information missing from Colorado, Maine, Massachusetts, and Tennessee. On December 1, 1972, the remaining four state departments of education were contacted by telephone. In each case an assurance was received that an estimate of the extent of teaching about mass media in society in that state would be supplied by an appropriate curriculum specialist and returned as soon as possible. These responses were received by December 31, 1972, and the sample then equaled the total population.

In some cases early responses came from persons with a title similar to "media resource specialist" or "audio-visual
coordinator." Their responses seemed to reflect an assessment of the amount of teaching with media rather than teaching about the mass media in society. In each of these cases a letter was sent to the respondent along with another questionnaire. Each respondent was asked to reconsider his responses in light of a more complete description of the intent of this research project or to forward the questionnaire to an appropriate curriculum specialist. In most cases the original respondent then passed the new questionnaire along to another curriculum specialist who returned it with remarks that seemed to respond more nearly to the intent of the study.

A. Conclusions from the Survey of the States

A tabulation of the survey provides estimates of the extent to which schools in the United States were engaged in teaching about mass media in society in 1972 (see Figures 1 and 2). Responses are divided by percentage of schools within each state offering mass media courses and units and by educational level.

A comparison of Figures 1 and 2 shows that units of study about mass media in society are more popular in the schools of the United States than courses about mass media in society. This is true at all levels of education. In states where more than one-third of the schools offer mass media education, the material is presented in the form of units rather than courses.
Figure 1. Number of states and percentage of schools within each state offering courses about mass media in society, K-12
Figure 2. Number of states and percentage of schools within each state offering units about mass media in society, K-12
1. Elementary grades

In the largest number of states, the extent of teaching courses or units about mass media in society in the elementary grades was estimated at 20 per cent of their schools or less.

Table 1. Frequency distribution of states presenting the percentages of elementary schools offering courses and units about mass media in society

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage of schools within each state</th>
<th>0-19%</th>
<th>20-39%</th>
<th>40-59%</th>
<th>60-79%</th>
<th>80-99%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Courses</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Units</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N = 50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Junior high grades

In junior high schools, the largest number of states also estimated the extent of courses at 20 per cent of their schools or less. However, the extent to which units is offered was higher. The largest number of states estimated the extent of teaching units about mass media in society in the junior high grades at between 20 and 39 per cent of their schools.
Table 2. Frequency distribution of states presenting the percentages of junior high schools offering courses and units about mass media in society

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage of schools within each state</th>
<th>0-19%</th>
<th>20-39%</th>
<th>40-59%</th>
<th>60-79%</th>
<th>80-99%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Courses</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Units</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Senior high grades

In senior high schools the estimates of mass media teaching were widely split. The largest number of states estimated the extent of teaching courses at 20 per cent of their schools or less. However, a significant minority reported the extent to be between 20 and 39 per cent of their schools. The units taught about mass media far surpass the number of courses. An equal number of states estimated between 20 and 39 per cent and 80 and 99 per cent of their schools offer units. (See Table 3).
Table 3. Frequency distribution of states presenting the percentages of senior high schools offering courses and units about mass media in society

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage of schools within each state</th>
<th>0-19%</th>
<th>20-39%</th>
<th>40-59%</th>
<th>60-79%</th>
<th>80-99%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Courses</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Units</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N = 50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Survey results showed the most teaching about mass media at the senior high school level. The amount of teaching is less at the junior high school level. And, fewer elementary schools than junior high schools make a commitment to teaching about the mass media.

In a majority of the states, less than four in ten schools offer courses or units about mass media in society (see Table 4). Only in the units category for senior high grades does the extent of teaching in a majority of the states reach as high as six in ten schools.

The third question on the survey instrument asked the state department consultants to describe trends they had identified regarding mass media education and to project these trends five years into the future. A majority of the state department responses projected an increase in mass media
Table 4. Number and percentage of states offering courses and units about mass media in society by educational level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational level</th>
<th>Number of states responding between 0-39%</th>
<th>Percentage of states</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Courses</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary grades</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>92%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior high grades</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior high grades</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>62%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Units</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary grades</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>69%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior high grades</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>56%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior high grades</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N = 50

education for their state. They indicated this would take a variety of forms.

4. Five-year projection for mass media education

   In summary, the respondents were predicting that:

   1. programs of phase electives in language arts and social studies would increase and include courses in the mass media,

   2. mini-courses and short-term electives would increase and include courses in the mass media,

   3. an increased emphasis on individualizing instruction would bring media study into school systems,

   4. visual literacy programs (Title III, ESEA) would provide a stimulus for adding media study,
5. an emphasis on career education would be a motivating factor in introducing media study,
6. mass media would be used to motivate students in new learning situations,
7. educational television (ETV) and cable television would increase and provide new opportunities for media study,
8. narrow media programs will broaden,
9. interdisciplinary media study will increase,
10. media studies will increase at junior and senior high school levels with little increase at elementary school.

But, the comments varied widely. A reading of the complete results which follow is necessary for a more comprehensive understanding of the projections for media studies in American school systems.

Table 5. The report of the states

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Information source at state department of education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alabama</td>
<td>A-V Consultant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With the increase in emphasis on mass media, more schools will become aware of the need for teaching about mass media. It is probable that the present emphasis on the role of mass media which is found in units in social studies, language arts and science classes will continue.

