This ERIC/RCS Special Collection contains 10 or more Digests (brief syntheses of the research on a specific topic in contemporary education) and FAST Bibs (Focused Access to Selected Topics—annotated bibliographies with selected entries from the ERIC database), providing up-to-date information in an accessible format. The collection focuses on the field of mass communication (including broadcast and print media, and products such as video tapes, audio tapes, compact disks, and records) and its connections with education. The material in the special collection is designed for use by teachers, students, administrators, researchers, policy makers, and parents. A profile of the ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills (ERIC/RCS); an order form; an information on a computerized search service, on searching ERIC in print, on submitting material to ERIC/RCS, and on books available from ERIC/RCS are attached. (RS)
Mass Communication

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ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills
ERIC (an acronym for Educational Resources Information Center) is a national network of 16 clearinghouses, each of which is responsible for building the ERIC database by identifying and abstracting various educational resources, including research reports, curriculum guides, conference papers, journal articles, and government reports. The Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills (ERIC/RCS) collects educational information specifically related to reading, English, journalism, speech, and theater at all levels. ERIC/RCS also covers interdisciplinary areas, such as media studies, reading and writing technology, mass communication, language arts, critical thinking, literature, and many aspects of literacy.

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What Are ERIC/RCS Special Collections?

Each ERIC/RCS Special Collection contains ten or more Digests and FAST Bibs offering a variety of viewpoints on selected topics of interest and importance in contemporary education. ERIC Digests are brief syntheses of the research that has been done on a specific topic. FAST Bibs (Focused Access to Selected Topics) are annotated bibliographies with selected entries from the ERIC database. Both Digests and FAST Bibs provide up-to-date information in an accessible format.

Our Special Collections are intended as a resource that can be used quickly and effectively by teachers, students, administrators, researchers, policy makers, and parents. The Digests may be consulted for a summary of, or a particular viewpoint on, the research in an area, while the FAST Bibs may be used as the start of a more extensive look at what is available in the ERIC database on a subject of interest.

MASS COMMUNICATIONS

The focus of this Special Collection is the field of mass communication and its connections with education. Mass communication includes broadcast media (radio and television), print media (newspapers, magazines, journals, books, technical reports, etc.), and products such as video tapes, audio tapes, CD disks, and records.

Using Media in the Classroom

One of the Digests in this collection is entitled Using Newspapers as Effective Teaching Tools. Nola Kortner Aiex asserts that use of the mass media, particularly newspapers, has increased considerably at all grade levels during the past few years. Newspaper publishers have developed a very effective program called "Newspapers in Education" that provides teachers with a variety of classroom activities, using newspapers, and provides the newspapers at reduced cost for this educational purpose. About 600 newspapers and over three million students are involved in this program in the United States and Canada. Aiex also reviews a sampling of the many courses and activity booklets that are available in the ERIC database on the subject of using newspapers to assist learning. Newspapers may be used with young children to locate letters, words, and pictures; with students of all grade levels to supplement other teaching in many areas, particularly consumer education; with learning disabled students; and with adult learners as well. Aiex concludes that "in the development of readers at all levels, the newspaper can be a versatile tool."

In another Digest with the title Using Film, Video, and TV in the Classroom, Nola Aiex reviews a number of specific techniques and courses that are listed in the ERIC database. The viewpoint she expresses is that "The mass media are an integral part of the environment in which today's students learn to read, write, listen, speak, and make meaning of their lives. Thus a properly designed course of instruction can use media to channel a student's enthusiasm and route it to an academically useful goal."

Television Viewing

Students need to develop critical viewing abilities as well as critical reading and thinking abilities. This is the subject of another Digest by Nola Kortner Aiex: How to "Read" Television: Teaching Students to View TV Critically. What is the best way to teach about mass media? And how can one help students to become informed citizens and discriminating TV viewers? Aiex reviews several guides that offer guidelines and techniques to teachers. In the Digest's concluding paragraph, she paraphrases the words of Dennis Adams ("Critical Reading: Visual Skills," 1985):

Mass media technology is shaping young people's lives far more than print, and for the traditional public school system to avoid withering, it must take an active role in helping students interpret television imagery. Contrary to some claims, the significance of imagery as an intellectual tool for understanding concepts and processes will not reduce the importance of print in a literacy intensive future environment. Both forms of reading will take on even greater importance, both in the "real" world and the educational world. Print,
however, will no longer be considered sacred, and pictures will acquire a newfound respectability. The result will be a more active and rigorous process of teaching and learning.

