

TELEVISION SOCIOLOGY: A STUDY OF EDUCATIONAL TELEVISION  
AND INNOVATION MODELS

by

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## ABSTRACT

This study concerns ways in which formal education can be of direct service to the community, roles for media in such a context, and organizational procedures for optimizing the effectiveness of innovation and developmental work. It focusses on a project undertaken by Capilano and Douglas Colleges, to develop a credit course in Sociology to be delivered via cable television delivery systems.

In developing the conceptual framework for the study, it is explained that formal education cannot be kept separate from its social context, which is alienating and in continuous flux; rather than socialize the young on behalf of social norms, formal education should involve its students in the process of examining and altering society. A suitable model for education and teacher-student relationships is set out, as is a dynamic model for communications systems within that model. Because the study is concerned with the implementation of educational change, there is a discussion of planning models suitable for the development of educational policy and practice; it is proposed that policy formulation and program implementation should be seen as both continuous and interacting processes.

The history of the specific educational television project is explained. This includes the colleges' reasons for doing the project, its early history, the planning model for the work, and the way the project had to be shut down before its tasks could be completed.

The work of the project team is discussed in detail. The concepts of individualized instructional materials and self-paced learning are explained. Cable penetration in the Vancouver area makes television a useful medium for college outreach, if an appropriate model and format for programming can be developed. In this project an unusual format was planned, involving the use of a sample student population working directly with the instructors, as the subjects of the televised material. Because the course work was set in an actual community, arrangements were made to begin and sustain a relationship between the course and the community. A system of resource centres was also planned throughout the college districts, to increase opportunities for the expected 2,000 students to make optimum use of the course materials.

Both internal and external dynamics of the project are considered in detail. Technological change is viewed as an opportunity for critical evaluation and change by teachers. The ways in which discrete projects encourage and strengthen change and growth in participants is one of their great values. Within this project a planning model was developed similar to the one proposed for larger policy development for systems change. This project had tenuous links with the Department of Education, which in the end refused to fund its work. The failure to set up more effective relationships is examined from the points of view of both the colleges and the Department.

It is suggested that this project could have had many values to educational development if it had been completed. The

failure to do so makes clear the ways in which administrative practice must change if educational programs are to strive for new goals and relationships with the community.

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## INTRODUCTION

This study is concerned with several questions concerning the responsiveness of public education to social change. Although neither the data base nor the discussion cover more than a few aspects of such an immense subject area, it is hoped that, at least by inference, this work might contribute to ongoing discussions and work by educators in British Columbia.

The specific focus of the study is a project undertaken by Capilano and Douglas Colleges from September, 1972 until December, 1973; the project undertook to develop an introductory Sociology course for delivery via television, and was to have been the first post-secondary educational undertaking of this type in British Columbia. Although the project itself was not able to be completed, there is a good deal to be learned from it.

The author was actively involved in the project's inception, and worked as a project member after it began. I have attempted in this study to articulate much about the project as it was experienced by the participants; at the same time I have tried to step back from the project and examine it critically, hoping to make it of value to future endeavors.

At the most general level, the study is concerned with the role of an institution like a Community College in the community, and the ways in which its roles and relationships affect learning opportunities for students. In its most extreme form, the question

raised is whether education can accomplish its most basic goals if it is not self-consciously involved in the life processes of the larger community; or put alternately, what types of teaching and learning opportunities become available when a college chooses to intervene in the community? Is it possible to weave together living and learning, to the benefit of both?

More specifically the study explores ways that audio-visual media can be useful in such endeavors. The project team planned to use televised material delivered via cablecasting systems, for goals different from those of most commercial, public or educational broadcasting; is it realistic to pursue these goals using a broadcast medium? could television for a mass audience be an integrated part of an educational project stressing dialogue and interaction? to the extent this appeared possible, what can it tell us about future possibilities for media in public education in British Columbia?

At a third level, the project will be examined as an organizational form. To what extent was this way of developing a new educational plan -- a discrete project -- a useful form for getting the work done effectively? which aspects of the project's history and organization helped or hindered its work? did aspects of the organizational and procedural facets of the project contribute to its inability to complete its tasks? are there things to learn from this project in the organization of innovation and development of public education in British Columbia?

In the first chapter I have attempted to develop the conceptual framework for the study. First is a discussion of educational

goals in the face of social change, and an examination of questions concerning the relationship between schools and the community. This is followed by a discussion of the three major areas which were developed in the project's work; the state of Sociology and its teaching is discussed; educational theory as it underlay the course design and strategy is set forth; and communications theory adequate to the project's tasks is examined. Finally, questions of organizational forms for the development of innovative policy -- and its actualization -- are discussed.

The second chapter is a descriptive account of the project's history; my major sources here are the notes of the project team members made during the project's life, and the various memoranda and correspondence which were created at the time.

In the third chapter I have examined in detail the plans developed by the project, for giving the sociology course. The concept of "self-paced learning" is first explained. The reasons for using television for this course, and the role that televised material was to play are described. The plan and format for the televised material are explored together with the decision to focus the course material and processes in a real community. The overall plan for the course delivery system is then explained.

In the fourth chapter I have examined the project as process and as an institutional form. A number of internal dynamics are discussed. Secondary learning for project participants is discussed, exploring ways in which the media project had potential impact on non-mediated teaching ideas. A number of critical external problems in

the project's growth and demise are examined, for possible relevance to future work of this type.

In the final chapter I have attempted to draw some conclusions to the questions raised earlier.

It is useful I think to clarify the relationship between the project described here, and this study. The project was begun as a discrete endeavor, and not as a study. It was expected that it would be useful to the extent it accomplished its own goals. The independent evaluation of the project which was included in its budget was to be used in updating and revising the project, not solely in the service of other endeavors.

The transition from project participant to thesis writer is an unhappy one. My colleagues and I were most unhappy that the work could not be completed. This study is an attempt to make the work useful in some way, but there is no denying the conviction of all who took part that only the completion of the project itself could have been the basis for anything remotely like a success.

In the study itself there are forces at work which were not present during the life of the project; in clarifying these I hope to keep clear the useful differences between the work involved in doing a project like the one described, and more self-contained academic work of the type being undertaken here.

The project aimed to use television to give an effective sociology course to a much wider student group than now comes to the Colleges. We wanted to accomplish those goals. They were our focus and the context we consciously worked in.

It would be wrong to pretend a naivete that was not there. We did in fact know that if we succeeded we would have an impact on other developments; there was a good deal of discussion at the time of the project's beginnings, about some form of "Open College" for British Columbia, and if the project was successful we hoped to be able to contribute to those discussions.

But the larger context was not our central one, and therefore we were freed from its worst excesses. We were neither harbingers nor advocates of a massive development of educational television; we were not even setting out to affect the teaching of sociology throughout the province. In not having such weighty mandates we were freed up to some extent; certainly others who helped us in our planning discussions felt easier working with us on a specific project, rather than a whole new educational plan.

Therefore in attempting to use the project to look at the larger questions of the study, we are asking it to perhaps do more than it is capable of; if there are excesses of this type I hope they will be seen as weaknesses of the study, and not necessarily of the project plan itself.

In a similar fashion, the study makes use of other work and experience differently than the project. During the work of the project itself we did not refer to much of the reference material used in the study. We worked in a more direct fashion, taking from our own state of mind and experience the major elements of our work style and plans; we referred to other people and works only as they were directly relevant to specific questions we were trying to resolve. In the course of the study I have been concerned to work backward to

many of the major works which explore these themes and elements most effectively, and to use these in clarifying both theory and practice as embodied in the project. I have not tried in the study to separately identify reference ideas used in the two situations.

I have certainly found the process of pulling back from the project a useful one; there is obvious value in attempting to render theory and practice explicit and integrated. I have felt it useful to draw these distinctions out of an appreciation of the value of the two types of work being knit together here; if both modes have their own appropriate work to do, we should be aware of their distinct differences, so that in confusion we do not ask any form of activity to be more than it can.

## CHAPTER 1

## THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR THE STUDY

The project reported on in this study was an attempt at innovation in education. Like so many project of this type, it does not fit into any single theoretical framework. The work involved education, television and the field of sociology; it reflects the need to continuously define the roles of institutions like our community colleges; and it was carried out in an organizational form which itself merits examination.

In this chapter I have drawn upon work from a number of disciplines too often thought of as discrete; it is on the occasion of studies such as this that we are given the opportunity to draw from such rich resources the elements of syntheses for specific purposes. In attempting in this chapter the development of that type of synthesis I have been concerned to keep the various elements integrated with each other, in the hope of evolving a whole that will be both adequate to its task and consistent with its various components.

Institutional Goals and Public Needs: Colleges and the Community

British Columbia today has nine Community Colleges. Their basic functions have been to provide university-equivalent academic courses (for the first two years of university only) and technical

and para-professional courses lasting up to two years. The Colleges are now being integrated with vocational schools and will thus combine three credit components, plus some continuing education programs.

When John B. Macdonald wrote his report on higher education in 1962, post-secondary education in British Columbia was still very limited; there was only one public university -- Victoria was a four-year college granting University of British Columbia degrees -- no colleges, and the British Columbia Institute of Technology in its infancy.<sup>1</sup> This report was the basis for the significant increase in public spending which has taken place at this level since the mid-1960's; it stressed the primacy of education in the attainment of social goals:

. . . education is the major key to the progress of mankind and the preservation of those rights and privileges which we believe should be shared by all men. The new knowledge of science, properly used, will not only allow us to flourish as a nation, but also allow us to bring the underdeveloped countries rapidly through those stages of development which took richer and more favoured nations centuries to attain.<sup>2</sup>

Liberal ideology concerning public education has made institutionalized teaching and learning the very centre of the personnel processes of contemporary mass society. In this view public education is a service industry to everything else: on the one hand its role is that of manpower development and training; on the other hand it is to develop a citizenry able to cope with the larger forces and changes at work in society. Macdonald sees both roles for post-secondary education:



Human resources are our most important asset for tomorrow. The nation making inadequate use of its citizens through failure to educate them will be a nation doomed to economic distress at best, and economic disaster at worst.<sup>3</sup>

and,

But what is of more importance and direct interest to the individual is that in the world of the twentieth century he must be so educated and his mind must be so trained that he is able to live with some measure of mental ease in a world of constant activity, turmoil and ferment. Education must be designed to permit individuals to interpret and understand the revolutionary changes which are occurring everywhere.<sup>3</sup>

This study is not the occasion to discuss the role of colleges and manpower development; but issues concerning the general citizenry and social change are very much our concern. Certainly the colleges have seen themselves playing roles in these areas, both through credit courses and continuing education programs.

In seeking a critical framework for discussing these aspects of college endeavors, we must look more deeply at the nature of this "changing society" which is so widely discussed today. In a passage in The Americanization of the Unconscious, John R. Seeley has presented a dramatic portrait of its outstanding characteristics:

It is a society predominantly secular and 'matter-of-fact.' It is a society in which order is difficult to discern; and what is ancient is very nearly synonymous with what is discredited. It is a society of indirect and mediated experience, based largely on such local and temporary ties as cash and shifting interest afford. It is a society in which no relationship -- even that of parents to children -- typically endures more than a few years . . . . It is a society in which the family and

the friendship, the primary groups, are disintegrating under the impact of secondary-group attitudes imported into them -- the ulterior motive and the manipulative attitude. It is a society, very largely, of enacted institutions; institutions enacted so fast and so easily that wise is the man who keeps his lawyer at his elbow. It is outstandingly a heterogeneous society -- a society indeed so heterogeneous that communication between its members is rendered nugatory by its difficulties where it has not already been poisoned by its purposes. What is true, worthy or of good repute is not only *not* the subject of widespread agreement, but is the object of endless dispute; even the very canons by which it shall be recognized, and the possibility of achieving such recognition, are themselves in doubt. It is a society in which the division of labour is so elaborate as to have made of labour something altogether different from what it once was; a society of incredibly fine specialization; a society in which little that is important is done without the intervention and mediation of money. It is a society of -- in one sense -- much freedom, innumerable possibilities, and an abiding necessity to make choices of importance, without in any sensible way being able to predict the consequences of choosing any one of the possibilities proffered. It is a society in which the connections between reward and luck, or chicane, or insensitivity, or greed, seem evident and spectacular; but where any connection between reward and virtue is widely believed, in the words of our current literature, to be 'purely coincidental'. . . . It has predominantly the character of chaos.<sup>4</sup>

How does one "train" citizenry for such a society? Liberalism has long held that schools -- or, in an earlier time, the church -- could do so by affecting the consciousness of the individual. Positing the individual citizen as the base of "reason" in society, it has been held that a more humane commonwealth could be built up out of the actions of rational individuals. Pluralist liberalism takes the same fundamental notion but places its faith in collections of individuals, gathered into "publics" as the hope for a rational future.<sup>5</sup>

Our colleges have acted institutionally on the basis of such an ideology. Their course structures and academic programs have

built into them times and places for the training in social skills and awareness which should be the basis for a public rationalism. In placing such programs within their walls, colleges have acted on the belief that consciousness can be changed in a situation separate from the other parts of the citizen's social existence.

The whole idea of institutionalized liberal studies assumes a social reality fundamentally rational and managed by its citizens. In doing so it denies the reality of social forces and power -- except as those are claimed to be extensions of public rationality and management. And in this way liberalism completes the circle and forms an integrated intellectual system.

Such a system does not stand up to the data or analysis brought to the subject by Seeley and others. Nor does it stand up to the experience of providing liberal studies within the colleges. Our students do not feel capable of taking charge of their own lives and social contexts; nor do they anticipate studying for the sake of later forming part of a rational public which can control social process. Education is viewed by its clients primarily as an act of individual preparation for a minimal accommodation to a larger reality which is at worst hostile to them, and at least indifferent. Students of liberal education tend to take it far less seriously than its professional advocates.

It is only in breaking out of the closed circle of liberalism that we can begin to evolve an understanding of education and the community which will be a basis for liberating education. We must make that break at the most basic point in the theoretical system,

viz. the relationship between consciousness and social reality.

For Marx, society was not rational -- although it was susceptible to radical analysis. Rather, society was *potentially* rational, "on the condition that it synthesized the individual's highest needs with a conception of self and activity, consonant with, indeed constitutive of, community."<sup>6</sup> In such a view, neither consciousness nor social reality can develop in isolation from the other; the hope for collective rationalism cannot be left with either intellectual process or political activity alone.

Within such a framework we must not only change our concept of what a school does, we must change our very image of the school itself. For it follows that the school cannot itself be an island of rationalism, having only to pass it on to its students. For that rationalism is itself not fully developed because the society has not grown and developed to the point of giving it birth. Rather the school could possess elements of such a rationalism, or could potentially be capable of a role in such a development process. But it could not fully use those elements or play those roles while it is viewed as a place separate from the rest of the society.

In this study we are concerned to explore one way in which a college was prepared to make its own resources and programs part of a process which was basically centred outside its own walls. In doing so, the possibilities for educational programs capable of the task involved in helping people prepare for life in a changing society, would have been tested somewhat.

Such a direction is felt necessary by those working in the colleges today. This is shown in part by the preliminary report of the British Columbia Department of Education's Task Force on the Community Colleges, which was developed during the 1973-74 academic year. It calls for a developing relationship between the colleges and the larger community:

Learning is a natural and necessary condition of humanity that should not and cannot be confined to formal educational institutions. It is a life-long process which occurs in the real-life situations of the community as well as in educational facilities. A fundamental purpose of a community college, therefore, is to *provide learning opportunities and provide learning throughout the wider community as well as within college walls.*

In being drawn outside itself an institution like a college can have set in motion real opportunities for its own growth and change. Not the least of these is the humbling experience of finding that its programs, faculty and reference works only possess final answers to problems posed arbitrarily within the bounds of a course outline; once forced outside these bounds, the academy must come to be co-participant, not the fountainhead of all truth. Within a conception such as this there is the chance for educators to accept a fuller description of the changing society and the forces at work in it. In accepting itself as inherently limited by the larger society and having within itself most elements of society's problems, the college may be able to be a more helpful participant in developing its solutions.

Theory for an Educational Praxis

Is there a significant role for educators if they do not know all the answers to teach their students? Is there any precedent for consciously mixing together formal learning and the daily endeavors of the community?

In his own work and writing, Paolo Freire has developed an educational framework which is useful to us in these regards. His work was done in the field of literacy training, first in Brazil and later in Allende's Chile.

Freire took the position that there is no functional value in separating the cognitive skills of reading and writing from the whole range of affective knowledge and social patterns which govern whether and how the cognitive skills are utilized. For him literacy skills were worth teaching because one intends people to use the skills it can potentially bestow upon them. From that functionalist premise he developed a teaching concept which gave equal weight to both the usage and the skills of literacy.

In his teaching methods there is no distinction drawn, either of emphasis or the phasing of instruction. Based on prior field research -- concerning important social concepts and key vocabularies -- people are helped at one and the same time to grapple with real aspects of their life and take on the tools of reading and writing through and for this life-goal.<sup>8</sup>

The result is a dynamic model of education, focused around the theme of "conscientization," or the awakening of consciousness -- "a change of mentality involving an accurate, realistic awareness

of one's locus in nature and society; the capacity to analyze critically its causes and consequences, comparing it with other situations and possibilities; and action of a logical sort aimed at transformation."<sup>9</sup>

Freire has set forth six basic principles which he sees as necessary if education is to play this type of integrating function:

- the student must be helped to become a subject, not an object;
- people become subjects through reflection on their own situations -- if education is to serve the growth of the student, it must in this way liberate rather than domesticate him;
- the extent to which people become subjects is based on involvement and action, not mere reflection, for in acting on the world both the world and the actor are changed;
- in entering the social and cultural environment, by reflecting and acting upon it, man creates culture;
- in these ways man makes history;
- the content and design of education must be adapted to these desired ends.<sup>10</sup>

The notion of making formal education relevant to daily life is certainly not a new one to Canadian educational practice; adult learners bring their own experience into schools, and children learn arithmetic by doing examples of buying and selling in the market. But Freire is doing more than that. He is not exploiting daily life for the sake of an interesting lesson plan; rather his lesson is itself a direct part of daily life experience.