Alaska       Consultant, Language Arts

I see an increasing emphasis on communications in all areas in all levels of instruction. The spread of offerings will be greater because of the options made available in individualized instruction and elective language arts programs.
Table 5 (Continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Information source at state department of education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arizona</td>
<td>Associate Superintendent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>It is difficult to determine at present time. Several high schools are utilizing mass media to motivate students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arkansas</td>
<td>Associate Director for Instructional Services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Information about mass media is provided in practically all high schools. This is most often done in journalism classes. However, as you would suspect, this information deals largely with newspapers. The trend, however is towards including more and more information about television, radio, movies, etc. as well as magazines and newspapers. I would say there are few schools grades K-6 that have units in mass media (none that I know of). The high estimate of 80 percent that I gave to high school includes journalism classes. None are classified as courses or units in mass media per se.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>California</td>
<td>Consultant in Secondary Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>All courses in English and social sciences in California elementary and secondary schools touch upon mass media (television, radio, movies, magazines, newspapers, and books). Courses in mass media per se are usually restricted to the high school level. Two distinct courses (Logic and Semantics in Communication; Mass Media English) are offered in mass media. In October of 1971 there were 5,325 students enrolled in the Logic and Semantics course, an increase of 2,622 over 1970. There were 22,446 students enrolled in Mass Media English, an increase of 901 over 1970. Just under 2 million students were enrolled in all English and related subjects in 1971.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colorado</td>
<td>Communications Director</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mass media instruction and/or course offerings appear to be on the up trend in Colorado. This is particularly true in print media. However, through the Federation of Rocky Mountain States, an ETV project utilizing a satellite to be launched by the NASA might have significant impact in our state's classrooms and at every level.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5 (Continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Information source at state department of education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Connecticut</td>
<td>Consultant, Media</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>We expect a moderate increase in the units taught about mass media in society.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delaware</td>
<td>Director of Secondary Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Delaware formerly had educational television statewide, but it has been discontinued. I look for increased use of television in local school districts if funds are available. The need for improved communications in all areas should indicate an emphasis in mass media education in the near future.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Florida</td>
<td>Consultant, English and Language Arts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Increase in demand for courses in mass media. State adoption of textbook in mass media for elective high school courses. Development of a position paper on mass media by a state committee and sponsored by the Florida Department of Education.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>English and Reading Coordinator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The trends are towards (1) use of mass media in all curriculum areas, particularly in the English language arts; (2) units on the mass media in the English language arts at all levels (particularly in the junior and senior high schools quarter-system courses). All schools in Georgia have access to educational television. This coverage has a wide influence in the use of television as well as other media.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hawaii</td>
<td>Administrator, General Education Branch</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
|           | Since the state is moving more and more into providing students with semester elective options at the secondary level, courses in mass media will be developed along with other kinds of specialized courses. At the senior high level, there are five semester elective courses on mass media which schools can offer. These courses are in the realm of the language arts program. Mass media, propaganda, and the like are also handled within the social studies program. Our schools have always considered the inclusion of mass media education an important aspect of our overall general education curriculum, more so in recent years because of the advances made in media technology. It is
Table 5 (Continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Information source at state department of education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Idaho</td>
<td>English-Reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We have recently implemented a visual literacy program which we hope will expand and help make districts aware of the need for teaching about mass media. Several other programs in the state are now teaching mass media, either as a portion or unit of existing courses or as separate course offerings. Many specific media courses are currently being offered in schools which have adopted a mini-course model.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Illinois</td>
<td>Education Specialist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mass media is becoming a part of almost every program within Illinois is some form or another. Programs will broaden in the future.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indiana</td>
<td>Language Arts Consultant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have been unable to do a survey and have only been able to &quot;spot&quot; check the state. I hope to change the rather dim picture and am planning to offer a workshop and media fair this school year. Phase-elective English programs appear to be increasing the emphasis on the media.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iowa</td>
<td>Language Arts Consultant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I see continued growth at the middle school (junior high) and senior high levels. I anticipate that the unit approach will continue to dominate at the junior high level, since the comprehensive, required course is almost universal there. As teachers become better trained, the mass media course will probably continue to develop at the senior high level. Aiding this trend will be the growing trend toward elective courses at senior high level. Elementary mass media education is almost non-existent now. Teacher training is very weak in this area at this level. I don't anticipate much growth here.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5 (Continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Information source at state department of education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kansas</td>
<td>Specialist, Language Arts</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I see the study of mass media as probably a coming thing, especially in the schools offering mini-courses. That is, the title will appear on many schedules, but each course may very well be limited in its own way, not the broad interdisciplinary study. Very few teachers are prepared to teach the whole thing and would probably not become prepared for this one class a day. It can and probably in a few places will be taught by a team, but team teaching has proven to be a transient sometime thing because it is so dependent upon personalities. Unless we can get some institution of higher learning to offer preparation for a one-teacher class in humanities and another in mass media, by the time some people have learned to teach mass media the interest may pass. In the meantime, each of the involved disciplines should probably take individual responsibility for its part in the mass media. The present journalism teacher is not qualified to deal with the speech, drama, music, sociology, psychology, and political science—he is busy putting out the newspaper. In the high schools that have incorporated quarter electives in the language arts, perhaps a dozen or more have included a class in mass media. The study in each instance leans in the direction of the specialized preparation of the teacher.

Kentucky Language Arts Consultant

Nine-week offerings as a part of Phase Elective English. An increase in the number of high schools with radio and television facilities offering semester courses.

Louisiana Supervisor Elementary Education

Mass media is being extended rapidly in the schools of Louisiana. Federally funded programs are responsible to a great extent. However, the Louisiana state legislature in the 1972 session authorized educational television for the state.