This Digest complements an annotated bibliography on Teenage Television Viewing, by Michael Shermis (Fast Bib No. 8). Many people are concerned about the effects of television viewing on children and adolescents, and many different studies have been reported in the ERIC database. The bibliography is divided into the following sections: Impact on Health, Sexual Behavior, and Use of Alcohol; TV Violence and Teenage Behavior; Impact on Other Social Behaviors; and Viewing Habits.

**Advertising and Consumer Education**

Advertising may be defined as communication which promotes the purchase of products and services; thus its study as a form of consumer education may help people become more knowledgeable and critical about the advertising that is such a pervasive aspect of current American culture. In a recent ERIC Digest entitled Educating the Consumer about Advertising: Some Issues, Stephen Gottlieb provides an overview of issues that are related to advertising and the consumer.

**Journalism**

Journalism is a craft that contributes heavily to the impact of print media. Aspiring journalists, and others who just want to learn what journalism is all about, enroll in high school and university journalism classes and also obtain hands-on practice by working on student newspapers.

The author of one of the Digests in this collection, Thomas Eveslage, addresses the impact of a 1988 Supreme Court decision on student newspapers and what they are free to publish: The Supreme Court on Hazelwood: A Reversal on Regulation of Student Expression. He traces some of the other significant court cases that concern students' rights to free speech, and the limits that schools may place on those rights. Eveslage argues that the Hazelwood case signaled a departure from precedent that could lead toward more restriction of students' free expression in student newspapers. It is not yet clear whether the ruling in the case affects college newspapers equally, or is applicable mainly to high school papers.

Available from the ERIC/RCS Clearinghouse is a book that is being read with interest by journalism majors, writers, media experts, cognitive psychologists, and people in the news business: How Do Journalists Think? A Proposal for the Study of Cognitive Bias in Newsmaking, by S. Holly Stocking and Paget H. Gross. The author team is composed of a communication researcher and a cognitive psychologist.

**Ethics in the Workplace**

From time to time events give impetus to investigative reporting; the Watergate break-in and subsequent cover-up and the Iran-Contra case are two examples wherein the press called into question the ethics of government figures. At other times, the ethics and credibility of journalists themselves are in the spotlight. Stephen Gottlieb, in a Digest entitled Media Ethics: Some Specific Problems, addresses some of the ethical issues in media coverage and discusses some of the studies that have been done. Digital alteration of photographs in magazines is but one of the issues he considers.

One of the bibliographies in this collection is entitled Business Ethics (FAST Bib No. 17). Michael Shermis lists a number of sources whose authors discuss the teaching of ethics in business communication and advertising courses. There are also a number of sources whose authors consider ethical issues in the relationships between business and higher education.

James Measell, in his book, Teaching the Introductory Public Relations Course: A Communication Perspective (available from ERIC/RCS), argues that public relations should be handled by well-educated communication theorists/practitioners, and should be held to a higher standard of ethics than has been the case in the past.

**Religious Broadcasting**

Televangelists, and their failings, have received a lot of media attention in the last few years. In contrast to this focus on particular individuals, a number of researchers in the field of communication have for many years been interested in religious broadcasting itself as a particular genre of mass communication. One of the bibliographies in this collection, compiled by Michael Shermis, is entitled Religious Broadcasting (FAST Bib No. 7). Shermis cites sources that give information about various aspects of this kind of broadcasting, its history, its use by right-wing groups, its regulation by the government, and other related issues.
**Communication Skills**

The business world is placing increasing emphasis on the role of good communication skills. These include **reading**, **writing**, **speaking**, and **listening**; they are used both for communication with individuals and small groups and in mass communication.

Listening instruction has been added to employee training in many corporations, as well as in schools and universities. Michael Shermis has compiled a bibliography on *Listening Skills in Business* (FAST Bib No. 19), with a section on Teaching Techniques and Strategies and one on Recent Research.

Another Digest in this collection is *Teaching Technical Communication*, by Rebecca Kelly. Kelly discusses some of the characteristics, issues, and resources for instructing students about technical communication. The chief issue of concern to teachers of technical communication, according to Kelly, is the importance of real-world application and practice. Sometimes this practice can be simulated by a case-study approach; in other cases, instructors obtain technical documents from industry to provide examples in the classroom.

**Organizational Communication**

Related to the field of mass communication and speech communication, and yet different from both, is the study of communication within and between organizations. In a Digest entitled *Communicating within Organizational Cultures*, Nola Aiex describes some of the work that has been done in this field, after initially discussing the metaphor of “organizational culture.” She concludes with a section exploring some of the ways in which an understanding of organizational culture can help technical writing and speech communication teachers better prepare their students for the organizational world.

Our intention in this Special Collection is to help you become more familiar with some of the issues and research in the field of mass communication. We hope you will find it useful.