In order to make the school a genuine part of community experience, instructional design and teacher-student relationships must be appropriate. Freire does not see the teacher as fundamentally

one who instructs and then evaluates students' performance; rather the instructor is a colleague possessing different skills from those of the student:

The only way to help the individual make the transition to the level of critical awareness is through the use of an active method, in an intense dialogue between those who wish to learn and those who wish to give their assistance.<sup>11</sup>

Such a role is a radical break with current practice in our schools, and will not be easily accomplished by either teachers or students. As James Herndon has pointed out, children very quickly learn that schools are a discrete part of their daily lives, making special demands and eliciting special behavior. He found it very common for children to be unselfconsciously capable of solving complex problems in their street life, and yet be genuinely convinced of their inability to deal with the same problems when presented in the context of formal school learning.<sup>12</sup> In a contrary fashion, it is very common for the wisdom so confidently held in school to be perniciously unavailable to both teachers and students in their life outside its walls.

We know that the separateness of school experience is a creation of neither student nor teacher in isolation; it is rather the basic quality of their mutual relationships which teaches and re-teaches, creates and re-creates this role pattern. At the root of that relationship lies the teacher's inordinate authority, not only to lead but to act as judge and jury over students' behavior. The fundamental practice of grading and granting credit is not a



construct of individual teachers alone, but rather, a cornerstone of administrative and financing systems in public education. As such it is not an area directly within the individual's power to change.

Therefore we are faced with a limitation on the extent to which the teacher in a college can enter a dialogue with his students, of the type called for by Freire. In the project being studied here that limitation certainly existed. Various ways were developed to attempt to make dialogue rather than evaluation the operative dynamic between teachers and students; these are discussed in later chapters.

#### Sociology for Community Education

If a course in Sociology belongs as part of the type of endeavor we have been discussing, it must be given because it naturally is suited to the enhancing of the life of its students and their community. A course would not fit these criteria if its major *raison d'etre* was in effect permission to pass on to the next course in Sociology, etc. *ad infinitum*, in the long process of being granted formal status in the academic community.

In his appendix to The Sociological Imagination, C. Wright Mills suggests that the best of social science work should be capable of utility to students and community:

. . . the most admirable thinkers within the scholarly community you have chosen to join do not split their work from their lives. They seem to take both too seriously to allow such dissociation, and they want to use each for the enrichment of the other. <sup>13</sup>

In two other passages in the same appendix, he more concretely sets out ways in which the practice of sociology can be carried on in ways which avoid the separation of the scholar from his community, and which are committed to the enhancement of both individual and society together:

Know that you inherit and are carrying on the tradition of classic social analysis; so try to understand man not as an isolated fragment, not as an intelligible field or system in and of itself. Try to understand men and women as historical and social actors, and the ways in which the variety of men and women are intricately selected and intricately formed by the variety of human societies. Before you are through with any piece of work, no matter how indirectly on occasion, orient it to the central and continuing task of understanding the structure and the drift, the shaping and the meanings, of your own period, the terrible and magnificent world of human society in the second half of the twentieth century. 14

Do not allow public issues as they are officially formulated, or troubles as they are privately felt, to determine the problems that you take up for study. Above all, do not give up your moral and political autonomy by accepting in someone else's terms the illiberal practicality of the bureaucratic ethos or the liberal practicality of the moral scatter. Know that many personal troubles cannot be solved merely as troubles, but must be understood in terms of public issues -- and in terms of the problems of history-making. Know that the human meaning of public issues must be revealed by relating them to personal troubles -- and to the problems of the individual life. Know that the problems of social science, when adequately formulated, must include both troubles and issues, both biography and history, and the range of their intricate relations. Within that range the life of the individual and the making of societies occur; and within that range the sociological imagination has its chance to make a difference in the quality of human life in our time.<sup>15</sup>

Mills represents a dynamic stream within Sociology today, but unfortunately a minority stream. Like so many academic disciplines, Sociology has itself been largely socialized and tamed. And the teaching of Sociology is therefore not necessarily easily adapted to our framework.

In The Coming Crisis of Western Sociology, Alvin Gouldner describes how Sociology as a body of knowledge has come to be shaped by the predominant uses to which it has been put. Current social science is given tasks and funding primarily by centres of corporate power, be they private or public. Although it has claimed an allegiance to the poor and powerless, most current sociology has been done not for them, but rather, about them; the metropolitan power centres with the largest roles in welfare and social management systems have used social research to sophisticate management practices and technologies.<sup>16</sup>

As Gouldner says, it is not surprising that mainstream sociology has as a result tended to assume the norms and values of its clients. And therefore a good deal of the teaching of sociology has tended to make articulate and apparently intelligible much of the current nature of contemporary society, without having much to say to those who have to live in it.

On two counts then, this is not the type of sociology-teaching which would be appropriate to us. For one, we do not want to "teach" a finished body of knowledge; second, we want subject matter which can be directly relevant to those learning it.

Gouldner suggests that sociologists and their work must themselves become an object of study. He calls for a "reflexive sociology," one concerned first and foremost with what sociologists want to -- and actually do -- in the world.<sup>17</sup> The mission of a reflexive sociology would be to transform the sociologist, "to penetrate deeply into his daily life and work, enriching them with new sensitivities, and to raise the sociologist's self-awareness to a new historical level."<sup>18</sup>

In two ways at least this concept is appropriate to our task. First, in undertaking the project itself, those who are teachers of sociology had no choice but to put themselves and their subject matter under scrutiny. As will be discussed later, the results of that examination were valuable. Second, Gouldner is really taking us back to Mills' position, if we regard our students as beginning sociologists rather than as students of sociology *per se*. For in that way both teachers and students have a common relationship to the tasks at hand, and both can conjointly do the work of sociology and be critically aware of the ways of doing it.

In yet another sense, sociology like other disciplines, will be forced to be more self-critical if brought to bear on the daily tasks of the community. For at one and the same time this type of praxis creates new clients and new audiences; forced into the light of day in this sense, natural forces are created which will continuously bring practitioners back to major problems and issues.

#### Communications Theory for a Dynamic Educational Praxis

There have been significant examples of mingling formal education and community concerns; we can look to Freire's work or at such examples as the early years of training in community development and cooperatives which took place at St. Francis Xavier University at Antigonish.<sup>19</sup> There have also been important examples of social science work done with and for the community, such as in the Crestwood Heights work.<sup>20</sup> In all these cases, relationships were direct and without aid of mass media.

Mass media have been used in Canada in social change situations, most notably and successfully in the Radio Farm Forum series; although done by adult educators and not for formal credit, evaluations of that series suggests they were effective in that time and place.<sup>21</sup> In more contemporary situations, the National Film Board has experimented with using media in social change processes; however, in the important experiments on Fogo Island in Newfoundland and in the St. Jaques area of Montreal, both film and videotape were developed and used in essentially closed circuit situations.<sup>22</sup>

For this study we need to go beyond these examples and make use of theories of mass communications, since the project plan from the beginning was to use television as a mass delivery medium. We shall also explore theory as used in educational media. In both fields, the bulk of the work available is implicitly built on a static model, involving clearly defined temporal stages and essentially one-way communications processes.

In mass communications theory, most work has been concerned with patterns of convincingly delivering messages to an audience, whether the message be anything from political propoganda to the sale of soap powders. Harold Laswell's formulation of the elements in that conceptual system was: "Who says what in which channels to whom with what effect?"<sup>23</sup>

As John and Matilda Riley have pointed out, this model is very convenient for research, but it does not deal adequately with vital aspects of the communications process:

. . . the traditional view does not take fully into account ongoing processes of social interaction of which the single communicative act is merely one component. Nor does it take into full account those psychological processes which, although they may be going on within the individual recipient quite apart from any particular communication, may nevertheless markedly affect his reaction to it. Extensions of this (traditional) view in both the psychological and sociological directions seem necessary if the mass-communications process is to be explained more adequately or its outcome predicted more accurately.<sup>24</sup>

The same critique can be made of the model for most planning with regard to instructional media. The current mode is generally to take the Laswell concept and put it forward as a question: Through which medium (channel) would what group of resource people and teachers (who) deliver what content (what) to the specific student target group (whom) for the desired effect? In most educational planning models it is conceived that the message is passed on and then a new process takes place which allows for its consolidation; therefore when teaching cognitive material, drill follows communication; when teaching affective skills, small group discussion follows communication; and when teaching motor skills, hands-on practice follows communication.<sup>25</sup>

What we see then is that although true education is a fully dynamic process, involving co-processual activity and change for both teacher and student, the traditional communications models impose a segmented and relatively static conceptual framework for both analysis and planning.

Using the experience of print journalism, Walter Lippmann developed insights which are helpful in this regard, in Public Opinion.<sup>26</sup> He pointed out that the communications message does not actually flow directly from communicator to recipient, because those

messages are really mediated information. Using the concept of "stereotypes," he pointed out that both communicator and recipient convey and receive selected and weighted images of reality, and that these form the real communicated messages: "For the most part we do not first see, and then define, we define first and then see."<sup>27</sup>

Although he stressed the role of stereotypes for message recipients, he should have laid equal emphasis on their role for communicators as well:

They (stereotypes) are an ordered, more or less consistent picture of the world, to which our habits, our tasks, our comforts and our hopes have adjusted themselves. They may not be a complete picture of the world, but they are a picture of a possible world to which we are adapted.<sup>28</sup>

The Riley's have in effect picked up from this point and suggested ways to place both the recipients and senders of communications messages in their own primary and secondary group contexts; they assembled data which suggests that neither senders nor receivers operate in isolation from their own context, and that these contexts play a fundamental role in the effects of any communications process. They suggest three aspects which emerge from placing the communications process in a sociological context:

First, communicator and recipient are now seen as interdependent; their relationship no longer fits the one-way who-to-whom notion.

Secondly, with rare exceptions, this relationship does not consist of a single communication which potentially elicits only a single reply. Any given communication is, rather, one link in a chain of communications which extends over time. . . .

Thirdly, each of these individuals has a definite position in the social structure. This does not mean merely that (the communicator's) role in the process, as well as (the recipient's) tends to be affected by its

social context. Beyond this, these several positions are related to one another within the social system. Thus the several communications which flow from one individual or group to another appear no longer as random or unrelated acts but as elements in a total pattern of ongoing interaction.<sup>29</sup>

In working from this type of approach we see that we must give careful attention to the contexts in which both student and teacher are located, both generally and during the communications process itself. Further we are led to see the fundamental importance of the overall *pattern* of communications established, and that this pattern is larger in both time and space than would be seen if we treated the act of sending and receiving messages as atomistic events.

The "communications" specialist in a planning process like this one must understand that relationships between communicators continue to exist before, during and after any specific communications activity. Therefore the media materials for a course such as this cannot by themselves set the relational patterns between students, teachers and community. For example, if students and teachers are genuinely engaged in a common search for information or understanding, a phone-in show might become a dialogue process; if their relationship is really a traditional authoritarian one, the phone-in show will recreate those patterns, no matter how it is planned.

On the other hand, because this project set out to create a relationship based on mutual endeavors, our communications systems must be designed to reflect, support and enhance that pattern; in doing so this dynamic model must be used for planning and evaluating the media systems.



## Institutional Arrangements for Educational Innovation

The project being reported on here was created within the broad lines of policy aspirations of both the Provincial Department of Education and the two colleges directly involved. At both those levels there was a stated desire to take the resources of the community college to a larger segment of the community, to make the college as directly useful to the life of students and community as possible, and to begin using media appropriately as they would contribute to the tasks.

Moreover these aspirations are not so novel as to be without benefit of prior theoretical and practical work; as has already been discussed, previous experience in other places was available both to support the validity of the objectives and to assist in operationalizing them.

The project team members were able to produce a concrete proposal in which they believed and to which they were committed. The concepts and details of the plan impressed those who discussed them in the two colleges, in the Provincial Educational Media Centre and in the Department of Education.

Yet the project was not completed and its work was not put to any real test. This fact forces us to look at the organizational facts of the project; for several reasons they are no less important than the substantive questions addressed by the project itself. Obviously we need to understand why the project was not carried forward to completion. We also need to know whether the organizational

pattern used was helpful to the project's coming into existence and its subsequent ability to produce a credible plan.

The project was really the child of two institutional masters, each very different functionally and organizationally; in the end the senior institution did not agree with the junior, and this disagreement led to the project's closing. Their fundamental disagreement was not about policy objectives or programs; rather it was really about models for planning and development.

The colleges are young and not affluent program agencies. They have relatively small bureaucracies and work on a daily basis with their clients; consequently most of their energies go into operations rather than policy formulation.

The Department of Education on the other hand is an older organization, rich in bureaucratic tradition and remote from its clients. Its central function is the granting of funds to public educational agencies; it is also involved in the prescriptive work of curriculum development and the setting of administrative regulations and broad instructional practices. It acts on a very formal planning model.

In such a conventional planning model there is a clear delineation between policy formulation and policy administration. Positing a clear difference between the two, it follows logically that the formulation of policy can and should precede its implementation. The decision to expend large amounts of public money for any major program ensures that policy will be carefully scrutinized and politically evaluated, before being operationalized.

However, the logic and necessity of this process often leaves behind it a good deal of mythology about the real nature of the two different forms of activity. For it does not follow from the necessity of prior planning and approval (at the policy level) that program development and implementation is a discrete activity (at the operational level).

In his study of Canada's first social democratic government, Seymour Martin Lipsett found many examples of government ministers and senior officials misunderstanding the nature of the difference between the two.<sup>30</sup> Cabinet ministers would often see themselves as formulating policy on an aspect of social programs as if that were a discrete function; yet the senior advisors who filtered their data and in effect set limits on the options available, often did so in the light of current operational practices or anticipated problems if operations were significantly altered. Yet the belief in themselves as policy-makers, and in that function as being separate and theoretical, left the cabinet caught in their own fiction and far less flexible and innovative than they thought themselves to be.

At another stage, the implementation of policy was left for the most part to government departments and agencies quite far removed from cabinet ministers or even senior officials. Lipsett reports many cases of broad policy actually being shifted in its detailed implementation; yet this information was not readily available to cabinet ministers, who relied on the bureaucratic channels used for implementation, for both evaluation and feedback on program realities.<sup>31</sup> There were years of great tension between the cabinet and their own rank and

file party members over programs in adult education, in agriculture and cooperatives; at the centre of the conflicts was a credibility gap between government practitioners and the recipients of government programs.

The belief in the separability of policy and practice is a major component of the bureaucratization of political leadership. It intellectually supports a real distance between those in charge and the programs they are theoretically responsible for. It ensures that there is no real occasion for evaluation of policy or practice. Before policy is acted upon it is too theoretical to be susceptible to rigid scrutiny; moreover, there is no way to have broad involvement in the evaluation of a policy formulation which has not seen the light of day in practice. The separability belief also tends to give higher status to those who make policy than to those who carry it out. Program implementation is something passed on and down -- from cabinet ministers to civil servants and agencies; as such the detail work involved bears neither the imprint nor the real approval of those in whose name it is performed. The only way to apparently bring control and continuity in such situations is to create detailed regulations and bureaucratic procedures, all of which are harder to change than to create. The result is of course the hardening of both policy and its implementation in a bureaucratic web.

An optional planning model has been developed sporadically in young nations such as Cuba and Tanzania or by young agencies developing social and political programs in North America.<sup>32</sup> In these situations it was clear that new answers would have to be invented

to solve problems; inherited models spoke to fundamentally different needs, opportunities and conditions. In his discussion of Cuban practice, Regis Debray puts great emphasis on the importance of keeping both policy and its implementation fluid and in continuing dialogue, one with the other.<sup>33</sup> This specific notion of "praxis" is a response to the failure of inherited ideology, and the need for the development of innovative theory and practice. For Debray action must be taken, and ideology developed from its successes or failures.

It is instructive that the concept of fluidly developing praxis occurs in new organizations. Once locked into the planning/implementation model, large organizations have great difficulty seeing any activity outside it. (As will be discussed further in a later section, the Department of Education could not bring itself to see the project discussed here as an experiment; rather for them it would be a precedent).

The author had first-hand experience of an agency consciously committing itself to the praxis concept, when the Company of Young Canadians was attempting to develop a research function within its own organization. The agency's program was relatively new to Canadian experience and was creating demands for types of research not generally available; field workers needed to be capable of doing and passing on very detailed data gathering and analysis, and at the same time, program planners needed both data and broad syntheses of social and economic trends. A number of efforts were made to formulate a policy and research program, using traditional methods such as staff discussions, Board policy papers and discussions, and con-

ferences with research specialists. All stopped short of grappling with the problem in enough detail to inform actual research work and planning.

It was decided instead to accept a broad organizational commitment to an appropriate research function and to consciously experiment in its development. In a memorandum establishing a four-month series of pilot projects it was stated as follows:

It is felt that the kinds of research necessary for planning and evaluation in CYC, useful sources of information, useful methodology, financial, time and personnel requirements, problems of locating the research function within the CYC structure, etc. will be best discovered through concrete research experience.<sup>34</sup>

The projects were undertaken by providing research training and activities in the ways which seemed most appropriate at the time, in four different types of situations in the organization. After the projects were completed a report was prepared as the basis of a plan for building research appropriately into the agency. The final proposal was significantly different from what would have been created without the pilot project experience;<sup>35</sup> in attempting to begin building the plan for the future out of experience, the plan was more realistic and refined than previous ideas; in doing so in a frankly experimental way, participants were enabled to make mistakes and learn from them with minimal emotional stress.

The discrete "project," with defined objectives and duration is in no way a novel organizational form. In fact it is much used in public education, even if it is not usually seen as a conscious instrument of policy formulation. Matthew B. Miles has examined a

number of examples of such "temporary systems" as they have been used in attempts at educational innovation.