Maine Consultant

No response.
Table 5 (Continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Information source at state department of education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Maryland</td>
<td>Specialist in Social Studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>There is a significant commitment to instructional television in this state and hopefully by 1980 there will be total state coverage for all schools. The use of ITV tends to provide the need for other sources in the classroom, i.e. newspapers, magazines, and motion pictures. Therefore courses tend to stress the most thorough use of those materials and the manner in which they serve added resources.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Massachusetts</td>
<td>Director of Educational Information Services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The massive financial constraints now placed upon public educational agencies in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts will certainly slow developmental work in this area. At present mass media educational programs are served through a variety of fragmented efforts. As with most educational services in Massachusetts, it is expected that a comprehensive approach will be developed during the next five years.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Michigan</td>
<td>Social Studies Specialist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I am sure the children in Michigan do study about mass media, either through discrete courses or units of work. However, we do not have a record as to which school districts offer courses or units of work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minnesota</td>
<td>Communication Skills Consultant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>At the present rate of expansion, I would guess that close to 100 percent of our schools will be doing work in the mass media within five years.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mississippi</td>
<td>English and Foreign Language Consultant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>In March, 1972, the Mississippi Education Association assisted in organizing a section on journalism for that organization. Through this organization mass media education should be greatly expanded. We have 51 teachers of journalism in the state, all of which we hope to involve in expanding mass media education.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5 (Continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Information source at state department of education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Missouri</td>
<td>Director of Curriculum Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cable television will provide educational programs. More extensive use of magazines and newspapers to teach social science and language arts. More courses in preparation of materials for use in movies and television. Increased emphasis on reading for enjoyment. Extensive use of films, film strips, film loops, slides and recordings for individualized learning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Montana</td>
<td>English Supervisor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>There is a definitely increasing trend in Montana toward offering units and courses in mass media. Within five years we should have a statewide ETV network which will facilitate and encourage further work in this area. Secondary schools using or developing elective-course curricula make wide use of media courses. At present our teacher training institutions offer no courses in teaching media, but perhaps that, too, is coming.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nebraska</td>
<td>Social Studies Consultant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Probably a slight increase in mass media education, however, in total, the effect would be quite small.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nevada</td>
<td>Curriculum and Instruction Director</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>As to the trend in mass media education for the next five years, I should find it very difficult to prognosticate. There will be an educational television station on the air in Northern Nevada by next fall. Channel 10 is now and has been operating as an educational channel in the Las Vegas area. Our major problem here is getting the programs into remote rural areas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Hampshire</td>
<td>English and Reading Consultant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
|                | I believe that where about 30 per cent use educational television including selected programs and teacher guides today, that within the next five years this percentage will rise to about 50-60 per cent. Closed circuit television and video-tape equipment is on the rise from about 5-10-per cent of the schools to an estimated 30-40 per cent within five
Table 5 (Continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Information source at state department of education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

years. This, however, is media rather than teaching about mass media. Aside from the educational television impact, I believe few teachers, other than the present approximately 10 per cent who are teaching about film making and video-taping on the secondary level, will contribute to the growing impact of mass media.

**New Jersey**
Consultant, Language Arts

I see a rapidly growing trend to use multi-media in many areas of instruction, particularly in the English language arts from K-12. More courses are being taught regarding discrete media since the advent and rapid growth of semester and mini-courses in our high schools. With the emphasis on career education K-12 now, I predict that courses and units on mass media will proliferate.

**New Mexico**
Director of Information

The trends in New Mexico in curriculum development do not seem to indicate any greater emphasis for mass media education. Most courses in New Mexico schools in social studies, language arts, journalism and speech do include units on mass media education.

**New York**
Associate in English Education

It seems safe to assume that increasing attention will be given to mass media education in the next five years, particularly in the junior and senior high school grades. Many schools are adopting the practice of offering elective courses in specialized areas of content. It is very common for a school to include among its offerings at least one course in one or more of the mass media. Courses in film appreciation and film making have become popular recently. The growth in membership of the State Educational Communications Association indicates a concern for promoting visual literacy.

**North Carolina**
Chief Consultant, Division of Languages

With the rapid growth of short elective courses in secondary English, North Carolina will probably have mass media courses (or units) in 95 percent of its schools within five years. At
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<th>State</th>
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<td>the elementary and middle school levels, North Carolina will probably be slower in developing specific units of instruction in mass media, but some increased emphasis will be noted, primarily as a response to State Department of Public Instruction leadership.</td>
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North Dakota Audio-Visual Consultant

Journalism and units relating to news writing have been common and will remain so. There should be a gradual increase in a study of film and television.

Ohio English Supervisor

Our 1971 survey showed a three percent figure in courses at the high school level. Many other programs include mass media units at the secondary level, but I cannot estimate the percentage. In the light of current trends in Ohio toward short-term elective courses in the English programs, I feel certain that mass media courses of the 9 to 18-week variety will proliferate. This is already happening in science fiction, mythology, linguistics, film study, oral communication, etc.

Oklahoma Language Arts Specialist

So far as I know the trends for Oklahoma in mass media education point toward incorporation of units into regular English classwork, and the use of mass media for educational purposes in other regular subject area classes. I do not see any indication of separate courses for the teaching of mass media in society in our Oklahoma classrooms. In our new language arts guide, A Bank of Ideas, quite a number of units on mass media are being included. The director of the North Central Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges in Oklahoma said we do not have any courses in mass media in society.