**More Information from the ERIC Database**

In addition to the citations in the Didgeyts and FAST Bibs included in this collection, other resources may be found by searching the ERIC database. A few of the terms that would be useful in a search are these: Mass-Media, Broadcast-Industry, Television-, Publishing-Industry, and Mass-Media-Effects. If you need help with a search, please contact User Services at ERIC/RCS (812-855-5847).

**Materials Available from the ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills:**

These materials, available from ERIC/RCS at Indiana University, may be of interest to you:

*How Do Journalists Think? A Proposal for the Study of Cognitive Bias in Newsmaking,*
by S. Holly Stocking and Paget H. Gross

*Meaning and Mind: An Intrapersonal Approach to Human Communication*,
by Leonard Shedletsky

*Teaching the Introductory Public Relations Course: A Communication Perspective,*
by James S. Measell

*Public Relations Bibliography, 1986-1987,*
by Albert Walker

For Teachers and Administrators:

*Critical Thinking, Reading, and Writing,*
by Mary Morgan and Michael Shermis

*A High School Student's Bill of Rights,*
by Stephen Gottlieb

To order any of these books, please use the form at the end of this collection.

Ellie Macfarlane, ERIC/RCS Associate Director
Series Editor
Educating the Consumer about Advertising: Some Issues

by Stephen S. Gottlieb

Advertising can be defined as communication which promotes the purchase of products and services, and advertisements are pervasive in the American culture. Ads are sandwiched between programs on television, interspersed with popular songs on the radio, and scattered among news features in the daily paper. While advertisements may distract from a TV program or a newspaper's other messages, might they also serve a more positive purpose? Can advertising advance consumer knowledge? At the same time, can consumer education help people become more knowledgeable and critical about the goals of advertising? This digest provides a basic overview of issues related to advertising and the consumer.

Ads Are Everywhere

People sometimes complain about the perceived overabundance of advertising in daily life. While consumers are accustomed to ads on television and in magazines, commercial promotion appears to be cropping up in more and more places. A proposed cable TV channel (Channel One) for use in schools faltered when it was learned that the channel would carry commercials aimed at the students, but it now appears to be heading for success, even though school administrators are divided on its merits (Rist, 1989). A profile of Channel One founder, Chris Whittle, in “The New York Times” reported that, while many teachers and administrators extol the value of the newscast which Channel One presents, others will never accept the infusion of commercialism in the schools. Whittle, however, has already signed up the 8600 schools he needed to cover his capital costs and achieve the audience size he felt would interest advertisers (Kleinfield, 1991).

Advertising is also found in some of the free curriculum materials which businesses supply to schools. A content analysis of materials within the areas of nutrition, energy, and economics education revealed that business-sponsored materials were found to contain significantly more advertising statements than did non-business-sponsored materials. Additionally, sponsored materials contained significantly more references to brand names/models and more company/brand logos and names than did non-sponsored materials. Many educators believe that the value of these materials is suspect, because of the preponderance of the commercial message over the informational content (Rudd 1986).

Each time a new communications technology is developed, merchants are quick to devise ways of exploiting the medium for advertising purposes. Advertisers move rapidly to exploit the commercial possibilities of radio, television and cable. Facsimile machines are now used to transmit ads. Sports arenas’ and stadiums’ electronic scoreboards carry product names in yards-high lettering. The developing technologies of teletext, electronic mail, and interactive cable television are now being used to sell products as well. Research suggests that as a result of these developments, advertising is now less likely to contain meaningful product information, and more likely to be intermingled with other kinds of messages (Sepstrup 1986). Consumers, as the targets of these increasingly complex promotional strategies, must become much more aware of the persuasive nature of advertising.
Recognizing Advertising Appeals

Advertising serves some very important purposes. It promotes competition among producers of products and services, keeps prices low through the development of mass markets, encourages store owners to stock a variety of items, supports free expression by funding media sources, and spurs invention. In theory, access to all available information on a given product should promote all of these ends and allow a consumer to make the most intelligent possible product purchase decisions. In practice, no one takes the time to gather that many facts. The amount of information needed to make a knowledgeable product purchase depends on such considerations as the cost of the product and the difficulty of obtaining further data. At some point, the cost of the additional information will exceed the value of the product. Intelligent consumers learn to balance these factors, and students can cultivate this skill through appropriate learning exercises (South Carolina 1983).