Miles outlines some of the reasons why temporary systems are attractive as ways to do new things. They are an addition, rather than threat to, existing practice; and they can, at least in the short-term, be added to an existing system without altering it. As an experimental instrument, they can be accepted by those with authority without requiring a prior change in values; and they can represent a way to bridge the gap between ideals and practice.<sup>36</sup>

Perhaps more interesting, Miles found that most of the short-term projects he examined gave evidence of similar behavioral patterns for their participants. He found that communications processes within temporary systems are very different than in permanent ones; special languages usually develop along with new opportunities for interaction, which in turn leads to new interpersonal relations and enhanced communications. Within such projects, norms develop which positively emphasize change and innovation, all of which enhance the productivity of such endeavors. Within the projects there are often striking opportunities for role redefinition for the participants, and the result is often a significant refashioning of participants' identities.<sup>37</sup>

In one passage he suggests some basic reasons why temporary systems are such dynamic environments; the passage brings us right back full circle to our earlier discussion of the nature of the predominant pattern of life in our society:

An excellent analysis of the innovative personality in developing countries [Hager, 1962], describes the high innovator as someone who sees a *coherent* world about him, which he feels will respond dependably to his efforts to change it; he trusts his own evaluation of his experience; he sees the surrounding world as valuing him if he achieves his goals; he has high needs for autonomy, achievement, order, succorance to others, and nurturance from others. It is the understatement of the year to suggest that these conditions are rarely met in mass society today. Feelings of powerlessness, failure, meaninglessness, alienation and interpersonal distance are extremely common. The temporary social system provides an environment which meets personal needs, reduces defensiveness, and releases potential for creativity and innovation; it can be precisely fashioned by its designers as a temporary Utopia, flexibly capable of evoking the best possible contribution from its participants.<sup>38</sup>

And lastly, experience in similar situations has shown that new behaviors and norms developed in temporary systems do not usually end with the finish of the project. "If the norms are strong, they tend to become internalized as attitudes in the person, or carried over as practice into permanent organizations."<sup>39</sup>

All of these aspects of temporary systems are found in the project being studied here and will be discussed subsequently.

Miles is also very realistic about the limitations of temporary systems, and this of course rounds out the basis for the critical discussion of the sociology for television project. For as Miles states, the same separateness from permanent systems which is the basis for the positive aspects of projects, also serves as their Achilles' heel. Participants themselves often forget they have been set to work in a temporary system precisely because the mainstream is not yet ready for them and their endeavors.<sup>40</sup> Moreover in being drawn increasingly inside the project, participants cut



themselves off from their other colleagues. In this way they find themselves potentially isolated both from those with authority and from their peers, who might be the power base needed for larger changes.

In examining this project we will look critically at this "linking failure." In doing so we shall be looking at both the project and the two levels of institutions which gave it birth.

## FOOTNOTES

## CHAPTER 1

<sup>1</sup>John B. Macdonald, Higher Education in British Columbia and A Plan for the Future, Vancouver, the University of British Columbia, 1962, pp. 25-46.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 4.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 6.

<sup>4</sup>John R. Seeley, The Americanization of the Unconscious, New York, International Science Press, 1967, pp. 268-269.

<sup>5</sup>Norman Birnbaum, Towards a Critical Sociology, New York, Oxford University Press, 1971, p. 433.

<sup>6</sup>Ibid., p. 433.

<sup>7</sup>British Columbia, Department of Education, Task Force on the Community College, Towards the Learning Community, Victoria, Department of Education, 1974, p. 2.

<sup>8</sup>Thomas G. Sanders, "Paulo Freire," Washington, D.C., 1970, (mimeographed), pp. 1-3.

<sup>9</sup>Ibid., p. 2.

<sup>10</sup>Ibid., pp. 3-5.

<sup>11</sup>Ibid., p. 5.

<sup>12</sup>James, Herndon, How To Survive in Your Native Land, New York, Bantam Books, 1972, pp. 92-97.

<sup>13</sup>C. Wright Mills, The Sociological Imagination, New York, Oxford University Press, 1959, p. 195.

<sup>14</sup>Ibid., p. 225.

<sup>15</sup>Ibid., p. 226.

<sup>16</sup>Alvin W. Gouldner, The Coming Crisis of Western Sociology, New York, Basic Books, 1970, pp. 500-502.

<sup>17</sup>Ibid., pp. 488-489.

<sup>18</sup>Ibid., p. 489.

<sup>19</sup>Alexander F. Laidlaw, The Campus and the Community: The Global Impact of the Antagonism Movement, Montreal, Harvest House, 1961, pp. 71-96 and 113-120.

<sup>20</sup>J.R. Seeley, R.A. Sim, and E.W. Loosley, Crestwood Heights, A Study of the Culture of Suburban Life, New York, John Wiley and Sons, 1963.

<sup>21</sup>John Ohliger, "What Happened to the Canadian Farm Forum," in Adult Education Journal, Vol. XVIII, No. 3, 1968, pp. 176-185.

<sup>22</sup>Dorothy Todd Henaut, "The Media: Powerful Catalyst for Community Change," in John A Niemi (Ed.), Mass Media and Adult Education, Englewood Cliffs, Educational Technology Publications, 1971, pp. 105-124.

<sup>23</sup>John W. Riley Jr., and Matilda White Riley, "Mass Communication and the Social System," in R.K. Merton, L. Broom, and L.S. Cottrell Jr., (Eds.), Sociology Today, Problems and Prospects, New York, Basic Books, 1959, pp. 538-540.

<sup>24</sup>Ibid., p. 543.

<sup>25</sup>See for example, J.W. Brown, R.B. Lewis and F.F. Harcleroad, A.V. Instruction: Media and Methods, New York, McGraw-Hill, 1959, pp. 26-42 or Jerrold E. Kemp, Planning and Producing Audiovisual Materials, Scranton, Chandler Publishing Co., 1963, pp. 3-14.

<sup>26</sup>Walter Lippmann, Public Opinion, New York, The Macmillan Company, 1947.

<sup>27</sup>Ibid., p. 81.

<sup>28</sup>Ibid., p. 95.

<sup>29</sup>Riley and Riley, op. cit., p. 569.

<sup>30</sup>Seymour Martin Lipsett, Agrarian Socialism, Berkeley and Los Angeles, University of California Press, 1959, pp. 261-269.

<sup>31</sup>Ibid., pp. 264-267.

<sup>32</sup>See for example, Edward Boorstein, The Economic Transformation of Cuba, New York, Monthly Review Press, 1968, or The Chicago Joint Project, "Where It's At," Chicago, 1969, (mimeographed).

<sup>33</sup>Regis Debray, Revolution in the Revolution? New York, Monthly Review Press 1967, pp. 15-25.

<sup>34</sup>A. Pape, A. Hyde, and Rowan, M., Report by the Research Consultant Group on the Development of Research Within the Company of Young Canadians, Ottawa, 1967, Company of Young Canadians, p. 2.

<sup>35</sup>Ibid., pp. 1-6.

<sup>36</sup>Matthew B. Miles, (Ed.), Innovation in Education, New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964, pp. 638-639.

<sup>37</sup>Ibid., pp. 465-475.

<sup>38</sup>Ibid., pp. 464-465.

<sup>39</sup>Ibid., p. 473.

<sup>40</sup>Ibid., pp. 480-483.

## CHAPTER 2

## HISTORY OF THE PROJECT

The Decision to Develop Innovation

During the fall semester of 1971, the Administration at Capilano College began exploring ways and means of enriching the college's instructional strategies. There was a desire to develop ways of offering courses to people who had difficulty attending classes at the various college centres; at the same time it was expected that alternative instructional systems which could serve that goal would also be made available to students attending regular classes, as an optional way of doing their course work more independently.

Two main courses of action were set in motion. The possibilities for using the local cablevision company -- both for producing and delivering educational material -- were studied. And a group of faculty were invited to join in discussions to explore ways of giving their own courses with minimal direct faculty involvement.

The CATV possibilities were found to offer some opportunities, but less than the college had at first hoped. Northwest Community Video carried programs to most of the geographic area comprising the north shore, but not to the densely populated area centering on Lonsdale; that area was wired by Express Cablevision, a separate company. Community Video does have its own head end and origination facilities and was willing to carry educational programs as a service to the

college; express on the other hand does not originate material itself and instead uses the program feed from Vancouver Cablevision over its Channel 10. Community Video had both limited and generally unreliable production facilities, and therefore was not a potential production agency for college television fare.

Seven faculty members joined the effort to begin planning new types of courses. Early on, in discussions with the Academic and Career Deans, it was agreed the courses would be designed for essentially remote learning away from the college, would be fully equivalent to current offerings and course titles, and would be designed in modular fashion to permit students to work individually and at their own speed. It was also agreed that these "self-paced learning courses" should be as dynamic and attractive, and as learner-centered, as the best course offerings being given in the college's regular program.

It was hoped that the introduction of mediated materials could be the basis for dynamism in the courses; there was a strong feeling that the college should not become a traditional correspondence school in its efforts to reach out to the community. As a result discussions began which centred around course objectives and instructional design strategies, in which media could play appropriate roles.

As no large amount of money was available in that year's budget for faculty time for such endeavors, it was decided to have faculty work with a consultant team in doing a broad design and budget for their own courses. The consultant were drawn from the

college's Media Resources Program, and the planning work was done during the spring semester.

The resultant report proposed an appropriate design for each of the seven courses, together with a budget and time-line for development and production. Each of the courses made use of small format and portable media materials, such as 35 mm slide series, audio tapes, graphics, lab kits and super 8 mm film cartridges. All the courses involved communications systems between instructors and students, but none more than six meetings.

At the same time a proposal was sent to the Deans by the author and Rick Salter, an instructor in Sociology, to develop a Sociology course to meet the same objectives as the other courses, but to be delivered via cable television.

### The Formation of Three Projects

During the summer of 1972 the college employed a new Academic Dean, Dr. Douglas Jardine; he was asked to co-ordinate the planning and development of these various endeavors.

The process to that date had not been synchronized with the college's budgeting timetable, and therefore no major funds were available for working on the projects. Discussions with the Department of Education showed an interest but no possibility of supplementary funds for the projects at that time.

Discussions were also held with other colleges concerning an educational television project, and Douglas College agreed to

participate in such a project. On that basis Department officials proposed to make available to the colleges the production facilities of the Provincial Educational Media Centre, which was at the time hiring a production director and completing its new television studio.

The result was a decision to proceed with basic planning work on three projects; self-paced learning courses in Political Science and Chemistry, together with a Sociology course for CATV delivery were chosen for the first experiments. A budget was developed for faculty time and in-college production expenses for the three courses, for the 1973-74 school year. This, together with a basic policy position committing the college to developing an alternate stream for making its courses available to the community, were approved by the College Council. The budget item for approximately \$65,000 was later approved by the Department of Education as a special amount, distinct from the college's routine entitlement.

Each of the three courses had assigned to it one person primarily concerned with content and one whose major role was the co-ordination of instructional design and course production. Although there was little money available for that year, it was decided to proceed as far as possible with minimal release time.

The specific Sociology project described here had its real beginning in the spring semester, after Douglas College assigned a Sociologist -- Bob Howell -- and a media person -- Wayne Blair -- to the project.



## Basic Decisions and the Planning Model

The deans at both colleges agreed to let the four-person project team meet as a group and work out the broad outlines of the project; this process occurred over the first five months of 1973.

It was agreed to aim the course at a broad adult student population, not unlike the people then attracted to the colleges' non-credit community services programs; it was also hoped that our audience would involve a higher percentage of low-income and working class people than normally participated in traditional adult education.

The course was to be given for college credit. Since it would use a basic course outline and title already in the Colleges' calendars, it would also give credit transferable to British Columbia's universities. These decisions were made for several reasons: credit courses are funded by the school boards and Provincial Government, whereas community service programs are not; we felt the work would be made better use of by our colleagues if it was a credit course; we felt many people taking the course would be more impressed with their own abilities and accomplishments if we gave them credit for completing it successfully.

Discussions were held with sociology faculty from other colleges, concerning the realism of trying to prepare this course for use throughout the province; while these were not our original terms of reference, it was felt the idea should be tested. It was found that most colleges use quite locally-specific materials and methods for their introductory courses in Sociology, and that the types of

student groups being served throughout the province were too varied to allow for a single set of course materials to be sufficient for them all. Therefore we agreed to view our work as being done specifically for the two colleges sponsoring it, with the assumption that we would at the same time be developing a model for others to examine, and resource materials which would probably be useful in other places.

It was agreed early on that the course would be an introductory one, having no prerequisites. The material covered would be derived from the general approach common to both colleges, and would include a survey of literature and sociological concepts, including culture, society, socialization, class, status, power and social change.

In developing the instructional design concepts the team drew on the varied experience of its members, in teaching, community work, media planning and educational television. Throughout these discussions, many aspects of our common task were discussed together, in trying to evolve both common language and the main approaches to the design task.

It was agreed that television would serve as the major delivery vehicle for the course material, to be supplemented with a printed reader. It was also felt that some sort of seminar or tutorial system should be established for students.

If television was to be the main vehicle it was felt that a traditional lecture approach would not suffice to bring or hold interest in the course. It was tentatively agreed that the course should have a thematic focus, dramatic enough to make for viable

television material. After screening a range of educational television materials for college teaching it was felt we needed a program format which would neither deny that our instructors had things to teach, nor fall into the other extreme of so fully defining all the material that the students had no creative role to play in the learning process. In these early discussions it was thought the course might focus on the area of schooling, as this would draw on an experience base through which teachers and students could relate, and would also easily lend itself to the material to be covered in the course.

Because the task we shared was at least partially new ground for each member of the team, we recognized the need for an appropriate model for our own work; we wanted to avoid a complete segmenting of the work into the fields we already knew, such as sociology, television production or distribution systems. Therefore we developed a planning and development model which would accent common endeavor and evaluation, along with speed.

It was agreed that we would go as far as possible on the part-time release in broadly planning the course. As soon as funds were available for adequate release to the project, we would begin work on a pilot program for the television series. This would be a tape of perhaps twenty minutes length which would incorporate the best thinking we could come up with on the shape and style of the course material. Through that experience we would gain the common language and experience we needed to build the whole project as an integrated team. This pilot would be used primarily as a research tool, to be taken to various groups in the community for feedback about the subject

matter, format and language style; we planned a series of perhaps forty such meetings and discussions. On the basis of these we would proceed to develop the fully detailed course outline and production plan. It was also expected that these research meetings would help to recruit students.

On the basis of this planning model and the decisions made to that point, discussions were held with the two colleges' Deans in May of 1973. It was decided at those meetings that the two colleges would proceed together with the projects, with full-time release to be arranged for faculty members to work on the project beginning in August of 1973.

#### Detailed Planning and the Budget

The final plan for the course was developed in August and September, along with a complete budget for submission to the Department of Education; the plan built upon the earlier discussions, but was in many ways a more developed instructional model than had been conceived in the first plan.

It was decided the course should focus around the active use of the tools of sociology, in exploring a community and assisting people who lived there to deal with what they learned. A real community was to be chosen as the locus of the course, and a group of people would be gathered from the community to participate in the study with our two instructors.

The instructors would plan the basic outline of the exploration, and audio-visual "items" would be prepared by the pro-

duction group to introduce various topics. These, together with the discussions and research explorations done by the community group and the instructors, would be used as the basic television material. The television series would in effect be a real-life drama; our instructors would participate directly in that, and therefore not have to "perform" for the television cameras.

The course was to be given in a compressed time-period of about ten weeks. The material was divided into three modules -- culture and history, socialization and deviance; three one-and-a-half hour television programs would be prepared for each module, one to be shown each week. After the whole series was completed we would have a live "telethon" with members of the larger student population in the studio, and perhaps with microwave links between several studios throughout the colleges' region. The telethon would have a phone-in discussion element, and was seen as a mechanism to put the two instructors directly in touch with the larger student population, pull back from the series and its focus on a single exemplary community, and set the stage for the ongoing use of sociology by the larger student group.

Because we felt it impossible to have meaningful direct relations between our two instructors and the larger student group, we did not want to create a pretence of doing so through the course. Therefore it was decided to create resource-seminar centres throughout the college districts, where assistant instructors would work directly with students. The television series would be screened at these centres, group seminars would be arranged and individual assistance would be provided.

It was decided to aim for a maximum of 2,000 enrolled students for the course. Fifteen hundred of these would be on a random first-come, first-served basis, as the course would have no prerequisite. The other 500 would be specific population targets whom we wished to try involving in the course, and these would be recruited. Many of these would be special institutional groups -- prison inmates, chronic hospital patients, military barracks people -- and others would be socio-economic test groups -- areas with no cable system, people involved in citizens' action groups, special occupational groups and some regularly registered students in the colleges' sociology courses.

We agreed to establish 20 resource centres, employing a total of 17 junior instructors on a full-time basis for the duration of the course. The televised material would be shown three times per week on all the cable systems in the lower mainland, once in a morning, once in an afternoon and once in an evening time-slot. The series would be recommended part-way through the first offering, so that late enrollers could see it all at home.

The course was to be prepared for a once-only offering, with a view to an updating system which would make repeat offerings relatively inexpensive.

The budget submitted to the Department of Education totals \$220,750, and was broken down as follows:

- Direct costs of producing television and audio materials . . . . . \$52,000
- Print materials, including brochures and reader . . . 15,200
- College costs -- for course preparation and complete distribution and marking . . . . . 153,550

The brief accompanying the budget pointed out that giving the course in this way involved an initial unit cost which is less than that estimated for a campus-based course in 1974/1975.<sup>1</sup> Giving the course a second time was budgeted at \$110,300, for the same number of students.