Oregon Language Arts Specialist

Language arts certification changes and emphasis by the Oregon State Department of Education in their evaluation for mass media education should help increase the number of courses in mass media education.
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<th>State</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Pennsylvania</strong></td>
<td>Coordinator of Educational Communication</td>
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<td>Our statistics show that in the next five years there will be greater use of mass media specifically cable television. Our thrust is now oriented to the fullest exploitation of this newest rage. Regional networks centered around 29 Instructional Materials Centers will provide the bulk of these services. Teacher in-service and open university concepts will be developed. An increasing number of schools are offering courses in mass media. This is indicated by an attendance of 25 at most sessions of a three-day workshop conducted in the area of film study during June 1972. The impetus for this growth is the Elective English program in over 200 Pennsylvania high schools. Little attention appears to be given the study of the mass media in the elementary schools. A survey of 25 Pennsylvania schools in December, 1971, showed courses being taught in film study, film production and radio-tv production.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Rhode Island</strong></td>
<td>Educational Media Consultant</td>
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<td></td>
<td>One school system requested an in-service training course for teachers during the 1971-72 year. There have been several inquiries concerning additional workshops for teachers. The areas of television and film are expanding on all levels, K-college.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>South Carolina</strong></td>
<td>State English Consultant</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>Having begun with special projects, experimental programs, etc., these courses are proving to be a popular, palatable, and productive addition to our language curriculum in South Carolina. With the advent of phase elective or &quot;mini-course&quot; programs, such courses will, I suspect, grow even more.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>South Dakota</strong></td>
<td>University Journalism Instructor</td>
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<td></td>
<td>The trend is definitely toward introduction of mass media courses on the high school level in South Dakota. Teachers attending a special &quot;Understanding Mass Media&quot; workshop at SDSU last summer indicated that there was considerable interest in the introduction of this course in high school curriculums.</td>
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<th>State</th>
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<tr>
<td>Tennessee</td>
<td>Supervisor of English and Reading</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Trends: (1) Some additional semester courses. (2) Many more mini-courses and electives about mass media offered in English departments. (3) An increased emphasis on mass media in existing English courses. (4) An increasing number of courses in mass media as a part of programs in career education.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Texas</td>
<td>Secondary English Consultant</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Several schools have begun to teach courses in filmmaking. These are followed by film festivals. There are contests of the best made student film in the field of media, and commercial films. Journalism courses delve deeply into the many areas of communication through the use of media.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Utah</td>
<td>Social Studies Specialist</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not much expansion.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Vermont</td>
<td>Director of Instruction</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Vermont has educational television with receiving sets in the majority of the schools. Newspapers are widely used as instructional materials. Few Vermont schools teach &quot;courses&quot; on mass media. The majority of our schools treat the subject fairly well through integration into many curricular areas.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Virginia</td>
<td>Assistant Supervisor</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Mass media education will continue as an integral part of the required and elective course offerings in Virginia's public schools.</td>
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<tr>
<td>West Virginia</td>
<td>Program Specialist, Language Arts</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>In our state the trend is going toward closed educational television. There is also some trend toward students preparing programs for ETV. The use of mass media in the classroom is not widespread enough because most teachers have not been trained in the use and do not fully see the value of ETV. As re-education occurs the use of mass media will spread. There is another worthwhile trend, and that is the use of ETV at individual learning stations. This is occurring because of the stress on individualization in learning.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Washington</td>
<td>State Supervisor of Language Arts</td>
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<td>Expanded attention; the work needed in this area is overdue. There has been no specific recommendation on instruction of mass media units from the State Department of Public Instruction, and this does not appear to be a high priority item at the present. Many school districts are involved in teaching mass media units and courses, however.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Wisconsin</td>
<td>Director, Publications and Information Services</td>
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<td>If the last two or three years is any guide, certainly units on mass media in society will increase during the next five years.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Wyoming</td>
<td>English Consultant</td>
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<td>Mass media courses are fairly common in Wyoming schools, particularly high schools. High school teachers have readily sensed the importance of enabling students to cope better with their media bombarded society. Of particular interest is the Title III, ESEA, Visual Literacy project being conducted by the Carbon County Schools. The basis of the project is to train teachers, both elementary and secondary, in using media as instructional aids and as subject matter.</td>
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V. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR IMPLEMENTING MASS MEDIA STUDIES IN SCHOOL SYSTEMS

It is desirable for American teachers to readjust curricula to meet the needs of their students. A curriculum should not be so rigid as to prevent a response to a demonstrated need. It is impossible, however, to add units or courses of study to the offerings of a school without diminishing the commitment to some other areas or redesigning the curricular structure.

A study of the effects of mass media on the culture and the government of the nation provides an impetus for curriculum planners to study ways in which to add or strengthen the teaching about this phenomenon. The libertarian philosophy which views man as a rational being capable of controlling his own destiny shows a direction and a reason for mass media study. The commitment which has been made in the nation to universal education to solve man's life problems gives a scope and direction to the study. And, curriculum consultants in the fifty states project an increase in mass media education in the next five years. The challenge is placed directly to the schools to help students live in a society shaped more and more by the complexities of mass media.

To be accepted by the teachers who will be charged with introducing it to a school system, a mass media program should have a controlling purpose with which they can concur. It
need not tell them what to teach, but should provide boundaries within which to design and place units and courses. It should allow for flexibility among the teachers who will design the learning activities, yet meet the needs of the students' general education. It should provide a frame of reference in which teachers may work to design units, groups of units, or combinations of courses. The best approach for a school system would seem to be the one which uses human and material resources most efficiently, yet effectively. To do this in the area of mass media studies, curriculum planners should investigate four logistical considerations:

1. The thrust of the curriculum content at each level of teaching about mass media and society,

2. the grade levels at which mass media studies should be introduced,

3. the placement of units about mass media within existing courses and the addition of discrete mass media courses, and

4. the importance to be placed upon the avoidance of duplication of effort by mass media teachers on different grade levels.

A. What Should be the Content?

The general thrust of the mass media studies content has more frequently focused upon the impact of the mass media on people through their popular culture. This is due in part to the introduction of mass media studies into the language arts program as "current literature." Motion picture and television
content are studied in much the same fashion as the novel or short story. A major purpose of such studies is to enable students to understand themselves and their times. This study has sometimes been at the expense of investigation of the important role the mass media play in a democratic form of government. One of the strongest arguments for including mass media studies in a school curriculum involves the student's responsibility to seek out accurate information and opinion upon which to base his citizenship decisions. This information may come to him in a number of ways through mass media, for example, by books such as Rachel Carson's *Silent Spring*, through television documentaries, or in newspaper coverage of political campaigns.