The average person is exposed to dozens of advertisements every day. A student may not appreciate just how influential advertising is until confronted with large numbers of familiar slogans, logos, and characters taken directly from the ads. Teachers can encourage students to identify advertisements and examine their content. Students must learn to separate facts from images, and to tell the difference between what the ads imply and what they actually say (Hawaii 1982). It is possible to identify many kinds of advertising appeals (snob appeal, statistics, humor, etc.), and even elementary school children can learn to recognize these. The students can gain an appreciation of the diversity of advertising appeals through discussion, analysis of commercial messages, creation of advertisements for: imaginary products, and other classroom activities (Dianna 1983; Garrahy 1982).

Unscrupulous advertisers will sometimes advertise products that are just too good to be true. The Latin maxim, “caveat emptor,” which means “let the buyer beware,” is an important phrase to keep in mind when making consumer purchases. A child can learn that purchasers do not ordinarily get something for nothing. It is preferable if the child grasps this lesson before getting cheated, rather than afterwards. Teachers should encourage students to scan the daily newspaper or television for ads that do not ring true (Greenup 1983). The more exposure a child has to the motivations that lie behind questionable advertising methods, the less likely it will be that the child will be fooled by such tactics.

The relationship between advertising and consumer knowledge has been the subject of much study. Interestingly, there does not appear to be a necessary connection between the amount of advertising to which a child is exposed and that child’s consumer knowledge. In fact, one study indicates that the viewing of television advertising may render an adolescent more susceptible to inflated advertising claims. At the same time, consumer education courses appear to increase student dissatisfaction with the marketplace, suggesting that such courses increase awareness of unfair business practices (Moschis 1983).

Truth in Financial Advertising

Consumer vulnerability to deceptive advertising is particularly acute in the area of financial services. Individuals often have little knowledge of the workings of credit, leases, security agreements, and so on. It is sometimes difficult to obtain information on such subjects that would be meaningful to the average consumer, so it is especially important that consumers be on guard against misleading or fraudulent advertisement. Because of the great inequality of bargaining power in this area, the government often backs up the consumer with protective laws.

The desire for accurate information regarding consumer borrowing has been the driving force behind a great deal of legislation in Congress and in the legislatures of the 50 states. Regulations such as the federal Truth in Lending Law are designed to protect individuals from misleading practices by loan institutions. An important portion of the law provides that if one feature of a credit arrangement is mentioned in advertising, other important loan terms must also be explained. Similar provisions in the Consumer Leasing Act protect consumers who enter into lease agreements. The intent of these laws is to extend the government’s help to the making of informed decisions on difficult financial matters (Fed. Res. 1981, 1983).

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Educating the Consumer about Advertising: Some Issues


In the early 1900s, technical communication was a burgeoning professional field, represented in academia by service courses taught primarily at engineering institutions. By the 1980's, however, it had become a significant professional and academic discipline in its own right. James Souther (1990) offers the following as evidence to support this assertion:

- the expansion of professional organizations, in particular, the Society for Technical Communication
- the growth of academic organizations like the Association of Teachers of Technical Writing and the Council for Programs in Technical and Scientific Communication
- the quality of research, for business through the Document Design Center, and from academe, particularly at Carnegie-Mellon
- representation on the programs of conventions of major academic groups like the Modern Language Association and the National Council of Teachers of English
- an increase in the number of offerings, both in terms of classes and degree programs, at colleges and universities

Often colleges and universities that are just beginning to include technical communication in their curricula do so using faculty trained in traditional English doctoral programs. This ERIC Digest examines several areas of concern for such institutions and discusses 1) characteristics of technical communication; 2) issues in teaching technical communication; and 3) resources in teaching technical communication.

What Characteristics Distinguish Technical Communication?

Several characteristics distinguish technical communication from the more traditional composition courses in college curricula. Technical communication

- is situation oriented and often directed to very specific audiences
- has a strong visual component
- has ties to other fields, including psychology and computer science

What Issues Concern Teachers of Technical Communication?

Real-world Application

Chief among the issues of concern to teachers of technical communication is the importance of real-world application and practice. Sometimes these real-world experiences must be simulated experiences, or "cases," such as those devised by Gifford (1983) or Smith (1990). Another technique is to adapt real-world situations, as Morrow (1988) does with cases in operations management. Faculty may also try to get technical documents from industry (Mancuso, 1984), for samples to work with or examples to illustrate writing principles.

In addition, degree programs must establish and maintain ties with industry so that curricula meet industry needs and expectations and graduates are prepared for careers in the field. Internships that allow students in such programs to work in industry may be particularly valuable (Bosley, 1988, and Norsworthy, 1988).