### The Beginning of Work and the End of the Project

The community selected for the series was Port Moody. It has a historic place in British Columbia's history, having been the end-of-the-line for the CPR for a week when it first crossed Canada to bring British Columbia into Confederation. It has within itself many of the aspects and issues we wished to teach about in the course, and which are found throughout the college districts involved. The town is on the water and has in effect an old town and several new towns; there are a number of distinct culturally and socially definable areas within the town; juveniles and schools generally are viewed as problem areas; important controversies are developing with regard to planning and the development of new subdivisions, and class lines are quite consciously felt in the town. It is both urban and rural, has some farming, industry and service industry in its boundaries.

As an added advantage, Bob Howell lives in Port Moody and could be especially helpful in finding the key "correspondents" we would work with in developing the course materials. Because we had chosen to work with a real community and its people, we had to develop a careful entree approach, designed to explain our goals and seek

cooperation. We began this process, making contact formally with the City Council and talking with a number of people we wished to work with. We agreed to use the same formula developed by the NFB's Challenge for Change Program in Newfoundland, as regards recorded materials -- people interviewed would have their materials screened for them and they would have a veto over what would be used.<sup>2</sup>

In early October we began to gather materials on videotape. These included a series of first interviews with local correspondents and the taping of a community meeting sponsored by the City Council to explain its plan for the development of the City's north shore area.

During the same period, discussions were held with several officials in the department of Education, clarifying the project and seeking early approval of the budget. In mid-October officials verbally informed the Deans that the project was very attractive, but that it could not be funded during the current fiscal year. The reasons given were two-fold: the Department's new organization plan included a position for a Superintendent of Communications, and a plan like this should not be approved until the position was filled; funds for the project were not available within the Department's current estimates and should be included in the budget for the next fiscal year. As a result the Department requested that the project be in effect held in suspension until approval and funding could be appropriately made available.

This delay meant the project could not be completed during that school year. Some members of the project team did not feel able to commit themselves for yet another year, as other demands on their



time had been made by their teaching departments in the colleges. Talks were held with others who might replace some members of the team, but it proved impossible to recruit anyone to a project so unsure of its approval or work schedule.

Therefore the Department of Education was informed by the project's Policy Group that all work would have to come to a halt if funds could not be approved before the end of December. When monies were not forthcoming in that time, the decision was taken to close the project.

There was a desire to produce the pilot show for the series, and some funds were available for that in the budget of the PEMC. However, it was felt impossible to do a pilot show in Port Moody if we were not certain the whole series would ever be completed. As a result the members of the project team were reassigned to regular teaching duties for the remainder of that academic year.

The project had commanded high energy for almost two years. It's wimper-like execution was shocking to the participants and far more painful than a clear negative decision.

## FOOTNOTES

## CHAPTER 2

<sup>1</sup>D.K. Jardine, "A Report to Support a Request for a Supplementary Budget Required for Media Support to an Inter-College Outreach Educational Project," Vancouver, The Project Policy Team, Capilano-Douglas College, 1974, (mimeographed), pp. 11.12.

<sup>2</sup>Henaut, op. cit., p. 110.

## CHAPTER 3

## THE PROJECT'S CONTENT: EDUCATIONAL GOALS AND DESIGN

Almost all elements of the overall course plan developed in the project involved significant changes to the existing patterns of instruction at the colleges. They are worth a more in-depth examination as elements of an integrated plan and as individual elements which might be examined for their potential relevance to other specific needs.

These elements include: the concept of self-paced learning; the use of television as a delivery vehicle; the format for the television materials; the role of the course in an actual community; the plan for resource centres and personnel.

Self-Paced Learning

The "s.p.l." courses have been the major vehicle in Capilano College for a critical examination of current teaching practice and the development of a richer program for the future. The concept is an appropriate one for a community college. It focusses on the student and his/her learning, rather than on the instructor or the institution. Inherent in the notion of self-pacing is an appreciation both of the diversity of any student population and of the student's essential role in setting the tempo of educational endeavor and accomplishment.

The concept belongs within a growing discussion in education about the necessity for formal education to go much further towards providing appropriate options suited to the social and individual differences of students. This discussion has been greatly enhanced by the increase of educational technologies available to educators, including everything from super 8 mm film loops to computerized data storage and retrieval systems.

In his report for the universities of Ontario, Bernard Trotter saw new technologies as the key to making the universities more flexible in their offerings to students. He recognized the financial and administrative problems inherent in such a goal, but stated that these should nonetheless take a new priority in university planning.<sup>1</sup> His broad definition of the goal is similar to the concept stated by Capilano College administrators in commencing the various s.p.l. projects:

In concrete terms, individualized instruction means strengthening the student's own learning capacity by the optimum mix of instructional resources, and encouraging him to proceed at the optimum pace for him.<sup>2</sup>

Inherent in the notion is the development of a more sophisticated role for the teacher. No longer the primary source and delivery vehicle for all instructional materials, the instructor becomes more of a guide/manager of learning, relating to students as individuals and in groups around concrete learning situations. Within such a concept, learning materials take on a primary importance.

In order to increase the student's independence, learning materials for such a plan should be as complete as possible. Each

should be centred around relatively discrete concepts or skill areas. Each should have clear behavioral or learning objectives, and these should be capable of testing by both student and teacher. Within any area of a course, there should be alternative materials for any given aspect of the course, and all of these should hopefully point to deeper or richer materials the student can move on to.<sup>3</sup>

When courses are modularized in these ways and structured around learning materials, it is no longer necessary for all students to progress at the same rate through a course. In fact it no longer becomes necessary for a course itself to be "given" within a fixed time frame. If independent study materials are to be used consistently within the philosophy of individualizing learning, then it must be permissible for students to move at their own speed, make appropriate digressions into related areas, or delve deeply into particular subject areas which are of special interest to them.

Current college financing systems do not fit this model, and one of the necessary results of this concept being introduced through the s.p.l. projects will be the beginnings of revision to registration and financing systems. It was expected for the television course that we would re-register students for the term of a second offering, without requiring an additional payment of fees, so long as they had completed enough of the course work to indicate a serious commitment on their part.

The very existence of the course was seen as a beginning step towards the individualization of instruction, for it offered one alternate route from the lecture system for those taking an

introductory sociology course. Within the course structure itself, it was expected that the reader, supplementary audio and videotaped resource materials and the resource centre personnel would be the basis for meeting students' special interests. On the whole, however, the course design was not a fully individualized teaching model, for the televised materials would be prepared as the major instructional vehicle, and would be used commonly for all students.

### Television as a Delivery Vehicle

It was agreed from the beginning that all the s.p.l. courses would involve non-print media materials to some extent. Largely this was to provide some higher impact presentations of materials to the students, in the absence of meetings with teachers. As well, it was agreed that each course should use media to bring resources to the students in the most effective way possible for any particular course.

Television was chosen for the Sociology course for several reasons. Given the nature of the course content, a dynamic and versatile medium would be required; sound-film was ruled out of all the projects for cost reasons, and therefore television was the obvious choice if distribution was to be wide and effective enough to offset costs. Second, the Provincial Educational Media Centre was built especially around television production and delivery capability, and they were looking for ambitious and innovative projects.

The Vancouver area is approximately 85 percent wired for cablevision; that means that television offers to the colleges a

means of outreach to the general public far beyond any other system's abilities except radio. The ability of television to reach so many people, along with the hope that viewers would at least sample educational fare, has been the central reason why so many educators have hoped to use it.

The accessibility of television works both ways between the college and the community. Large numbers of people can see what the college has to offer, and could even participate using their own home as their learning centre. Experience at Ryerson Polytechnical Institute's Open College was that mature students using these types of media-delivered courses were on average better motivated and harder working than full-day students.<sup>4</sup> There is a good deal of evidence from college experience that there are many people in the community who will take great advantage of post-secondary education when it is appropriately made available to them.

Television also gives the college a new way to show to the community many facets of its program. Trotter suggested that this in itself is a general and important educational function, even for those who may not want to take a course.<sup>5</sup>

This type of sociology course was thought to be concerned with subject matter which would interest a large number of people in the community. Given the two colleges' sponsorship it would be easy to arrange area-wide coverage through the several cable companies (whose boundaries do not coincide with the colleges' boundaries). For all these reasons it was decided that this course was a good opportunity for the college to begin the use of television.

## Format for the Television Materials

From the earliest discussions of the project team it was agreed that we would need to use at least three, and probably four types of instruments in delivering the course. Televised material would be shown, both via the community channel on cablevision and also in closed circuit situations for people without cable. Printed materials would be distributed to those enrolling in the course. Some type of seminar or tutorial situation would be created, both to assist the students and to play some role in evaluating student work. Other media forms might be used to make available supplementary materials and other communications systems might be used to assist in working with students or the student evaluation process.

What roles would these various instruments play? Which would be the primary instruments of instruction and which would be supplementary?

In the Open University situation, most public attention has been given to the use of broadcast media. However, according to Margaret Gayfer, correspondence work (based around written materials), accounts for 70 percent of the students' time, attendance at study centres for 20 percent and broadcast materials 10 percent.<sup>6</sup> The broadcast media were not used as the primary vehicle for instruction.

Walter James writes:

. . . broadcast media are the blindest of teachers:  
. . . for the full exploration of their potential,  
additional systems were required which provoked and  
required responses from viewers and listeners, and  
which provided feedback whereby these responses could  
be checked and corrected. Experiments followed,



indicating that the integration of correspondence education practices and face-to-face learning situations with the broadcast media created effective learning situations. 7

The written correspondence unit is the main teaching instrument at the Open University. It is prepared by the course teams as the first stage in course materials production. The course units sent by correspondence contain core material and assignments.<sup>8</sup> These in effect amount to new text books; the ones prepared for the Foundations courses exhibit a tremendous amount of work and thought.

Broadcast materials function to assist the correspondence materials:

However good the home study materials may be . . . it takes a good deal of willpower to work away at these materials, week after week, on one's own. There is consequently a need for special 'support' activities which can spur the student on, and can help to clarify points of difficulty . . . (the broadcasts) reinforce and amplify the core correspondence materials. They provided students with a clearer idea, or a fresh view, of what the correspondence materials are trying to do. And they try to make a significant contribution to the overall quality of the course. 9

We chose, instead, to make television our primary instructional medium. Public attention would naturally focus on the televised material, and we wanted to let it play the dominant role people would assume it was playing. We also believed that a Canadian public would not be successfully led through a course primarily via the printed word. It is probably also true that the project team had within itself more of the skills required to produce televised than written materials.

The plan in our case was therefore to use printed materials as a reader, but television as the text. The televised materials would start people moving, and take them basically in the direction we wanted to go; the reader would be used to take people more deeply into the material.

To try to use television as our basic delivery vehicle was then, in many ways, the fundamental design problem for making the course a success. If television could be used to set in motion the type of instructional and learning activity we wanted to create, we could build around it an integrated course plan. On the contrary, if the television experience was at variance with the basic philosophy and approach of the course, we would not have a successfully integrated course plan.

We know that television is a very absorbing medium. It draws people into itself and its material. If it cannot alter people in fundamental ways, nonetheless it does affect them significantly. We know that people are naturally inclined to participate in televised material, and some formats allow this better than others. Televised game shows have tremendous appeal for those who enjoy them; there is a strong identification with those playing the game. Similarly, good dramatic material done for television is involving and often leaves people in a mood to mimic what they have just watched. Formats such as news shows or cartoons appear to allow the viewer to retain a greater distance emotionally from the material.

We knew that we would have to involve people deeply in the television experience if we were to be successful; the goals

of the course were far too involved with the viewers and the changes we hoped for them, to expect an arid intellectual approach to be successful. (If we had done it that way, we would in effect have been saying that only the written materials or the seminar groups could be instruments for involving people).

Could educational television be used to do this task? Certainly it rarely is used in that way, probably because at some point it always reverts to the traditional instructional approach whereby all the loose ends are tied together, and the viewer told what to think. The examples of educational television material for this type of subject which we saw seemed to fall into that trap. Either their format would be essentially that of an illustrated lecture, or else dramatized or documentary material would be used as the take-off point for a lecturer, who would then proceed to explain and rationalize everything which had been seen. In all these cases the lecturer was supreme.<sup>10</sup>

George Gordon has written that any successful commercial film is more "educational" than most of what is seen as educational television material. Such films deal with adult subjects; time and attention is given to a topic of significance, to develop the background, to state a thesis and allow the audience to reflect on it emotionally or cognitively. There is sufficient artistry in style and technique. People in the audience are not talked down to, but given a chance to be impressed and moved by the narrative thrust and the pictorial virtuosity of the film.<sup>11</sup>

We wanted to have this kind of relationship with our student-audience via television. On the other hand we had to have an integral

relationship with our television students; we could not play games of open-endedness when our instructors had things to say; we could not pretend to be bemused and befuddled, waiting for the answers to come from our audience, even via some sort of hot-line format.

There were a number of factors playing a part in developing the answer we finally did arrive at.

James Herndon, in How to Survive in Your Native Land, made two important observations about his own insights into successful teaching which centred around student learning and change. Although his own experiences were with younger students and in the classroom, both are relevant. He noted that he had to outgrow a broad trend which affected many teachers who in the mid-60's were reacting against the excesses of authoritarian education by themselves asking their students to take the leadership in the educational process; he felt that not only did students have a very limited idea of what was available or attractive to do, but more important, he was denying most of himself if he pretended he had no agenda or ideas how to arrive at it.<sup>12</sup> Second, in moving back into an appropriate leadership role in the learning process he found that most of what he suggested to the children for their own activities were not what they wanted to do; his most imaginative and devious exercises for teaching skills were not exciting to the students. His insight came from what he and his colleague did out of their frustration, namely set out to not worry about the kids, but do something they had themselves always wanted to do. (In this case it was to make a film).

Before his own personal project was completed, his students had joined in and in effect taken it over, leaving the teachers as junior partners in the whole endeavor.<sup>13</sup>

Our instructors were ready to take some leadership; they had things they wanted to say to people. And in fact they really did want to invite their students to do things they themselves wanted to do, viz. use the tools of sociology to better understand situations, with the hope of acting on those insights in some way.

Mills also wrote that the teacher has a primary role to play in taking liberal and liberating education to the people of the community:

To bring such people out, to help develop them into a community, you must surround your students with models of straightforward conduct, clarified character, and open reasonableness, for I believe it is in the hope of seeing such models that many serious people go to lectures rather than more conveniently read books. . . . In the end, all talk of liberal education, of personnel and curriculum and programming and the rest of it, is nonsense if you do not have such men and women on your faculties. For in the end, liberal education is the result of the liberating and self-sustaining touch of such people. 14

We were comfortable with our awareness of the special strengths of our two instructors, and we felt they would have this kind of impact on people. The question was in effect how to arrange their performance for maximum effectiveness.

At the same time we wanted more than a one-way performance. We wanted our student-audience to be actually involved through the television programs.

Both educational research and communications research have shown that learner activity increases learning and retention. Even more basic is Freire's notion that only through activity can the student be changed. A very old concept was the one we used to bring these things together:

It may be that the receiver responds more readily to a mass communication if he is given even the illusion of participation. In Aristotle's view of Greek tragedy, the actors, through their 'imitation of the universal,' allow the spectators to identify directly with the interaction on the stage. In this sense, the basis of *katharsis* becomes a kind of pseudo-participation by the spectators.<sup>15</sup>

We planned to do all these things by having a group of actual students working directly with our instructors in the television programs. The students on the television would be selected to represent a sample of the types of people who would be watching. We expected that the larger audience would be drawn in through their identification with the small student group. And the students inside the programs would not be passive. They would be actively engaged in studying the community and trying to come to grips with what they learned. In fact they would be studying their own community, not someone else's. Therefore we knew that the process would involve a good deal of drama, for people would be led to see and confront aspects of their own lives which were unfamiliar and at times uncomfortable for them. And we wanted all that to happen in front of our viewers, in the belief they would identify with the drama and struggle which was happening to people like themselves.

This design in effect rendered the whole series a documentary portrayal of events we had ourselves helped to set in motion. Both

our teachers and students would be aware they had chosen to enter into the process we were going to watch. The teachers would have done more of the planning of the process than the students, and that would be explicit throughout. But once inside the process, both teachers and students would be participating, not performing for some larger audience.

This gave the television production group a dual role. In the pre-course phase we would be preparing many of the items which the teachers would use within the process to show things to the student group. Once the process was set in motion, our job was to record it and pass it on to others. We saw this as a very attractive kind of journalism.

It is not unlike the kind of task performed by Whyte in Street Corner Society,<sup>16</sup> or Jan Myrdal in Report from a Chinese Village.<sup>17</sup> Our choice was to examine the larger aspects of society by referring directly to the lives, stories and struggles of the average people living in it. This was a major choice and commitment; by choosing average people as our subjects we were saying to our audience that they themselves were important and worthy subjects, and that we wanted to be a part of their struggles. As journalists our job would be to report reality as it happened to our subjects, trusting that their peers in the audience would deal with the inconsistencies, the dilemmas and the moments of greatness which we felt would occur. Our editorial task was limited to one of aiding effective transmission; we did not see ourselves editing the shows in a way which would bring closed or tight conclusions to all the questions and problems

raised. For that would be to give a lie to the whole learning process in which we were asking others to join.

### The Course and the Community

Probably those who would have learned most from the course would have been the Port Moody students who participated directly. Certainly that community would be more directly affected than any other; through the intervention of new people as well as the resultant public attention to be focussed on the city by the television programs, some considerable pressures would no doubt be built up.

Both the Colleges and the Port Moody City Council understood this, at least to a limited extent; both were apprised of this probable consequence of the project and felt ready to go ahead in the light of it. All the parties were somewhat excited at the prospect, and all seemed to feel that there would be a measure of prestige involved for both schools and community in going ahead.

The entree to the community was handled in what has now become almost a traditional manner. Both formal and informal leadership in the community were sought out and involved in discussions concerning our intentions. In almost all cases we were asking for involvement rather than formal permission; usually we wanted to begin discussions, interviews and taping fairly quickly, and the people we were talking with were asked to participate. (In the case of the community meeting, we asked for and were given permission to record it).