The mass media studies program that looks only at the popular culture, that is, the culture that presents itself daily to students, parents and teachers, is missing the more important governmental and societal concerns. Briefly, television content is affected by the Federal Communications Commission, a federal regulatory agency appointed by the chief executive. Film content is controlled or lacks control by federal and state statutes regarding obscenity and pornography. The economics of postal regulations influence the fate of magazines. Advertising is regulated by the Federal Trade Commission which in turn appears to regulate the content of television programming. Wire service and newspaper reporters
are asked to reveal confidential sources which may leak exposes of bureaucratic fraud. To omit these considerations and offer mass media courses to students to study only the surface of the problem is offering little service.

The content of the mass media curriculum should include studies of the role of mass media in a democratic society as well as the impact of mass media on the popular culture. It should focus on improving man's ability to exercise some control over his own destiny both through his citizenship responsibilities and the use of his leisure time.

It is at this point that a curriculum planner should see the interdisciplinary aspects of mass media study. The disciplines of language arts and social studies are integrally involved. And, there are few departments within a school which are not affected in one way or another by the pervasive-ness of the mass media. For example, the works of the arts and humanities are affected by the mass media through which they are transmitted. Students of home economics and business education become involved in consumerism which is affected by the media. The opportunities, then, for interdisciplinary or core curriculum study are tremendous.

Teachers planning media course content are faced with the dilemma of deciding how much electronic equipment to request and how to use it when it arrives. They ask if it is necessary to make a film to understand the role of film in
society. Few teachers dispute the statement that "doing the media" will motivate students who remain passive in traditional classroom settings. The preponderance of teaching experiences recorded to date seems to indicate that students should become involved in the media to thoroughly understand the processes involved. This seems to be especially true in the electronic media. Classrooms have been organized to "do print media" techniques of reading and writing, speaking and listening. Today, the challenge is that of media through which the students look (read) and listen simultaneously. Today they wish to "write" visually with cameras and "speak" electronically through recordings. They should be trained to use the new media as well as the old.

B. When Should the Instruction Begin?

The development of media discrimination is especially important to young children. Following a nation-wide study of behavioral objectives of mass media studies, Mary A. Koehler urged the teaching of mass media concepts to youngsters aged nine through twelve. They expose themselves to media influence for extended periods daily and the effects of media messages--whatever their nature and content--are likely to be more telling on the young. Mrs. Koehler is convinced that sustained and systematic training in evaluating mass media messages is necessary at the intermediate level in the public schools of the nation.¹
It seems to make sense to introduce film and media experiences to children as early as kindergarten. Robert Geller and Kit Laybourne, directors of the Project at Mamaroneck (N.Y.) involving mass media studies at an elementary school, argue that by seeing and listening perceptively students can demand the most of their media and essentially become "producers of their own experiences."2

Both of these research projects used a procedure of "starting where the child is," to determine the placement of various curricular segments. The tremendous amount of television viewing time by pre-school children is usually cited to support media studies early in a child's education. The argument is not for extensive mass media study in the early elementary grades, but for an introduction to some of the concepts of mass media and simple communications units.

For example, career education frequently begins in elementary schools in many school systems. Students learn about the occupations in their community. This builds upon concepts such as the Sesame Street theme in which pre-schoolers are instructed through song and dance that the policeman (fireman, television news man, etc.) is a "person in your neighborhood." Teachers might begin to teach about the source-sender of the television messages at a time when these messages are especially powerful and popular. The distinction between advertising (commercials), programming and news
broadcasts, for example, could be drawn throughout the elementary grades.

While it seems evident that mass media instruction should begin at elementary grade levels, it is also important to offer mass media studies at the junior and senior high school levels. Student interest in electronics is confirmed by the increasing sales of sound systems, recording equipment and camera gear. Students are intrigued by the media which shaped their early learning and continue to provide their chief cultural outlet.

C. What Form Should the Instruction Take?

Once the decision is made to start mass media studies in the elementary grades, the accompanying allotments of time and resources to be committed must be made. A typical arrangement is to introduce units about mass media in society into existing curriculum patterns. That is, insert them into social studies, language arts or humanities study. This can be done by adding newspaper units to social studies, film work to language arts, listening study to accompany the traditional reading readiness, and so forth.

From the introduction of units of study about mass media in society in elementary schools, curriculum planners can easily move into either multi-media or single-medium courses at the junior high school and senior high school levels. The
multi-media course serves the general education function while the single-medium courses allow students to investigate a personal interest in some depth. The two types of offerings are complementary. Multi-media courses provide an overview of the media world while single-medium courses give an opportunity to learn a communication technique which will help the student exert some force in his own environment.

Courses which are multi-media in design serve the general education function by explaining the societal and cultural implications of the media. Such courses investigate the information, opinion, entertainment and advertising functions of all mass media by looking across media rather than through one exclusively. For example the coverage of state and local politics, opinions about the condition of the environment, features about interesting people, and the advertising of goods and services can be compared across media. In these multi-media courses the students would study the mass media as they exist in their lives—in a competitive mix with each vying for the student's time.

Courses in the study and production of newspapers or films are examples of single-medium courses which are popular in many schools today. Similar work could be done with other media, for example, video tape television both as subject matter and a medium for production. Creative writing classes could produce magazines, and radio-sound recording classes
could produce audio tapes. Courses which concentrate on a
single medium, by their nature, limit their scope.

The term "course" should not be defined narrowly as has
been the tradition in many schools. It should include a wide
variety of options from the mini-course to the semester or
year course. It should include a number of organizational
options from the formally structured course to independent
study.