These questions for both colleges and community were relatively easy ones because of the nature of the project being under-



taken. It was not a community development project; it was not formally committed to changing things in the area, and was not designed in a way which would set it up to take sides on local issues. Although it was accepted that the project would begin a relationship which the colleges especially would have to be prepared to continue, this was not a difficult type of thing for them to do. The project was after all beginning a process of bringing formal educational offerings to the community, and that is what they are in business to do. In fact it seemed a general desire in Port Moody to develop there a campus of Douglas College, and this was one of the reasons people were favourable to the project; we felt this was an ideal way to plant the seeds of an exciting college satellite.

The whole design of the project was to plant seeds, rather than promise great accomplishments. It was hoped that the Port Moody students would become actively involved in their community, but nothing about the project would force them to do that. It was similarly expected that the project would cause a good deal of interest and involvement by a large number of Port Moody's citizens, but we were not designed to carry that forward. We felt that the timing was probably right for people to look at their situation and that they would want to follow up once the process began. If it happened it would carry the project full circle and draw the sociologists and their students further into the world they came to study; if it did not, the process itself would have been an important subject for study. In either case, both sociology and the community to be studied would be altered, but primarily in ways determined largely by the readiness of the people most directly involved.

## The Resource Centres

Although Port Moody and the special student group might benefit most obviously from the course, it was of course designed for the expected 2,000 students, and to help them better understand their own situations and communities. The planned television materials were supposed to provide an attractive model of how people can make the tools of sociology useful; the resource centres were provided in the plan to enhance the effectiveness of this element of the work.

Above and beyond their routine functions as places people could screen the television programs conveniently or use extra resource materials in the form of videotapes or audio cassettes, these locations would be the base for group seminars and individual tutorial assistance. The instructor on location would be comparable to a teaching assistant in the university world or a lab supervisor in the colleges; they would be junior partners in the instructional process, working directly with students rather than preparing materials.

The centres were to be located in different types of situations in the various regions of the lower mainland, based on the team's information about what type of situation would be most comfortable for the people expected to take the course from an area; the plan envisaged using school buildings in some areas, community halls or resource centres in others and at least one store front.

By drawing people into regional centres it was hoped students would meet others from their community and thus be assisted in making connections and relevant links between the course material

and their own situations. Resources centres would be open at least 30 hours per week, on a schedule appropriate to the students taking the course in the area.

The resource personnel were to be selected and placed in the various areas according to their backgrounds or interests, on the assumption that follow-up work with students would vary according to community concerns or the social class composition of the students from a given area; the same pattern was to be used for placing resource personnel with special target groups, such as prison inmates or community action groups.

The colleges have all established satellite centres in the past as means of easing transportation problems for students. However, these have tended to be centres for instruction in classrooms, perhaps with small library and study facilities. This course was seen as a way of testing a concept of decentralized resource centres, aimed not so much at instruction as to the provision of follow-up and special resource services. If this proved successful it would be another element in the hope of not simply spreading the college throughout the community, but making its work specific and applicable to the life-processes of students and their communities.

## FOOTNOTES

## CHAPTER 3

<sup>1</sup>Bernard Trotter, Television and Technology in University Teaching, Toronto, Committee on University Affairs and the Committee of Presidents of Universities of Ontario, 1970, pp. 5-13.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 13.

<sup>3</sup>Philip G. Kapfer, and Gardner Swenson, "Individualized Instruction for Self-Paced Learning," in Clearing House, Vol. 42, March, 1968, pp. 406-408.

<sup>4</sup>Canadian University and College, "Open Enrollment Makes Ryerson's Open College Unique Learning Project," in Canadian University and College, March-April, 1972, p. 27.

<sup>5</sup>Trotter, op. cit., p. 23.

<sup>6</sup>Margaret Gayfer, "Can the Open University Concept Demystify the Instructional Process?" Canadian University and College, March-April, 1972, p. 22.

<sup>7</sup>Walter James, "The Open University: A New Phenomenon," in Niemi, op. cit., p. 98.

<sup>8</sup>Brian N. Lewis, "Course Production at the Open University II," British Journal of Educational Technology, No.2, Vol. 2, May 1971, p. 111.

<sup>9</sup>Ibid., p. 112.

<sup>10</sup>The project team viewed and discussed programs prepared by the Ontario Educational Communications Authority, the Metropolitan Edmonton Educational Television Association, the Provincial Educational Media Centre and the U.S. National Educational Television Network.

<sup>11</sup>George N. Gordon, "What Should Mass Communications be Doing in Adult Education?" in Niemi, op. cit., pp. 12-15.

<sup>12</sup>Herndon, op. cit., pp. 36-37.

<sup>13</sup>Ibid., pp. 35-43.

<sup>14</sup>I.L. Horowitz, (Ed.), Power, Politics and People: The Collected Essays of C. Wright Mills, New York, Ballantine Books, 1963, p. 372.

<sup>15</sup>Riley and Riley, op. cit., p. 574..

<sup>16</sup>William F. Whyte, Street Corner Society, Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1943, pp. xviii-xx.

<sup>17</sup>Jan Myrdal, Report From A Chinese Village, London, Pelican Books, 1967, pp. 13-17.

## CHAPTER 4

## THE PROJECT'S PROCESS: INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL DYNAMICS

Although the Sociology for Television project did not complete its work, it did exist and change through a period of a year and a half. What happened within the project itself, and between the project and its sponsors would be worthy of our attention even if it had not been cut off; the fact of its early demise should draw us to a detailed consideration of the reasons for it, but should also not take away entirely from the aspects of the process which were felt to be positive.

Internal DynamicsThe Development of the Project's Commitment to Goals

The method used to select the four-person project team was haphazard at best. The two colleges independently and with no prior substantive discussions appointed two persons each to the team, almost as if the project's objectives could be accomplished by any pair of sociologists or media specialists.

As a result the discussions during the first several months were often tentative, and involved as much an exploration of the goals of the participants as of the project. They were the types of discussions which could have gone on forever, probably with no resolution, if they had not occurred within a temporary system with definite behavioral objectives; the fact of our time limit and difficult task worked as a catalyst in the process of early group definition.

Given the need for this internal exploration, it probably was a positive thing that the team was brought together before funds were available for full-time work; the additional time certainly was necessary for the early sorting out of goals and approaches to them.

At the right point in time, an external crisis was also very useful in drawing the group closer. In May of 1973, Douglas College almost pulled itself out of the project. Their Dean had doubts about the ability of the colleges to mount an effort as ambitious as this one, and was considering recommending a much more straight-forward educational TV project for Douglas to do by itself. There was also little appreciation of the project in the Sociology Department there, and a good deal of uneasiness about releasing Bob Howell full time for the coming year.

Critical memoranda about the course plan were written and a number of meetings convened at Douglas. Finally a meeting was held of all the team members and administrators from both colleges, in which the team was in effect challenged concerning the adequacy of their plan and the validity of expending heavy resources for such a proposal. The group defended its plan for the first time in a critical situation, and as a result became more convinced of its validity. Equally important, Capilano's Dean Jardine expressed his confidence in the plan and the team, saying that he intended to go ahead with the proposal even if Douglas pulled out. As a result Douglas' administrators made their first firm commitment to go ahead with the project.

That brief struggle and affirmation of the general plan set the stage for the real consolidation of the project group. In a later meeting that month Dean Jardine pushed the planning group to clarify their own reasons for wanting to do this course.

Aside from the general philosophical objectives -- extending access to college education, etc. -- he felt we needed to make a more precise commitment to why we should give this course and why people should bother to take it. Out of a lengthy discussion, a new feeling emerged, and this was to sustain the work from this time until the end of the project. The two instructors agreed that they wanted to give the course because of their belief that they as sociologists possessed important and useful tools, capable of speaking to many aspects of the universe of experience of our target student group. These tools are of positive value and could assist people in their lives. Sociology at its best has the ability to undermine the "psychologism" which is so vital a basis for the collective impotence and individualism of Canadian social experience. "There are millions of people being washed up on the rocks out there. We have tools to help them build boats. While we are confined to the classroom in the colleges, we can't get very many people building them." The project was a way to get that sociology out and available to people; we believed that was important to do.

There may well have been reasons why no commitment as clear as this could be made until that stage had been reached. Participants had required time to know each other before they could risk such a serious statement, either individually or as a group. Also, until



the support and definite intention to proceed had been given by the two colleges, a commitment on this order would have been disproportionate; it is perhaps one of the last emotional defences for professionals to not commit themselves to much more than they think their situations will realistically allow them to perform.

### Participants' Roles

In its course planning model, the British Open University apparently places a heavy reliance on the special role of the "educational technologist," who is an expert on software development, instructional design and evaluation.<sup>1</sup> Bernard Trotter also saw an important role for such newly trained experts in the development of media extensions of Ontario's universities.<sup>2</sup>

Our model was in fact different from this and is worth noting. We had no single person within the team thought of as bearing special responsibility for instructional design or even for the plan for software development; while we had and recognized each others' areas of unique experience, we did not look to anyone in the group as our design expert. Although I played the role of executive producer for the television and other materials, this meant it was my responsibility to ensure that planning was done and then well executed; it did not make me the instructional design specialist.

In this way, all members of the team were forced to grow into this area of expertise, drawing upon our unique experiences, each others ideas, and ideas and examples from wherever we could find them. In the end it felt like a richer process for having

been done in that way. Certainly the egalitarian aspect of this kind of role definition made working together comfortable.

It may be that colleges are more able to operate in this way than many universities; colleges are primarily teaching rather than research organizations, and there is a good deal more talk and argument about teaching methods and problems going on than might be the case in most university situations. Even if that were not the case, it is worthwhile to consider the possible advantages of helping good teachers or media producers become instructional designers, rather than attempting to encapsulate those skills in a new group of experts.

One obvious advantage is the ripple effect to be had from involving more and more people in the process of critically recreating their own teaching methods and materials. I also suspect that others would find as we did that resistance within the group, to either critical ideas or possible innovations, is reduced by a situation in which project participants feel expert enough to make their own judgments.

Finally, it should be said that the fact of having a representative and rich policy group to refer to for reference and perspective was helpful in freeing the participants to try out their ideas. The committee members all knew enough about the task at hand to have useful insights, and yet respected the fact that they were a reference group one step removed from the actual work being done. The result was a happy mixture of permissive support and well-founded evaluation.

### The Use of the Pilot Concept

Within the work style of the project, team members found it both natural and necessary to employ the concept of "praxis" explained earlier, in developing the actual series; the planned pilot show was conceived of in that way.

The idea of using a pilot show or test unit was not a unique one; it is a common technique in broadcasting media and is often used in developing instructional materials. The reasons for doing so, and the apparent effects of making that choice, are worth clarifying.

The team members shared among themselves a wide enough range of information and experience to believe that we could create a course of the type we wanted. Yet we also felt strongly that we were embarking on a course significantly different from those we had given before. It was accepted that the end result would be different -- in ways which could not be fully clarified in advance -- from the general concept we were articulating in planning discussions. It followed that the final product would contain surprises -- and very likely errors -- which could not be dealt with until they had been created and seen in concrete form.

The pilot show served then as a two-pronged research vehicle. In creating it we would better develop the working styles and relationships which would be needed to create a whole television series in a very short time. And once created, the pilot show would provide an opportunity to bring the whole series as much in line with our goals as we were capable of doing. By taking the pilot outside

our own group, and using it with a wide range of potential students in the communities we planned to serve, we would get advance reality checks on the work.

The pilot was never seen as a selling device for the sponsoring agencies; it was a device within the planned execution of the whole project and would *follow* the commitment of funds. Therefore it fitted well within the general sense of the project's autonomy. The team was free to create the pilot according to their own best lights. The goal was to construct an instrument as effective as possible in relation to the agreed upon objectives. The evaluation feedback would come from within the project and the test situation set up in the community. No outside agency -- such as the Department of Education -- would be screening the pilot in order to approve or not the continuation of the work. The result was a minimizing of the tension naturally associated with a new endeavor.

The structure of the course forced the pilot to be conceived as the beginning of the work of the course, and not a totally separate endeavor. The pilot would grow out of Port Moody material and would involve a group of students from that community. In creating it and screening it in many locations -- probably including public showings on local broadcast outlets -- the larger processes of community impact and possible public controversy would be begun. This would enhance the dynamism of the general situation during the period of actual course creation. It was also a fundamental reason why the team did not feel free to create the pilot show -- even though funds were available for it -- after it was learned that the series would not be going ahead. For it seemed important to start the process and

then continue to work with the dynamics which would be set in motion; if the pilot had been created as an isolated act the team would more naturally have found themselves trying to manage the natural dynamics and perhaps defend the future project from controversy. The result would have been a political act rather than a genuine test instrument.

## External Dynamics

### Technology as a Lever for Change

If casually looked at, it appears that the primary goal of this project must have been to develop and test educational uses of the television medium in college education. Certainly one would think those to have been my major agenda items, being a teacher and a television producer. And of course, as has been already discussed at length, once the project was going that did become the major functional goal.

But there was a broader hidden agenda for the project, that was shared by a few of those who helped start and carry forward the general thrust of all Capilano's developmental projects mentioned in the study. That hidden agenda involved trying to use the encounter with media technology as an effective context to compel meaningful re-evaluation and change in educational endeavors and practices.

The vast range of writing on educational media is terribly adolescent. It appears written by love-struck teenagers, convinced that in the various media themselves lie not only the keys to unlock the future, but also the major pathways down which we must all move to enjoy that future. As George Gordon has written, "I have also

noticed that along with the invention of each one of the dramatically-oriented communications devices, namely the motion picture, radio and television, early augurers in every case predicted that this new technology would produce a 'revolution' (meaning, I suppose a 'minor advance') in Adult Education as then practised."<sup>3</sup> And of course at best we see it working minor advances, and often as not even less than that.

Normally, planning involving educational media leads in a direction of overdependence on those media technologies; the new tools are put to use to render more powerful and effective current practice in the particular field. And by the time the media folks and the salesmen are finished with it, practitioners are supposed to believe that they could never have done it all without the finest of gadgets.

We had a different kind of fantasy about it all. We wanted to use television on the teacher as well as the student. The project gave us all a dramatic new occasion for looking at our educational objectives, content and strategy -- as then being practised. All the other objectives discussed in this study could and should have been discussed long before, in the normal ongoing evaluation and development of our college teaching. But there is really very little time or place for that in the usual pattern of college teaching routine. And of course there are built in habit patterns and defence or rationalizing mechanisms which we all use to perpetuate our current teaching practices. The work on the project gave us an occasion to engage in serious critical evaluation of our own practices without having to be at all defensive; we could decide to do new things on

the *occasion* of a new kind of instructional situation, and that made as painless as possible the necessary self-critical aspect of such an evaluation process.

In this sense then, we expected that if the planning were successful for using television to teach sociology, that the new approaches developed would not remain locked into the television course to the exclusion of the "normal" classroom course. Rather positive developments and innovations would find their way from the mediated format, into the consciousness of the teacher who had engaged in the process of struggle and change, and from there into all that teacher's work. If the new course were successful, and we later found that television was to be no longer available to us, then the pre-television instructional pattern could be carried on with the benefit of all the positive innovations worked up through the television project.

That was the idea at the level of the instructor; use the technology as a lever to make the necessary practice of instructional review and change happen effectively.

It was also hoped it would work at the institutional level, in a similar way. It normally takes far longer than it should to develop the new administrative and financial practices associated with a teaching concept such as self-pacing. Through this project, faculty, bursars, deans and Departmental officials would be given reasons to break through on these things very quickly; after all, no one wants to be the one to stand in the way of an exciting new thrust in mediated education. Once those breakthroughs had been made, they would be available for use in other college teaching situations.

This kind of acceleration of change effect happened dramatically in British university practice through the medium of the Open University. The development of the Foundation Courses was a major innovation in British practice, where the American-style general studies concept had not been introduced; it was as big a breakthrough for a whole range of social scientists to work together on a single course, as it was for academics to join together with media people. Similarly the Open University dramatically altered British registration and grading policies. The credit system -- as opposed to lockstep full-time attendance as the only route to a degree -- was introduced. The new university has an open door policy, allowing people to try courses without the prerequisite educational attainment which had formerly been the norm. In fact the Open University went so far as to begin the practice of awarding formal credit for experience outside the Open University.<sup>4</sup>

In the U.K. context, these were major steps. I am sure they will find their way into all British universities, via the Open University. While these particular changes are not the ones which need developing here in the British Columbia college situation -- our Americanization has proceeded without the aid of such things as the Open University -- it seemed realistic to set as a general goal the use of educational technology to identify and move forward on educational goals of our own.

These indirect goals could not be fully accomplished due to the closing down of the project. However, enough happened during the course of the work to indicate that there is reason to see this type of leverage notion as viable.



At Capilano especially, all the s.p.l. projects have been the subject of a good many professional development discussions involving faculty and administrators. In those discussions, the component ideas in each of the course plans have received as much discussion as the special projects themselves; these ideas have been discussed for possible relevance to other situations within the college. The general idea being most discussed is probably the concept of modularizing courses to allow for more individual variations by students, and especially breaking out of the lockstep semester timetable to allow for the self-paced learning practice to be introduced into grading patterns. (At this point college instructors can give "incomplete" grades to students, but these generally involve a requirement to complete all work by very early in the following semester.) If a project the size of the television one had been completed, it would have forced changes in registration practices which would have greatly extended the I-grade practice; we can be reasonably sure that this policy change would be used widely by many teachers.

At another level, we can see clearly how the occasion of the mediated sociology course operated to make broader changes possible. The course began as an endeavor to decentralize college learning opportunities. By the time it was planned it had grown from that first-level goal to embrace the concept of making college courses directly relevant and useful in community processes external to the college. This idea has been discussed before, but an actual plan had never been developed at Capilano to try it. Since the sociology plan was developed -- and in some measure because of it -- the Social

Sciences Division at Capilano has taken up this concept and put forward a proposal for the development of an Institute of North Shore Studies, to embrace credit courses revolving around this general principle. Their proposal includes the idea of using several small pilot projects as the basis for beginning the Institute and clarifying what it might become.

### The Project vis-a-vis the Department of Education

Late in the summer of 1972, the proposal to use the facilities of the Provincial Educational Media Centre for the sociology course was approved by Mr. J.S. White, who was then in charge of the facility for the Department of Education. Later in that same academic year, at a meeting of College Principals, the project being undertaken by Capilano and Douglas Colleges was again agreed upon, this time by the Principals and by Mr. A.E. Soles, then in charge of Colleges for the Department. Still later in the same year, a special budget allotment was approved for Capilano College, for the development phase of the s.p.l. projects, including the sociology for television project, the project had been discussed by Capilano's College Council and approved for inclusion in the budget. And early in the 1973-1974 academic year, Douglas College was granted special funds to release its personnel for the work on the project.

Yet when it finally came time to fund the project itself, the Department backed off and the Colleges did not press their case firmly. The reasons for this may not be fully clear, but at least merit discussion.

The approvals mentioned above all seem to have been verbal, except as they were indirectly implied in written materials such as budgets. And more important, they appear to have been more like agreements granting permission, than policy decisions involving instructions to proceed. It was as if all parties were agreeable to have the project proceed, although no agency took responsibility to ensure that it *would* proceed; if obstacles became too great, it was an expendable item.

Those involved in the project itself knew all this, but never decided to deal with it in an aggressive manner. Whenever the matter arose for discussion, it was usually dismissed without any course of action being planned.

Possible actions were discussed to ensure that the project would receive its necessary funding when the time came. One possibility was to have discussed the project with John Bremer, then serving as the Government's Commissioner on Education. This option was not acted on for several reasons. It was generally felt that Bremer was not an effective "insider" with either Department officials or the Minister; although he was making his services available to various programs around the Province -- as a lobbyist cum fund-raiser -- it was not apparent that he was effectively able to do this.

Another idea discussed was to apprise the Minister of Education of the project, in the hope that her support would be useful when the time came for full approval. In the early stages of the work this appeared premature, as things were not concrete enough to explain well. In the later stages it seemed to the project group that this would

possibly be a negative action; the project was too large for an easy act of political approval, and was not concerned with matters which were immediate and pressing political objectives of the Government; it was feared the decision would be passed to senior officials by the Minister, and that they might be negative about it because they had not been approached directly.

A third idea was to use the occasion of the entree to Port Moody as an excuse for a general discussion of the project with the M.L.A. for the area -- who happened to be the Premier of the Province. There were no hard reasons for *not* doing that. Yet it was not done, perhaps because the members of the team and policy group all felt, for various reasons, that this type of lobbying was not for them to do.

One cannot know whether any of these three approaches might have been effective; certainly we know from hindsight that something of the sort needed to be done. Two possible reasons stand out why no actions were taken.

First, no real budgetting was done until the fall of 1973; it was not felt during the previous year that it was timely or necessary to draft a budget, until planning was further along. Yet if a rough budget had been prepared it might have been more clear that the project was too big to receive a routine approval, and therefore that efforts would be needed to ensure support for the plan.

Second, there was the problem of institutional hierarchies in relating to the bureaucracy or political level in Victoria. Who in the colleges was high enough in status to approach people in

Victoria? On one occasion when Dean Jardine directly approached senior officials to bring them the final brief and budget, he was strongly rebuked for not making such an approach through the Principal; this even though it was a project approved by the College Council and supervised by the Dean. One could imagine that the rebuke was initiated in Victoria, and was used as a diversion from the question actually at hand. Yet that incident accurately reflects the situation within the College at that time. If tensions rose so high from a straight-forward discussion with a senior official, what would have been the result of lobbying at the political level?

Why were neither the Principal nor Chairman of the College Council called on to lobby for the project? Because they felt they had permission to proceed with the project and that support would be forthcoming through routine channels. Moreover, if this was not the case, they did not see this project as a high enough priority to be the basis for serious lobbying.

Therefore the project found itself with no firm base of support, either in the colleges or the Department. Lacking both of these, participants relied on the hope that weak verbal permission would be converted to strong financial support when the time came. The participants all knew better than to make that assumption, and would probably not have done so if they had felt, early enough in the process, that the project was truly theirs to build and defend. That this was not the case no doubt reflects one of the limitations of working within corporate institutions even as small as community colleges.

### The Project as Viewed Within the Department of Education

For Departmental officials this project seems to have been perceived as a problem rather than an opportunity. As stated earlier, the Department has a quite well defined bureaucracy with a great many procedural regulations. Policy formulation through pilot projects does not fit comfortably within that model. There were also more specific reasons for this project not being well received when finally presented for approval.

On taking office, Ms. Dailly was not prepared to introduce new senior personnel to her office or the Department of Education. As a result she sustained the senior officials she inherited, and later promoted most of them in line with a reorganization of the Department organization chart. A new Deputy Minister was introduced, but his major role seems to have been to attempt to bring consensus around new policy directions to the officials who had worked for the Department during the Social Credit years; such a task has been difficult and very slow work. The major hope for policy change was placed in the plan for a public Commission on Education, which John Bremer was appointed to head. However, he was not able to play this role successfully, tending to work very much on his own, and was finally fired many months after falling out of favour with the Minister and her senior officials.

The result of all this was a good deal of uncertainty and chaos within the Department. Many officials expended most of their energy trying to guess what course of action would be politically

approved, in an effort to sustain their positions or win new ones. Lacking full confidence in those around her, the Minister tried to involve herself very fully in detailed decisions; but lacking adequate staff support or liaison with the field, her interventions tended to cause delays more than clarifications or action.

At the same time, and probably partly for these reasons, the Minister appears to have been in a relatively weak position in the Cabinet, even though she holds the position of Deputy Premier. This is perhaps most strongly evidenced by the intrusion -- always in the name of cooperation -- into areas traditionally managed by the Minister of Education, of the Ministers of Labour, Health, Human Resources and Communications. Simultaneously it seems the Education Minister and her officials were having difficulty getting more than routine items approved by Treasury Board; there has been a great deal of reluctance to seek supplementary estimates in the education area for the last two years. This appears to have been at least partially caused by the disorganization within the Department, resulting in unreliable preliminary estimates presented to Treasury Board. The whole problem of Treasury Board approval is of course greatly accentuated by the size of the Education budget within the overall provincial budget, and the significant inflation factor in all education costs.

Within this environment of uncertainty and tension about major expenditures, it is not surprising that the project's brief was rejected. And in fact it seems that it was the general state of things which defeated the project, for it appears that no formal decision was ever made to let the project die. At the time the brief was presented for

approval, a Management Committee was making major internal policy decisions; the Committee comprised the Minister, the Deputy Minister, the Associate Deputy Ministers and Mr. Bremer. Neither the project brief nor the letter of December 6, 1973 warning that the project would be stopped if funds were not forthcoming, were discussed by that committee, even though Mr. Soles knew that that was the only body which could deal with the matter.

To complete the picture, the non-decision is today viewed as a decision by senior officials. In recent months I have been given two separate reasons by the Deputy Minister why the project could not go forward at the time. First I was told that a plan of this sort would have committed the Department to very heavy future expenditures in educational television, and that no such action could have been taken until such a move was properly evaluated and decided upon. Subsequently, I was told that the whole jurisdictional concern between the Provincial and Federal Governments -- over educational communications -- made it impossible to proceed at the time.

Neither of these reasons is compelling; both seem very thin after-the-fact rationalizations. The project was viewed by the colleges and the PEMC as an experiment which could be used to inform policy; there was no likelihood of it being used to commit future expenditures in advance of full policy formulation. Second, the carrying out of the project did not in any way involve jurisdictional questions; in fact it would have provided for the Government some of the concrete experience they so badly need in formulating their position -- and winning public support for it -- in the continuing disputes over jurisdiction.



In summary, the dynamics of this project seem to show up several basic opportunities and obstacles facing colleges in British Columbia. The colleges are small and young enough to see unmet needs and organize to innovate; both models and resources are available to begin that process. In these regards they appear worthy of the image of dynamism which the Government is projecting for them. On the other hand, their budgets are drawn and administered in ways which give them restricted freedom, and make necessary permission from at least the Department of Education -- and often local school boards as well -- before major new commitments can be undertaken. The result to date has been a stalemate. If that continues to be the case, colleges will continue to grow, but not to innovate. Without more funding and autonomy, our colleges can probably not become better than a compromise between the worlds of the high school and the university.

## FOOTNOTES

## CHAPTER 4

<sup>1</sup>Lewis, op. cit., pp. 114-115, and Brian Stone, "The Open University of the United Kingdom and its Instructional System," April, 1972, (mimeographed), pp. 5-7.

<sup>2</sup>Trotter, op. cit., pp. 5-6.

<sup>3</sup>Gordon, op. cit., p. 10.

<sup>4</sup>James, op. cit., pp. 101-103.

## CONCLUSIONS

### Education and the Community

Schools cannot avoid being enmeshed in the public controversies which naturally arise during a period of great social distress and change. During the last two years there has been a resurgence of public demands for the schools to enforce order in society, through a return to strict disciplinary methods. These panic calls are understandable reactions to the increasing restlessness of young people; other primary and secondary institutions have been generally unable to tap this energy or defend themselves from its challenges.

Our schools will not be able to defend their liberal aspirations from this reaction so long as they persist in claiming for themselves an exclusive-yet-isolated role within the society. Our schools continue to be viewed by educators and the public as the key socializers for the society, and by their students as the administrators of the "rites de passage." They are thus a powder-keg, having within themselves all the elements of a society continually beset by distressing trends. So long as they insist on dealing with these elements within their own walls -- and according to their own rules alone -- they will be more and more vulnerable to attacks from the right.

Only in breaking out of its own arbitrary walls, and joining with the community in the struggle to regain control over social process and individual life can the schools begin to shift

from the attack. And only as they do so will our students be enabled to make significant use of their very expensive educational years.

The Provincial level of government has become the most dynamic in Canadian public life. It is the most directly involved with pressing social and economic issues; across the country most innovation in government programs is happening at that level. This is even more the case in provinces like British Columbia which have elected social democratic governments.

It is both necessary and appropriate for these governments to grasp the possibilities for their huge educational establishments to play a more direct and directed role in the amelioration of social problems. The experience in Port Moody indicated that people are ready to give educators a chance to become more involved in the real world outside the schools. Certainly public education has enough different images in our society to be able to move easily into these areas.

Just as schools would be changed through such a broad direction, so would what we have come to call scholarship, as it is entrenched in the academic disciplines and specializations which provide the basic identities for our knowledge elite. For academic scholarship has grown further and further behind the social processes occurring today; many social agencies and new community organizations have more to say to current problems than the academy's avowed experts.

Governments have become increasingly reliant on academic expertise, but have been foolish in how they have called upon it.

The most dynamic academics are drawn away from teaching and set to work on non-public research or government projects. Their schools and students are denied their abilities. More important, our students are forced to continue their studies in the false world of academic constructs. Many become alienated from such obviously futile endeavor; too many others become trained in forms of scholarship both innate and bureaucratic.

The continued separation of school and community involves a social waste and self-defeating methodology which we must break from while schools continue to enjoy at least a vestige of their credibility. In moving in such a way we will discover whether the schools can be transformed. If they can, we will soon enough observe a whittling away of their excessive authority -- whether that be in the form of grading systems or the manpower streaming of our young people. If they cannot be changed radically and quickly enough to serve the society, then that is all the more reason to force them as far and fast as possible in that direction. For out of such endeavors will emerge a better understanding of ways to involve young and old people together in reshaping our social order; from such collective experience we may be ready to create something in the place of our schools, if they cannot do the job.

#### Media and Public Education

The role of educational media will continue to grow, whichever way our schools go. This project has demonstrated that they can be used in an integral fashion with new and more dynamic instructional

goals. Given the opportunity to do so, it is likely that many educators will force media to meet their needs. We certainly cannot expect this process to occur if media developments in hardware or software are continually left to the leadership of private enterprise. Most of British Columbia's educators have little knowledge or experience of media and materials. Yet this project has shown clearly that media itself is widespread enough to have provided the basis for media literacy which teachers need to be involved in the development process. And certainly the basic aspects of media production are simple enough to make possible widespread involvement in such work.

At another level, it is clear by now that the Provincial Government will enter the communications field, and that formal education will move into mass media delivery systems. What is not at all clear is how they will do so, for what objectives, and upon what base of experience.

In this study we have examined a format for mass media programming which goes beyond what is generally available to us today. The media was placed within a broader context, first of formal education and second of community change. Placed in that context it was possible to bring new people and ideas into the media materials; the broadcast media were in this case to be vehicles for showing the life and drama of common people. (And not, as so often the case with the CBC, as man-in-the-street foils for some whitty commentator echoing the great thoughts of Knowlton Nash).

This was not the same way of bringing the community into the television show exemplified by the cablecasters' community channels.

It is important that those planning for a provincial communications system come to understand that. The permissive and open access community channel concept has already lost its dynamism. Regardless of the protests of the corporate types, this is not in general because the community is dead or dying. Rather television is losing its own life, precisely because it has offered people drama only in the form of slick stereotypes. The community will not come flocking to the TV studio to try to compete with that; and they certainly will not parade their wares and worries just because a cable operator needs them to do so to protect his franchise. Community media will have to locate itself within a context of realistic and people-centred objectives; in that way the people will begin to see themselves reflected in media materials, and may in the process make media become servants of social purposes.

Provincial communications systems could be designed to move in those directions; the link with education could make such a move easier. During the coming year we will witness the first large-scale effort in such a direction, through the new FM radio station to be operated by Vancouver Co-operative Radio. It is hoped that it will receive the support it needs and might be one of the bases which senior officials will look to when planning other public endeavors; it will in many ways be testing some of the ideas discussed in this study.

## Change and the Department of Education

If education and educational media are to move in any of the directions discussed here, a great deal of leadership will be required from the top of the educational establishment. The White Paper tabled by Ms. Dailly promises such leadership, but it should not be assumed as likely to happen. As this study has shown, current forces work against such a trend.

The Superintendent of Communications who was to have been appointed eleven months ago has only just been named. The same is true of other senior positions and some are still vacant.

The Department of Education will not be able to take leadership or put its educators to full use until they move from a traditional model of planning and development towards a suitably dynamic one. This model must include a readiness to undertake innovations within a developing policy context, and must be understood well if it is to be functional.

Such an approach naturally involves some risk. But the risk of a few errors should not be taken seriously in the light of the tremendous waste and unused capacity now found in education. The risk is rather in *not* taking leadership and *not* supporting change.

The community colleges are a good locus for educational innovation. They and their faculties are young; change can be well tested there and useful innovations fairly readily incorporated. If the financial support necessary for such changes is not available soon, then they too will become as rigid as the universities. This would be one more critical opportunity lost.



As evidenced by this project, the discrete project model is a useful one for innovation. The project under study showed most of the internal characteristics discussed by Miles; the important factors for these seem to have been the presence in the team of sufficient skills and agreement about their uses, placed within a context which offered adequate support and autonomy.

The linkage failure which led to the demise of this particular project is probably a necessary problem associated with such a model. Rather than think that the pilot project model can be made politically strong, it seems more useful to recognize its inherent weakness. That places us in the position to understand that temporary systems will always be used as instruments of policy. If real policy is to contain or delay change, then projects will not be a reasonable way of working; if policy goals are dynamic -- as they should be -- then temporary systems can become a valuable instrument of change.

One thing learned clearly from the project under study is the special importance of a clear understanding of pilot programs when used in developing educational programs relevant to the wider community. If it becomes established policy to move in those directions then people will have to be given the autonomy to proceed to do so; there is no way programs can be undertaken on a tentative basis if real people and issues are depending on them. Thus if education policy were to move in the direction of giving the schools back to the people and the community, it would follow that administrators would have to proceed to give back to educators and their students, the right to innovate and grow in educational practice.

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APPENDIX ATABLES: CROSS TABULATION OF THE SURVEY OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

The total number of respondents was 683. Of the total 308 were sponsors, and 351 were non-sponsors. Of the total number of sponsors 128 were present sponsors and 180 were former sponsors. All numbers in the tables are expressed in percentages. Each table is titled with a number and either the letter 'A' or the letter 'B'. 'A' refers to the sponsor/non-sponsor group, and 'B' refers to the present/past sponsor group. The question number refers to the question's sequence in the questionnaire.

TABLE 1-A  
QUESTION 60

"Number of years teaching."

	Sponsors	Non-sponsors
Less than 1 year.....	3.25	9.40
1 - 5 years .....	18.85	41.88
6 - 10 years.....	24.68	26.21
11 - 15 years.....	17.53	10.26
More than 15 years.....	33.77	11.11
No answer .....	1.95	1.14

TABLE 1-B  
QUESTION 60

"Number of years teaching".