D. To What Extent Should the Instruction
be Controlled?

Many school curriculum planners find it advantageous to
assign aspects of the curriculum, or in the case of media
studies, a particular medium or aspect of a medium, to one
grade level. This approach, they say, is necessary to avoid
duplication of teaching effort and to prevent student boredom
from repeating exercises. The junior high school language
arts program in the Iowa City, Iowa, school district provides
an example of this type of integration. It features a mass
media "strand" through grades 7-10. In the same fashion as
other "content strands," (novel, drama, genre, language,
themetic units, individualized reading) mass media is divided
into mutually exclusive categories, for example, radio and
television in grade 7, magazines in grade 8, movies in grade
9, and newspapers in grade 10.\textsuperscript{3}
The Project at Mamaroneck through its winter workshop planned an integrated curriculum for K-6 media studies. "Activity groups" such as photography making, storyboarding, animation, sound making, video making, etc. are divided K-2, 3-4, 5-6. The film study "activity group" illustrates the integrated curriculum. K-2 students were "screening short films with non-verbal activities," 3-4 students were "screening with verbal activities and group processing games," and 5-6 students were "studying terminology (critical vocabulary), film history, genres, filmmakers." In the sound making "activity group" K-2 students were "making noise identification, listening to their own voice, telling a story, listening to records," 3-4 students were "collecting sounds, interviewing, making sound sculptures, radio programs, simple electronic editing," and 5-6 students were "editing audio tape, making sound documentaries, mixing sound, making film sound tracks."4

Milo Dalbey, Kit Laybourne and Ellie Waterston, all participants in the Project at Mamaroneck, outlined four reasons for such an integrated curriculum.

1. If there were a media curriculum that covered many grade levels, this would help teachers avoid repeating activities and information that students may have already covered. It would allow a teacher to know what the children had covered earlier.
2. An integrated curriculum for media studies could coordinate with important instructional elements within existing curriculum at specific grade levels.

3. Not only would such a curriculum synchronize media skills with the "basic skills," but it would focus attention on the basic core concepts in understanding media. An integrated curriculum would define and specify a developmental progression of requisite skills common to all activities. This would aid in establishing precise instructional objectives.

4. A curriculum that prescribed teaching from level to level would be an effective strategical tool in establishing media making and media studies within a school system. Media would gain an equal footing to areas like math, science, art, language arts. The field could get the administrative, personnel, financial and political support that it deserves.

The "strand" approach to curriculum has been used widely in such diverse areas as teaching about drugs and teaching about the film. In each case the subject matter content was divided into four parts with three age groups in each part. Simple concepts were to lay the groundwork for more complex considerations. In one film study curriculum, the general mental development of the child was matched by teaching an appropriate understanding of (1) film language, (2) aesthetic appreciation of films, (3) a critical assimilation of film content, and (4) methods and practical possibilities for participation. As his mental development matured the corresponding categories became more sophisticated.

Dalbey, Laybourne and Waterston also pointed out some arguments against an integrated curriculum.
1. By delineating a lock-step, formally approved and sanctioned curriculum for all media activities on all levels, teachers might be robbed of their present roles as innovators, researchers, curriculum developers and media disciples. With a required or semi-required progression of activities and concerns, individual teachers would necessarily end up teaching something they themselves weren't especially excited about. We have too much of this already.

2. The very act of creating a curriculum alters the nature of the material being dealt with. The medium is the message—in this case the structure of a formal curriculum brings with itself a linear, cognitive focus that is not altogether good. The learning process for children is different when, on one hand, kids are simply immersing themselves in a series of relatively isolated and self-contained projects and when, on the other hand, what is being done is part of an interrelated progression of mutually dependent activities. There is a parallel difference for the teacher: when a specific activity is part of a series of activities, one approaches it and monitors it differently than if its outcome were not anticipated.

3. An integrated media arts curriculum would limit the field no matter how inclusive the definition. Something would always be left out because it seemed peripheral. After all, you've got to draw the line somewhere. People would be left out too. If media became a sanctioned department or specialty area, it would lose the interdisciplinary nature that it possesses now. One of the most exciting things about the present field is that it brings together people with radically different backgrounds and interests.

4. Although a curriculum might win administrative support in the short-run, it might atrophy growth and vitality in the long-run. Experimentation would diminish as canonized, teacher-proof curricula were mass produced. Besides, administrations need people prodding them to take on new dimensions and not yet another new group with vested interests. Finally, were a
fixed curriculum developed for the "popular" communications media, we might get the feeling that we were "au courrant." We'd stop thinking about watching for new things which kids need help in learning about. Right now, all the apparently new technologies and effects of media on society's consciousness are eagerly included in our open, organic, non-defined grab bag of curricular bits and pieces.  

The points against a rigid integration of media studies throughout a school system are good ones. The strongest argument against such a system relates to the elusiveness and dynamic character of the mass media. The study is one of a constantly changing content. Materials are as fresh as the evening newspaper, the current issue of a magazine, the latest best selling novel which is about to appear in paperback and on film, and tonight's newscast, weather report on radio or other programming and television. To rigidly stratify such content to be learned like more traditional content areas would be to inhibit the instruction. It would encourage teaching to satisfy the requirements of the curriculum guide rather than to meet the needs of the students.

E. The Teacher as a Change Agent

A strategy for implementing a mass media studies program in a school system is necessary. It is unlikely that an entire teaching staff will be persuaded at one time to change its course content and structure to accommodate a new area of curriculum or a recombination of curricular elements. The
most common catalyst for change will probably be a teacher or a group of teachers who have become convinced that mass media studies is a beneficial area of study by reading about it in a journal, taking a course at a university, or hearing a presentation at a convention or workshop. The individual teacher or group of teachers is relatively helpless to effect a change in a school system without the support of administrative leaders and opinion leaders.

The teacher should begin his role as change agent by discussing his understanding of mass media studies with his department chairman or building principal. He should explain his understanding of the effect of contemporary mass media upon society. He should relate this understanding to the growth of libertarianism in American society and to the history of mass education in the United States. He could present a picture of the level of mass media education in the country today and describe the projections of state department consultants for the future. With this presentation he should seek the support of the department chairman or principal and ask him to accompany him to the next higher administrative level.

With the curriculum coordinators of language arts and social studies and the school superintendent, the teacher should again make his presentation with supportive material from his department chairman and principal. Together this
group could evaluate the materials and the approach within the philosophy and purposes of the school system. If this group agrees with the teacher that mass media studies are an important area of investigation through which to reach their goals, they should seek ways to assess teacher opinion toward the program at all levels of instruction.

A committee of teachers from all levels of the school system should be recruited. Each of the participants in the inquiry to this point should suggest staff members who would be interested in the new content area and those whose current assignment might be included in it. The committee should be open to all staff members who may wish to volunteer to join in the study. This committee should prepare a feasibility study and some reward should be made to them for their contribution.

The committee of teachers and administrators should suggest units and courses appropriate for each educational level. They should make these suggestions as a goal toward which curricular decisions should be made, rather than as a model curriculum which should be implemented the following year. They should make recommendations concerning the timing of various mass media concepts so that each would be appropriate to the mental development of the child at that point in his educational career. They should suggest content which would be appropriate for grade levels and for various
time periods. The teachers should estimate the staff resources needed to present the program effectively and the financial commitment which would be necessary. They should make recommendations about the training and retraining of the staff to present the new materials. These recommendations should be presented to the faculty at each attendance center and revised after hearing suggestions from the entire teaching faculty. In the largest school systems this might be limited to the language arts and social studies departments. However, this is less desirable since nearly all departments use or are affected by the mass media. Most departments would have valuable suggestions to contribute to the building of a mass media studies curriculum.

After a general plan has been adopted by the teachers, curriculum directors and the board of education, building committees should be formed to put the recommendations into practice on a reasonable time schedule. One should not expect teachers to launch these courses and units until they have been trained in mass media studies themselves. Each building committee should develop its own adoption schedule in cooperation with the system's curriculum coordinators and building principals. This committee of teachers who will be working with the students should consider the training they need, the resources necessary for effective media teaching, the relevance of the content suggested for their students, the timing of
units and courses within the curriculum at their educational level, and the plan for evaluation of their success in meeting the goals they set for themselves.

Some school systems may not wish to implement mass media studies at all levels. Certainly, the instruction on one educational level should not be held up waiting for a lower level to present materials. The reason for installing a system-wide program is not so much to provide knowledgable students for instruction at the upper levels as it is to teach about mass media when it is especially effective and exciting to the student. From most evidence to date, this appears to be in the early elementary grades. It appears to continue and expand into a fascination with media hardware at junior and senior high school levels. And, with some adults, the use of mass media for popular culture seems to be a preoccupation in their leisure time.

The teacher who instigates a mass media studies program within his school system can be proud of his contribution. He has helped his colleagues develop a curriculum which relates to the needs and desires of students. He has helped to add a dimension to his curriculum which will enable many students to exercise some control over their lives through preparation of media messages and critical selection of mass media programming.
F. Summary

From their first day in school students should be exposed to the techniques of preparing messages similar to those that have provided their pre-school learning. They should receive instruction in looking and listening in addition to reading. For it is with these skills that they will be learning through the mass media throughout their lives. As they progress through the grades they should encounter increasingly sophisticated knowledge and understanding of the mass media. Whether this learning takes place through units within established curricula or through new courses seems to be relatively unimportant.

Accompanying the training in the skills of communicating through the mass media, students should become acquainted with the safeguards built into the U.S. Constitution and state constitutions to protect their right to use mass media, whatever type, for whatever purpose they should choose. In learning to use mass media students learn to appreciate the process involved in mass communication. They become aware of the credibility of the source of mass communications. They see the value of their freedom of expression.

In order for students to be taught, teachers must learn to use media techniques for learning experiences. Teachers should be trained to help students master electronic apparatus in much the same fashion as they have corrected theme papers.
media curricula should be ordered so that students will encounter the media as they do in their homes, that is, in a multi-media setting. Distinctions should not be made among the media with each studied separately as if other media do not exist. Rather, a functional approach should be used. For example, emphasis could be given to studying the information sources necessary for adequate living. These could include sources from newspapers, magazines, books, radio, television, films or recordings or any combination of them. The credibility of the sources and the types of messages received from this media mix could be examined and compared. Opinion makers could be identified in the various media. Just as one might be entertained by a newspaper, a magazine, a radio and television, a recording, a film and a book in one evening, a student should investigate the mass media as a total phenomenon operating in his life. He should discover that if he wants reliable information on a topic he may well need to select more than one source or a media mix.

A new department within a school system is not needed. Mass media studies should be an interdisciplinary endeavor drawing from the expertise and specialties of a professional school teaching staff. It may require the teacher to learn a new "language," that of electronic media. In most cases the
teacher will find this an exciting endeavor.

The importance of the new curriculum is that of education for life. It will meet the needs of children growing up in an environment which is, in large measure, shaped by mass media. And the only prediction to be made for the future is that new forms and combinations of mass media will bring new challenges.
G. Footnotes


4 Laybourne, op. cit., p. 40.

5 Ibid., p. 42.


8 Laybourne, op. cit., p. 41.
VI. SUMMARY

This study has provided recommendations for introducing a new curricular area into a school system, that of the teaching about mass media in society. The impetus comes from the growing role mass media play in the lives of all Americans.

In preparing to make these recommendations, the writer has prepared an overview of the contemporary mass media setting. The results of studies by leading social scientists on the effects of mass media are reviewed. A special section is devoted to television and hypotheses concerning the effects it has on children. The effect of mass media on education and the lives of students is documented by leading education writers.

The libertarian philosophy which views man as being guided by reason and capable of controlling his own destiny is cited as a rationale for teaching about mass media in schools. The study couples this philosophy with the commitment in the United States to universal education to suggest man's schools should include studies of those institutions which become most influential in his life.