	Present Sponsors	Past Sponsors
Less than 1 year.....	6.25	1.10
1 - 5 years.....	28.91	11.60
6 - 10 years.....	25.78	33.59
11 - 15 years.....	8.59	23.20
More than 15 years.....	28.13	37.02
No answer.....	1.56	3.31

A-2

TABLE 2-A  
QUESTION 64

"Age"

	Sponsors	Non-sponsors
25 or less.....	13.96	31.91
26 - 30.....	17.21	23.93
31 - 35.....	13.64	13.96
36 - 40.....	10.06	7.69
41 - 45.....	13.96	7.41
46 or more.....	28.57	12.82
No answer.....	2.60	2.28

TABLE 2-B  
QUESTION 64

"Age"

	Present Sponsors	Past Sponsors
25 or less.....	21.88	8.29
26 - 30.....	19.53	16.57
31 - 35.....	14.84	13.26
36 - 40.....	7.81	10.50
41 - 45.....	10.94	15.47
46 or more.....	22.66	32.04
No answer.....	2.34	2.87

TABLE 3-A  
QUESTION 65

"Position in the school"

	Sponsors	Non-sponsors
Teacher.....	80.84	86.89
Principal.....	11.02	6.55
Vice-Principal.....	3.57	3.99
Department Head.....	2.27	0.28
No answer.....	2.27	2.28

TABLE 3-B  
QUESTION 65

"Position in the school"

	Present Sponsors	Past Sponsors
Teacher.....	86.72	75.14
Principal.....	5.47	16.02
Vice-Principal.....	3.13	3.87
Department Head.....	3.13	1.66
No answer.....	1.56	3.31



A-4

TABLE 4-A

## QUESTION 66

"To how many volunteer organizations which are concerned in one way or another with "helping people" do you belong?"

	Sponsors	Non-sponsors
None.....	27.92	52.14
One.....	36.36	26.78
Two.....	20.78	11.68
More than two.....	9.74	5.13
No answer.....	5.19	4.27

TABLE 5-A

## QUESTION 5

"Where have you obtained most of your knowledge of Red Cross Services?  
(Please check one.)

	Sponsors	Non-sponsors
Radio, T.V., Newspapers, Magazines..	44.81	63.25
As a volunteer.....	6.17	3.13
In school.....	45.13	26.50
Through a friend.....	0.65	1.99
No answer.....	2.27	3.13

TABLE 5-B

## QUESTION 5

"Where have you obtained most of your knowledge of Red Cross Services?  
(Please check one.)

	Present sponsors	Past sponsors
Radio, T.V., Newspapers, Magazines..	39.06	50.28
As a volunteer.....	9.38	4.97
In school.....	47.66	39.23
Through a friend.....	0	1.10
Other (Please specify).....	0.78	1.10
No answer.....	3.13	3.31

A-5

TABLE 6-B

## QUESTION 3

"Have you ever received a service from the Red Cross? (e.g. blood transfusion, swim award, disaster assistance etc.)"

	Present Sponsors	Past Sponsors
Yes.....	32.81	23.76
No.....	64.84	74.59
No answer.....	2.34	1.66

TABLE 7-B

## QUESTION 8

" How many years have you been a teacher-sponsor?"

	Present Sponsors	Past Sponsors
Less than one year .....	19.53	6.08
1 to 3 years.....	28.13	57.46
4 to 6 years.....	21.09	18.78
7 to 9 years.....	3.91	4.42
10 to 12 years.....	4.69	3.31
More than 12 years.....	15.63	6.63
No answer.....	7.03	3.31

A-6

TABLE 8-B

## QUESTION 9

"How have you utilized the Red Cross Youth Program?"

	Present Sponsors	Past Sponsors
As part of the curriculum.....	44.53	26.52
As an extra curricular activity.. (e.g. Friday afternoon club)	32.81	49.17
Both.....	16.41	19.34
No answer.....	6.25	4.97

TABLE 9-A

## QUESTION 10

"Which of the following is the closest to the main Purpose of the Red Cross Youth Program in the schools as seen by your fellow teacher?  
(Please check one.)"

	Sponsors
To encourage fund raising to help others.....	23.38
To teach good health habits.....	8.44
To make children aware of the needs of others...	51.95
To help children understand people of other countries through the use of resources and personal contact..	6.82
No answer.....	9.42

A-7

## TABLE 10-A

## QUESTION 11

"The teacher-sponsor is vital to the Red Cross Youth School Program.  
How would you rate the recognition given to teachers?"

	Sponsors
Good.....	20.78
Acceptable .....	52.27
Poor.....	15.58
No answer.....	11.36

## TABLE 11-B

## QUESTION 16

"Do you know of the teaching resources available to you from Red Cross Youth?"

	Present Sponsors	Past Sponsors
All of them.....	8.59	1.66
Some of them.....	71.09	77.90
None of them.....	17.19	15.47
No answer.....	1.56	4.97

## TABLE 12-A

## QUESTION 17

"Have you ever used the resources of Red Cross Youth in your teaching?"

	Sponsors	Non-sponsors
Yes.....	50.65	18.52
No.....	44.16	76.92
No answer.....	5.19	4.56

TABLE 13-A

## QUESTION 18

"Is the Red Cross Youth resource material relevant to your teaching program?"

	Sponsors	Non-sponsors
International - Intercultural Studies:		
Yes.....	34.74	15.38
No.....	13.31	9.40
No answer.....	51.95	75.21

TABLE 14-A

## QUESTION 19

"Is the Red Cross Youth resource material relevant to your teaching program?"

	Sponsors	Non-sponsors
Health and Safety Education Studies:		
Yes.....	50.65	25.07
No.....	3.57	2.56
No answer.....	45.78	72.36

TABLE 15-A

## QUESTION 25

"Are you familiar with the Red Cross Principles?"

	Sponsors	Non-sponsors
Yes.....	53.25	20.23
No.....	42.21	76.35
No answer.....	4.55	3.42

A-9

TABLE 15-B

## QUESTION 25

"Are you familiar with the Red Cross Principles?"

	Present Sponsors	Past Sponsors
Yes.....	63.28	45.30
No.....	35.16	47.51
No answer.....	1.56	7.18

TABLE 16-A

## QUESTION 26

"Do you use the Red Cross Principles in your teaching?"

	Sponsors	Non-Sponsors
Yes.....	45.73	17.66
No.....	6.73	9.40
No answer.....	47.73	83.12

TABLE 17-A

## QUESTION 27

"The Geneva Conventions (principles of war conduct) are a part of Canadian as well as International Law. Do you feel that students should be taught the Geneva Conventions in school?"

	Sponsors	Non-sponsors
Yes.....	38.96	35.33
Indifferent.....	32.47	35.04
No.....	16.88	22.79
No answer.....	11.69	6.87

TABLE 18-A

## QUESTION 28

"Do you teach the Geneva Conventions to your students?"

	Sponsors	Non-sponsors
Yes.....	5.84	5.70
No.....	84.74	91.17
No answer.....	9.42	3.13

TABLE 19-A

## QUESTION 29

"Is your class involved in community projects?"

	Sponsors	Non-sponsors
Yes.....	42.52	33.33
No.....	52.27	64.10
No answer.....	5.19	2.56

TABLE 20-A

## QUESTION 30

"Does your class participate in projects for agencies other than Red Cross Youth? (e.g. OXFAM, UNICEF, etc.)"

	Sponsors	Non-sponsors
Yes.....	40.91	29.34
No.....	54.87	69.09
No answer.....	4.22	2.56

## A-11

TABLE 21-A

## QUESTION 32

"Is 'Health' a specific subject in your school?"

	Sponsors	Non-sponsors
Yes.....	64.29	57.26
No.....	32.79	38.75
No answer.....	2.72	3.99

TABLE 22-A

## QUESTION 33

"How would you rate the health education program?"

	Sponsors	Non-sponsors
Good.....	19.81	13.68
Adequate.....	44.48	43.87
Needs improvement.....	26.95	28.21
Poor.....	4.22	6.84
No answer.....	4.55	7.41

TABLE 23-A

## QUESTION 34

"Are the materials and teaching aids for health education adequate?"

	Sponsors	Non-sponsors
Yes.....	57.14	42.17
No.....	35.39	43.59
No answer.....	7.47	14.25



A-12

TABLE 23-B

## QUESTION 34

"Are the materials and teaching aids for health education adequate?"

	Present Sponsors	Past Sponsors
Yes.....	68.75	48.07
No.....	25.00	42.54
No answer.....	6.25	9.39

TABLE 24-A

## QUESTION 35

"Are the materials and teaching aids for health education readily avail-  
able?"

	Sponsors	Non-sponsors
Yes.....	51.95	45.58
No.....	36.36	41.60
No answer.....	11.69	12.86

TABLE 25-A

## QUESTION 36

"Do you feel that there is a need for Red Cross Youth in the field of health education in your school?"

	Sponsors	Non-sponsors
Yes.....	58.44	46.44
No.....	27.27	33.05
No answer.....	14.29	19.94

TABLE 26-A

## QUESTIONS 37-48

"If Red Cross Youth developed the following health education topics, do you see a need for them in your school; and would you use them?"

	<u>"In your school?"</u>		<u>You use them?"</u>	
	Sponsor	Non-Sponsor	Sponsor	Non-Sponsor
"Nutrition	Yes.....	71.75 67.24	Yes.....	66.56 61.54
	No.....	11.69 14.53	No.....	11.04 15.95
	No answer..	16.56 29.63	No answer..	22.40 22.51
"Family Planning	Yes.....	24.03 29.63	Yes.....	21.10 22.22
	No.....	42.53 41.88	No.....	39.94 42.17
	No answer..	33.44 28.49	No answer..	38.96 35.61
"Bicycle Safety	Yes.....	77.60 81.48	Yes.....	75.97 75.50
	No.....	6.49 7.41	No.....	6.17 8.55
	No answer..	15.91 11.11	No answer..	18.18 15.95
"Physical Fitness	Yes.....	73.05 71.23	Yes.....	69.81 66.10
	No.....	9.09 11.97	No.....	8.44 13.11
	No answer..	17.86 16.81	No answer..	21.75 20.80
"Emergency First Aid and Home Accident Prevention	Yes.....	76.95 78.63	Yes.....	72.08 67.24
	No.....	7.14 6.84	No.....	7.47 12.54
	No answer..	15.91 14.53	No answer..	20.45 20.23
"Health in Other Countries."	Yes.....	62.34 56.70	Yes.....	55.52 46.64
	No.....	14.94 21.37	No.....	15.91 26.78
	No answer..	22.73 21.94	No answer..	28.57 26.78

TABLE 27-A

## QUESTION 51

"Are you involved in projects involving foreign countries (other than through Red Cross Youth)?"

	Sponsors	Non-sponsors
Yes.....	20.45	15.10
No.....	74.03	80.91
No answer.....	5.52	3.99

TABLE 28-A

## QUESTION 52

"Would you like to have your class correspond with a school in another country?"

	Sponsors	Non-sponsors
Yes.....	67.21	60.97
No.....	25.00	33.05
No answer.....	7.79	7.41

TABLE 29-A

## QUESTION 53

"Do you teach your students about foreign countries that are not specifically required in the curriculum?"

	Sponsors	Non-sponsors
Yes.....	61.04	60.97
No.....	30.84	33.05
No answer.....	8.12	5.98

A-15

TABLE 30-A

## QUESTION 54

"If your students were able to participate in the development program of a foreign country, would you use this teaching resource?"

	Sponsors	Non-sponsors
Yes.....	61.04	60.97
No.....	30.84	33.05
No answer.....	8.12	5.98

TABLE 31-A

## QUESTION 55

"Does your school (or District) have resource materials available (slides, films, photos, crafts etc.) from other countries to assist your instruction in Social Studies, History and Geography?"

	Sponsors	Non-sponsors
Always available.....	61.04	59.83
Occasionally available .....	32.14	56.70
Not available .....	2.92	2.85
No answer .....	3.90	3.42

TABLE 32-A

## QUESTION 56

"If Red Cross Youth was able to supply information kits (slides, photos, printed matter, etc.) of foreign countries and health topics for you, on loan, at no charge would you make use of this service?"

	Sponsors	Non-sponsors
Yes .....	87.01	88.03
No .....	7.47	7.98
No answer .....	5.52	3.99

## TABLE 33-B

## QUESTION 13

"Are you familiar with the Red Cross Youth magazine, ON THE MOVE?"

	Sponsors
Yes .....	68.75
No .....	28.17
No answer .....	3.13

## TABLE 34-B

## QUESTION 14

"As a resource in your teaching, how would you rate ON THE MOVE?"

	Sponsors
Valuable .....	15.63
Acceptable .....	48.44
Poor .....	7.81
No answer .....	28.13

## TABLE 35-B

## QUESTION 15

"How is the periodic B.C. - Yukon Newsletter Supplement received by the students?"

	Sponsors
Well received .....	10.16
Indifferent reaction .....	36.72
Poorly received .....	5.47
No answer .....	46.09

TABLE 36-A

## QUESTION 20

"Do you receive each Fall the new information kit from Red Cross Youth?"

	Sponsors	Non-sponsors
Yes .....	38.96	20.51
I don't remember .....	20.13	35.61
No .....	36.04	41.03
No answer .....	4.87	2.85

TABLE 36-B

## QUESTION 20

"Do you receive each Fall the new information kit from Red Cross Youth?"

	Present Sponsors	Past Sponsors
Yes .....	56.25	27.07
I don't remember .....	21.88	21.55
No .....	17.97	44.75
No answer .....	4.69	6.63

TABLE 37-A

## QUESTION 58

"Do you read the monthly magazine published by the B.C. Teachers' Federation?"

	Sponsors	Non-sponsors
Yes .....	88.64	84.33
No .....	7.14	11.11
No answer .....	4.22	4.56

TABLE 38-A

## QUESTION 59

"Do you feel that it would be valuable for you to receive, through the B.C. Teachers' Federation Magazine, information about the educational resources available for you from Red Cross Youth?"

	Sponsors	Non-sponsors
Yes .....	88.64	84.05
No .....	7.14	11.40
No answer .....	4.22	4.56

TABLE 39-A

## QUESTION 12

"The Red Cross Youth Program has an enrolment fee of \$3.00 (for the magazine, postage etc.)

	Sponsor
The fee should be continued .....	70.78
The fee should be increased .....	1.95
The fee should be discontinued ....	12.99
No answer .....	14.29

TABLE 40-A

## QUESTION 21

"If Red Cross Youth could provide the educational resources relevant to your teaching, at no cost, would you make use of this service?"

	Sponsors	Non-sponsors
Yes .....	79.87	80.34
No .....	7.14	12.82
No answer .....	12.99	6.84

TABLE 41-A

## QUESTION 22

"When resource material is borrowed, Red Cross Youth does not charge a fee. Would you make use of this same service if it was requested that postage be paid?"

	Sponsors	Non-sponsors
Yes .....	60.71	57.83
No .....	18.18	21.37
No answer  .....	21.10	20.80

TABLE 42-A

## QUESTION 23

"At present, there are no administration charges to any funds donated by students. Other organizations involved in fund raising with no educational program charge 10% to 30% for administration costs. It has been suggested that Red Cross Youth charge 5% to help cover administration costs."

	Sponsors	Non-sponsors
I agree .....	27.60	21.37
I am indifferent .....	25.65	36.47
I disagree .....	35.06	25.36
No answer .....	11.69	16.81



TABLE 43-A

## Question 24

"How do you feel about students in your school being involved in fund-raising projects?"

	Sponsors	Non-sponsors
Enthusiastic (support & encourage Projects) ..	52.92	33.62
Indifferent (permit projects) .....	31.82	43.87
Negative (would rather not see projects undertaken .....	11.04	17.95
No answer .....	4.22	4.56

TABLE 43-B

## QUESTION 24

"How do you feel about students in your school being involved in fund-raising projects?"

	Present Sponsors	Past Sponsors
Enthusiastic (support & encourage projects) ...	67.97	43.65
Indifferent (permit projects) .....	21.88	38.67
Negative (would rather not see projects undertaken .....	5.47	14.36
No answer .....	4.69	3.31

APPENDIX B

SURVEY OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

SAMPLE QUESTIONNAIRE

THE CANADIAN RED CROSS SOCIETY BRITISH COLUMBIA - YUKON DIVISION

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL EDUCATION PROGRAM SURVEY

HELP!

It is vitally important to Red Cross Youth that we analyse our program. We are asking you to help us with this task. It is essential that we get your views in order to get an accurate picture of what teachers think. It is equally important to us to receive your views whether or not you are a teacher-sponsor of the Red Cross Youth Program.

Through this survey we hope to answer the following general questions:

- 1) Why are teachers using, or not using, our program?
- 2) What direction should our education program take?

Most of the questions for computer tabulation require only a check mark or an x opposite the appropriate answer. There are only a few open questions.

We assure you complete anonymity.

The questionnaire is designed to be answered quickly, and can be completed while enjoying a cup of tea or coffee.

Thank you for your help!

1. When you think of the Canadian Red Cross Society, what two services do you think of first?

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

2. How would you rate the effectiveness of Red Cross services?

Excellent .....\_\_\_\_\_  
Good .....\_\_\_\_\_  
Adequate .....\_\_\_\_\_  
Poor .....\_\_\_\_\_  
Ineffective .....\_\_\_\_\_

3. Have you ever received a service from the Red Cross? (eg. blood transfusion, swim award, disaster assistance etc.)

Yes .....\_\_\_\_\_  
No .....\_\_\_\_\_

4. Have you ever volunteered services to the Red Cross Programs other than as a teacher-sponsor? (eg. donated blood, swimming examiner etc.)

Yes .....\_\_\_\_\_  
No.....\_\_\_\_\_

5. Where have you obtained most of your knowledge of Red Cross Services? (Please check one.)

Radio, T.V., Newspapers,  
Magazines .....\_\_\_\_\_  
As a volunteer .....\_\_\_\_\_  
In school .....\_\_\_\_\_  
Through a friend .....\_\_\_\_\_  
Other (Please specify) .....\_\_\_\_\_

## B-3

6. Do you use, or have you ever used, the Red Cross Youth School Program?

Yes .....\_\_\_\_\_

No .....\_\_\_\_\_

(If your answer to the above question is "No", please proceed to question #16)

7. In the Red Cross Youth School Program:

I am a teacher-sponsor .....\_\_\_\_\_

I am a co-ordinator of teacher-sponsors ...\_\_\_\_\_

I was a teacher-sponsor .....\_\_\_\_\_

8. How many years have you been a teacher-sponsor?

Less than one year .....\_\_\_\_\_

1 to 3 years .....\_\_\_\_\_

4 to 6 years .....\_\_\_\_\_

7 to 9 years .....\_\_\_\_\_

10 to 12 years .....\_\_\_\_\_

More than 12 years .....\_\_\_\_\_

9. How have you utilized the Red Cross Youth Program?

As part of the curriculum .....\_\_\_\_\_

As an extra curricular activity....\_\_\_\_\_

(eg. Friday afternnon club)

Both .....\_\_\_\_\_

B-4

10. Which of the following is the closest to the main Purpose of the Red Cross Youth Program in the schools as seen by your fellow teacher? (Please check one.)

To encourage fund raising to help others .....\_\_\_\_\_

To teach good health habits .....\_\_\_\_\_

To make children aware of the needs of others ....\_\_\_\_\_

To help children understand people of other countries through the use of resources and personal contact .....\_\_\_\_\_

11. The teacher-sponsor is vital to the Red Cross Youth School Program. How would you rate the recognition given to teachers?

Good .....\_\_\_\_\_

Acceptable .....\_\_\_\_\_

Poor .....\_\_\_\_\_

12. The Red Cross Youth Program has an enrolment fee of \$3.00 (for the magazine, postage etc.)

The fee should be continued .....\_\_\_\_\_

The fee should be increased .....\_\_\_\_\_

The fee should be discontinued ...\_\_\_\_\_

13. Are you familiar with the Red Cross Youth magazine, ON THE MOVE?

Yes .....\_\_\_\_\_

No .....\_\_\_\_\_

(If your answer to the above question is "No", please proceed to question #16.)

14. As a resource in your teaching, how would you rate ON THE MOVE?

Valuable .....\_\_\_\_\_

Acceptable .....\_\_\_\_\_

Poor .....\_\_\_\_\_

15. How is the periodic B.C.-Yukon Newsletter Supplement received by the students?

Well received ..... \_\_\_\_\_

Indifferent reaction ..... \_\_\_\_\_

Poorly received ..... \_\_\_\_\_

16. Do you know of the teaching resources available to you from Red Cross Youth?

All of them ..... \_\_\_\_\_

Some of them ..... \_\_\_\_\_

None of them ..... \_\_\_\_\_

17. Have you ever used the resources of Red Cross Youth in your teaching?

Yes ..... \_\_\_\_\_

No ..... \_\_\_\_\_

(If your answer to the above question is "No", please proceed to question #20.)

18. Is the Red Cross Youth resource material relevant to your teaching program?

International - Intercultural Studies:

Yes ..... \_\_\_\_\_

No ..... \_\_\_\_\_

19. Health and Safety Education Studies:

Yes..... \_\_\_\_\_

No ..... \_\_\_\_\_

B-6

20. Do you receive each fall the new information kit from Red Cross Youth?

Yes ..... \_\_\_\_\_

I don't remember ..... \_\_\_\_\_

No ..... \_\_\_\_\_

21. If Red Cross Youth could provide the educational resources relevant to your teaching at no cost, would you make use of this service?

Yes ..... \_\_\_\_\_

No ..... \_\_\_\_\_

(If your answer to the above question is "No", please proceed to question #24.)

22. When resource material is borrowed Red Cross Youth does not charge a fee. Would you make use of this same service if it was requested that postage be paid?

Yes ..... \_\_\_\_\_

No ..... \_\_\_\_\_

23. At present there are no administration charges to any funds donated by students. Other organizations involved in fund raising with no educational program charge 10% to 30% for administration costs. It has been suggested that Red Cross Youth charge 5% to help cover administration costs.

I agree ..... \_\_\_\_\_

I am indifferent ..... \_\_\_\_\_

I disagree ..... \_\_\_\_\_

24. How do you feel about students in your school being involved in fund-raising projects?

Enthusiastic (support & encourage projects .. \_\_\_\_\_

Indifferent (permit projects) ..... \_\_\_\_\_

Negative (would rather not see projects undertaken ..... \_\_\_\_\_



B-7

25. Are you familiar with the Red Cross Principles?

Yes ..... \_\_\_\_\_

No..... \_\_\_\_\_

(If your answer to the above question is "No", please proceed to question #27.)

26. Do you use the Red Cross Principles in your teaching?

Yes ..... \_\_\_\_\_

No ..... \_\_\_\_\_

27. The Geneva Conventions (principles of war conduct) are a part of Canadian as well as International Law. Do you feel that students should be taught the Geneva Conventions in school?

Yes ..... \_\_\_\_\_

Indifferent ..... \_\_\_\_\_

No ..... \_\_\_\_\_

28. Do you teach the Geneva Conventions to your students?

Yes ..... \_\_\_\_\_

No ..... \_\_\_\_\_

29. Is your class involved in community projects?

Yes ..... \_\_\_\_\_

No ..... \_\_\_\_\_

30. Does your class participate in projects for agencies other than Red Cross Youth? (eg. OXFAM, UNICEF, etc.)

Yes ..... \_\_\_\_\_

No ..... \_\_\_\_\_

31. What role could Red Cross take to help you with community projects?  
Please specify.

32. Is "Health" a specific subject in your school?

Yes ..... \_\_\_\_\_

No ..... \_\_\_\_\_

33. How would you rate the health education program?

Good ..... \_\_\_\_\_

Adequate ..... \_\_\_\_\_

Needs improvement ..... \_\_\_\_\_

Poor ..... \_\_\_\_\_

34. Are the materials and teaching aids for health education adequate?

Yes ..... \_\_\_\_\_

No..... \_\_\_\_\_

35. Are the materials and teaching aids for health education readily available?

Yes ..... \_\_\_\_\_

No..... \_\_\_\_\_

36. Do you feel that there is a need for Red Cross Youth in the field of health education in your school?

Yes ..... \_\_\_\_\_

No ..... \_\_\_\_\_

B-9

If Red Cross Youth developed the following health education topics, do you see a need for them in your school; and would you use them?

	<u>In your school?</u>	<u>You use them?</u>
37-38. Nutrition	Yes ..... _____	Yes ..... _____
	No ..... _____	No ..... _____
39-40. Family Planning	Yes ..... _____	Yes ..... _____
	No ..... _____	No ..... _____
41-42. Bicycle Safety	Yes ..... _____	Yes ..... _____
	No ..... _____	No ..... _____
43-44. Physical Fitness	Yes ..... _____	Yes ..... _____
	No ..... _____	No ..... _____
45-46. Emergency First Aid and Home Accident Prevention	Yes ..... _____	Yes ..... _____
	No ..... _____	No ..... _____
47-48. Health in Other Countries	Yes ..... _____	Yes ..... _____
	No ..... _____	No ..... _____
49-50 Other (please specify)		

51. Are you involved in projects involving foreign countries (other than through Red Cross Youth)?

Yes ..... \_\_\_\_\_

No ..... \_\_\_\_\_

52. Would you like to have your class correspond with a school in another country?

Yes ..... \_\_\_\_\_

No ..... \_\_\_\_\_

53. Do you teach your students about foreign countries that are not specifically required in the curriculum?

Yes ..... \_\_\_\_\_

No ..... \_\_\_\_\_

54. If your students were able to participate in the development program of a foreign country, would you use this teaching resource?

Yes ..... \_\_\_\_\_

No ..... \_\_\_\_\_

55. Does your school (or district) have resource materials available (slides, films, photos, crafts etc.) from other countries to assist your instruction in Social Studies, History and Geography?

Always available ..... \_\_\_\_\_

Occasionally available ..... \_\_\_\_\_

Not available ..... \_\_\_\_\_

56. If Red Cross Youth was able to supply information kits (slides, photos, printed matter, etc.) of foreign countries and health topics for you, on loan, at no charge would you make use of this service?

Yes ..... \_\_\_\_\_

No ..... \_\_\_\_\_

57. What teaching aids or services could Red Cross Youth provide for you? Please specify.

58. Do you read the monthly magazine published by the B.C. Teachers' Federation?

Yes ..... \_\_\_\_\_

No ..... \_\_\_\_\_

59. Do you feel that it would be valuable for you to receive, through the B.C. Teachers' Federation Magazine, information about the educational resources available for you from Red Cross Youth?

Yes ..... \_\_\_\_\_

No ..... \_\_\_\_\_

Now to help us classify your answers statistically, please answer the following general questions about yourself. We assure your complete anonymity.

60. No. of years teaching

Less than 1 year ..... \_\_\_\_\_

1 - 5 years ..... \_\_\_\_\_

6 - 10 years ..... \_\_\_\_\_

11 - 15 years ..... \_\_\_\_\_

more than 15 years ..... \_\_\_\_\_

61. Sex

Male ..... \_\_\_\_\_

Female ..... \_\_\_\_\_

62. Status

Single ..... \_\_\_\_\_

Married ..... \_\_\_\_\_

## B-12

## 63. Education Complete (Please check one)

Teaching Certificate ..... \_\_\_\_\_

Teaching Certificate and  
Bachelor Degree ..... \_\_\_\_\_

Masters Degree ..... \_\_\_\_\_

Doctorate ..... \_\_\_\_\_

## 64. Age

25 or less ..... \_\_\_\_\_

26 - 30 ..... \_\_\_\_\_

31 - 35 ..... \_\_\_\_\_

36 - 40 ..... \_\_\_\_\_

41 - 45 ..... \_\_\_\_\_

46 or more ..... \_\_\_\_\_

## 65. My position in the school. (Please check one)

Teacher ..... \_\_\_\_\_

Principal ..... \_\_\_\_\_

Vice-Principal ..... \_\_\_\_\_

Department Head ..... \_\_\_\_\_

## 66. To how many volunteer organizations which are concerned in one way or another with "helping people" do you belong?

None ..... \_\_\_\_\_

One ..... \_\_\_\_\_

Two ..... \_\_\_\_\_

More than 2 ..... \_\_\_\_\_

67. Grade teaching at present

- Kindergarten ..... \_\_\_\_\_
- One ..... \_\_\_\_\_
- Two ..... \_\_\_\_\_
- Three ..... \_\_\_\_\_
- Four ..... \_\_\_\_\_
- Five ..... \_\_\_\_\_
- Six ..... \_\_\_\_\_
- Seven ..... \_\_\_\_\_
- Multiple grades or other ..... \_\_\_\_\_  
(Please specify)

APPENDIX CCHI<sup>2</sup> TABLES:

TABLE I TEACHER-SPONSORS AND NON-TEACHER-SPONSORS

TABLE II PRESENT TEACHER-SPONSORS AND PAST TEACHER-SPONSORS



TABLE I  
CHI<sup>2</sup> TEST

RED CROSS YOUTH TEACHER SPONSORS AND NON TEACHER SPONSORS

HYPOTHESIS : There is no difference between the two groups.

Question

#5	$X^2 = 31.78;$	$df = 3;$	H = rejected
#17	$X^2 = 79.04;$	$df = 1;$	H = rejected
#18	$X^2 = 2.65;$	$df = 1;$	H = accepted (marginal)
#20	$X^2 = 34.06;$	$df = 2;$	H = rejected
#21	$X^2 = 4.55;$	$df = 1;$	H = rejected
#22	$X^2 = 1.06;$	$df = 1;$	H = accepted
#23	$X^2 = 13.37;$	$df = 2;$	H = rejected
#24	$X^2 = 25.95;$	$df = 2;$	H = rejected
#25	$X^2 = 80.06;$	$df = 1;$	H = rejected
#26	$X^2 = 18.11;$	$df = 1;$	H = rejected
#29	$X^2 = 6.16;$	$df = 1;$	H = rejected
#30	$X^2 = 10.92;$	$df = 1;$	H = rejected
#32	$X^2 = 2.92;$	$df = 1;$	H = rejected (marginal)
#34	$X^2 = 9.37;$	$df = 1;$	H = rejected
#35	$X^2 = 2.49;$	$df = 1;$	H = accepted (marginal)
#36	$X^2 = 6.03;$	$df = 1;$	H = rejected
#39	$X^2 = 1.35;$	$df = 1;$	H = accepted
#46	$X^2 = 4.70;$	$df = 1;$	H = rejected
#48	$X^2 = 4.57;$	$df = 1;$	H = rejected
#51	$X^2 = 3.63;$	$df = 1;$	H = rejected
#52	$X^2 = 5.55;$	$df = 1;$	H = rejected
#53	$X^2 = 0.17;$	$df = 1;$	H = accepted
#55	$X^2 = 0.19;$	$df = 2;$	H = accepted
#60	$X^2 = 62.01;$	$df = 4;$	H = rejected
#63	$X^2 = 1.70;$	$df = 2;$	H = accepted
#64	$X^2 = 54.00;$	$df = 5;$	H = rejected
#65	$X^2 = 9/93;$	$df = 3;$	H = rejected
#66	$X^2 = 41.72;$	$df = 3;$	H = rejected

TABLE 11CHI<sup>2</sup> TESTPRESENT AND PAST RED CROSS YOUTH TEACHER SPONSORS

HYPOTHESIS: There is no difference between the two groups.

## Question

#3	$\chi^2 = 3.23$ ;	df = 1;	H = rejected
#5	$\chi^2 = 5.40$ ;	df = 2;	H = rejected
#8	$\chi^2 = 32.51$ ;	df = 5;	H = rejected
#9	$\chi^2 = 12.27$ ;	df = 1;	H = rejected
#18	$\chi^2 = 1.39$ ;	df = 1;	H = accepted
#20	$\chi^2 = 31.41$ ;	df = 2;	H = rejected
#24	$\chi^2 = 20.52$ ;	df = 2;	H = rejected
#25	$\chi^2 = 8.93$ ;	df = 1;	H = rejected
#27	$\chi^2 = 4.49$ ;	df = 2;	H = rejected (marginal)
#32	$\chi^2 = 0.61$ ;	df = 1;	H = accepted
#34	$\chi^2 = 12.07$ ;	df = 1;	H = rejected
#35	$\chi^2 = 2.04$ ;	df = 1;	H = rejected (marginal)
#53	$\chi^2 = 0.99$ ;	df = 1;	H = accepted
#60	$\chi^2 = 27.77$ ;	df = 4;	H = rejected
#64	$\chi^2 = 14.33$ ;	df = 5;	H = rejected
#65	$\chi^2 = 9.20$ ;	df = 3;	H = rejected

APPENDIX DMISCELLANEOUS TABLES

- TABLE - A B.C.-YUKON STATISTICS AS REPORTED ON NATIONAL RED CROSS  
YOUTH STATISTICS SHEETS (1967-68 TO 1971-72 SCHOOL YEARS).
- TABLE - B STATISTICS AS REPORTED IN B.C.-YUKON ANNUAL REPORTS  
(1966-71 CALENDAR YEARS).
- TABLE - C BRITISH COLUMBIA SCHOOLS AND STUDENT ENROLMENT (1971-  
72 SCHOOL YEAR).

TABLE A

B.C.-YUKON STATISTICS AS REPORTED ON NATIONAL RED CROSS YOUTHSTATISTIC SHEETS 1967 - 68 TO 1971 - 72 (SCHOOL YEARS)

	1967-68	1968-69	1969-70	1970-71	1971-72
<u>Elementary Schools</u>					
Branches	3,098	2,772	3,500	3,073	3,073
Members	100,000	100,672	100,000	95,156	87,657
<u>Junior High Schools</u>					
Branches	-	-	200	30	40
Members	-	-	50,000	1,181	200
<u>Senior High Schools</u>					
Branches	110	93	included	20	6
Members - Active	4,120	3,986	with	897	30
- Associate	52,000	50,000	above	-	-
- TOTAL	56,120	53,986		897	30
<u>Inter-High School Councils</u>					
Branches	-	6	6	2	15
Members - Active	-	300	-	50	45
- Associate	-	50,000	-	-	-
- TOTAL	-	50,300	-	50	45
<u>Alumni</u>					
Branches	-	-	-	1	1
Members	-	-	-	12	10
<u>Others (University, College, etc.)</u>					
Branches	-	-	-	-	-
Members	-	-	-	-	-
<b>GRAND TOTAL</b>	<b>156,120</b>	<b>204,958</b>	<b>150,000</b>	<b>97,296</b>	<b>87,942</b>

TABLE BSTATISTICS AS REPORTED IN B.C.-YUKON ANNUAL REPORTS1966 - 71 (Calendar Years)FUNDSMEMBERSHIP

YEAR	TOTAL FUNDS RAISED	\$ SPENT INTERNATIONAL PROJECTS	\$ SPENT B.C.-YUKON PROJECTS	VALUE HEALTH KITS, BLANKETS, TOYS	ELEMENTARY	SECONDARY	TOTAL	CLUBS	SCHOOLS
1966	15,611	5,000	11,207		increased	constant			
1967		10,000*			140,000*	54,000*			
1968		3,000*					200,000*		
1969	19,212	9,066+		7,527	140,000*	60,000*			
1970	14,620	4,000 8,666+					99,229	3,367	556
1971	12,789			7,100			93,085		595

\* All of these figures are listed as approximate.

+ Funds from Miles for Millions

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TABLE B

STATISTICS AS REPORTED IN B.C.-YUKON ANNUAL REPORTS

1966 - 71 (Calendar Years)

HANDWORK & EXCHANGES

YEAR	BLANKETS	SOFT TOYS	HEALTH KITS	ALBUMS	TEEN PROFILES	STAMP CARDS	ART CRAFT	CLOTHING	SCHOOL KITS
1966 - 69									
1970	164	2,372	1,696					130	270
1971	106	2,108	1,321	15	349	198	260		

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TABLE CBRITISH COLUMBIA SCHOOLS AND STUDENT ENROLMENT\*1971 - 72 (School Year)

	Schools	Enrolment
Elementary and Special .....	1212	324,619
Elementary and Junior Secondary .....	49	11,941
Elementary and Senior Secondary .....	12	8,327
Junior Secondary .....	105	70,145
Secondary and Senior Secondary .....	<u>137</u>	<u>119,491</u>
TOTAL	1,515	534,523

\* Source Public Schools 101st Annual Report 1971-72  
British Columbia Department of Education