By surveying the fifty states, the writer discovered the level of teaching about mass media in society through courses and units was about 20 per cent of the schools or less in 1972. Units about mass media were more common than courses. The teaching about mass media was greatest in both units and courses at the senior high school level followed by the junior high
school level and the elementary school level. Projections for the next five years made by state department of education officials indicated an increase in these types of courses could be expected in most states. The respondents predicted that phase electives, mini-courses, and short-term electives in language arts and social studies would increase and include courses in mass media. Individualized instruction, visual literacy programs, career education programs were pointed to as aiding the introduction of mass media studies.

A central purpose for the addition of mass media studies is to equip students to make more knowledgeable judgments about their environment and their destiny. The study suggests the nature of the content of mass media courses be that of an investigation of the crucial role of mass media in a democratic society and the leveling effect of the mass media on the taste and popular culture of the people. It suggests the instruction should include a combination of the work traditionally thought of as a part of social studies and language arts curricula. It is the recommendation of this study that the instruction begin when a youth enters school and deal with the media which affect him during his learning years. The argument contends that mass media studies are appropriate at all levels of educational organization and should be included in some form in each level. It is recommended that the organization of the learning should be done by teachers in combinations of courses, units, mini-courses, extra-curricular activities, etc. which seem to meet
the needs of their students. The recommendation suggests that both multi-media "media appreciation" courses and single-medium skills courses be offered. In the first instance, it is argued, the student will learn to be discerning in his media consumption, and, in the second, he will practice his communication skills by using a mass medium. The two types of courses are complementary. It is recommended, further, that the content of individual courses should not be so rigidly stratified or integrated as to inhibit teachers in curriculum planning or revision at any level. Suggestions for the teacher to act as a change agent within a school are outlined. These include the recommendation that individual teachers should initiate mass media studies appropriate to their educational level. Teachers are urged to use intra-school committees and planning meetings to suggest an integrated approach to media studies to colleagues at other educational levels. The recommendation is based upon the premise that it is important to include mass media studies at all levels where students are affected by mass media in their leisure time and in their preparation for citizenship.
VII. BIBLIOGRAPHY


VIII. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The writer wishes to express his appreciation to his committee—Professor Ray J. Bryan, major professor; Professor James W. Schwartz, thesis advisor; Professor Carl Hamilton; Professor Trevor G. Howe; Associate Professor George A. Kizer; and Associate Professor Milton D. Brown—and to the members of the faculty of the Department of Journalism and Mass Communication who have counseled with him during his years of teaching at Iowa State University. For these men and women the writer has high admiration.

The writer thanks journalism education colleagues around the country who urged him to pursue this study. He thanks the curriculum consultants in the fifty state departments of education who provided a base for the study by describing mass media education in their states.

And, the writer is not unmindful of the contributions to his work made by those he holds most dear. They made all the difference.
IX. APPENDIX
In preparing a research report on the topic "Teaching about Mass Media in Society, K-12," I am attempting to identify the extent to which mass media units and courses are being taught in public schools across the country. I am also seeking a projection of future popularity of these courses in your state.

Richard Schallert, director of information and publications at the Iowa Department of Public Instruction, suggested I write to you and ask you to forward this letter and questionnaire to the appropriate curriculum supervisor in your organization. This will probably be in the area of language arts or social studies.

I will appreciate your assistance in obtaining this information.

Sincerely,

James A. Crook
Assistant Professor

Enclosures
Teaching about Mass Media in Society, K-12

QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Courses about Mass Media in Society. What percentage of schools in your state are teaching courses about the mass media in society (television, radio, movies, magazines, newspapers, books)? Please estimate.

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<tr>
<th>Primary or Elementary Grades</th>
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2. Units about Mass Media in Society. What percentage of schools in your state are teaching mass media units (television, et. al.) within other courses? Please estimate.

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3. Please describe the trend(s) you see for your state in mass media education (television, et. al.) in the next five years.

Please return this questionnaire by Sept. 9, 1972 to: Prof. James A. Crook, Department of Journalism and Mass Communication, Iowa State University at Ames 50010.

Name ________________________________ Title ________________________________

Address ________________________________ City ________________________________ State ________________________________

July 10, 1972
In preparing a research report on the topic "Teaching about Mass Media in Society, K-12," I am attempting to identify the extent to which mass media units and courses are being taught in public schools across the country. I am also seeking a projection of future popularity of mass media education in your state.

I have had replies from 32 states in the first month of this project, but your state's reply is missing. I would appreciate your help in forwarding this letter and questionnaire to the appropriate curriculum supervisor in your organization. This will probably be in the area of language arts or social studies.

Thank you for helping me with this survey.

Sincerely,

James A. Crook
Assistant Professor

Enclosure
Teaching about Mass Media in Society, K-12

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Please return this questionnaire by Aug. 10, 1972 to: Prof. James A. Crook, Department of Journalism and Mass Communication, Iowa State University at Ames 50010.

Name

Title

Address

City

State

July 10, 1972
October 13, 1972

In preparing a research report on the topic "Teaching about Mass Media in Society, K-12," I am attempting to identify the extent to which mass media units and courses are being taught in public schools across the country. I am also seeking a projection of future popularity of mass media education in your state.

I have had replies from 38 states in the first months of this project, but information from your state is missing. I would appreciate your help in estimating the extent of mass media study on the enclosed questionnaire.

Thank you for helping me with this survey.

Sincerely,

James A. Crook
Assistant Professor

Enclosure
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Please return this questionnaire by Nov. 9, 1972 to: Prof. James A. Crook, Department of Journalism and Mass Communication, Iowa State University at Ames 50010.

Name_____________________________ Title_____________________________

Address___________________________ City__________________________ State______

July 10, 1972