Process versus Product

Another issue revolves around the process/product debate that came out of research concerning composition instruction. Is it better to teach various
"forms" used in technical communication; or is it better to teach a process of analyzing and composing, which leads to forms appropriate for the communication situation? Bishop (1987) describes a process-oriented course with an emphasis on peer interaction. Roundy (1985) argues for the efficacy of combined methods. In tracing the history of technical communication textbooks, Souther (1990) notes that for the most part, a compromise has been reached with texts he calls "hybrids." These books combine process and product approaches. They include models but take students through typical writing processes. They may also note rhetorical strategies and include sections that emphasize language usage and style.

Oral and Visual Components

A third issue for teachers of technical communication is the importance of oral and visual components. Desjardins (1987) points out that in business and industry, those responsible for producing technical documents often have to present them orally and need preparation to do so.

With the increasing accessibility of desktop publishing, the technical communicator's role is expanding to include graphics, document design, layout, and the publication process. Gadomski (1988) discusses what can happen when a technical writer takes on the role of graphic designer. He also offers some resources for the writer in that new role.

The Importance of Computers

With the increasing use of computers, technical communicators will certainly be called on to use word processing and possibly desktop publishing. As Farkas (1988) points out, computers can alter, for the better, composing and editing techniques.

In addition to perhaps altering their composing, writers may be called on to write for a new medium. For online documentation or computer-based training materials, the "page" is not the printed one but a computer terminal screen.

Those who write computer manuals, argues Oram (1988) need an understanding of computer systems, both to understand the product and to know what to include in the manual.

What Resources are Available for Teachers of Technical Communication?

Professional Organizations

Teachers of technical communication may become active in several organizations that provide contact with professional technical communicators and academicians who specialize in the field. The Society for Technical Communication (STC), 815 15th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20005, is the largest organization and includes professionals from both industry and education. The Association for Teachers of Technical Writing (ATTW), c/o Dr. Carolyn D. Rude, Dept. of English, Box 4530, Texas Tech. University, Lubbock, TX 79409, is strictly academic, and the Council for Programs in Technical and Scientific Communication (CPTSC) is a small organization concerned with academic degree programs.

Journals, Proceedings, and Textbooks

A number of journals provide articles on professional issues, comparisons of academic curricula and programs, and specific assignments for the classroom. Although they are not discussed here, textbooks abound (Rainey, et al, 1990). STC publishes Technical Communication quarterly. Most of the articles are directed to the professional technical communicator, but such information is essential for the academician who wants to stay current. ATTW's journal, The Technical Writing Teacher (soon to be Technical Communication Quarterly) includes teaching-related articles and results of research in the field. It is an excellent source of ideas for the classroom. Other important journals are the Journal of Technical Writing and Communication, IEEE Transactions on Professional Communication, and the Journal of Business and Technical Communication.

In addition to the journals, proceedings from the CPTSC and STC (International Technical Communication Conference, ITCC) annual conferences are valuable resources.

Works Cited


Media Ethics: Some Specific Problems

by Stephen S. Gottlieb

The decade of the 1970s gave rise to a reinvigorated press. Such scandals as Watergate and the Pentagon Papers case renewed the spirit of "investigative journalism," and created in many young people a desire to pursue careers as reporters.

In the 1980s, incidents occurred and new technologies appeared which together raised questions about the ethical values of American journalists. This digest seeks to identify some of those ethical issues and to point to the work of those who have studied these issues.

Imaginary Addicts and a Televised Suicide

Washington Post reporter Janet Cooke received the 1981 Pulitzer Prize for her feature story, "Jimmy's World," the account of an eight-year old, tenement-bound heroin addict. Publication of the story set off widespread demands for the government to do more about the scourge of drugs in society. A few days after Cooke accepted the Pulitzer, it became evident that she had made up the story.

In detailing the events of the Janet Cooke incident, David L. Eason focuses on the pressures which may have led Cooke to concoct her report (Eason, 1986). Eason theorizes that Cooke, a young, black, female reporter, may have felt compelled to give the liberal, white, male editors of the Post exactly what they seemed to demand: stories portraying the horrors of ghetto life. In Eason's view, the editors would not have sent out one of their own (i.e., a male white reporter) into the urban slums to obtain details of life there. As such, the paper made itself overly dependent on material supplied by inexperienced reporters like Cooke.

Eason sees the end of the Cooke story as taking on mythical trappings. Established journalism, in the role of the defender of the faith, ultimately cast out the violator of its moral code. Cooke's ostracism from the profession was seen, at least by many within the established press, as a necessary step in the protection of the standards of truthfulness and accuracy in journalism.

One incident in which journalism could not so easily assume a mantle of purity was the suicide of Pennsylvania state treasurer R. Budd Dwyer. On January 22, 1987, Dwyer, who had been convicted of racketeering and mail fraud, called a news conference. As the TV cameras rolled and the reporters awaited the official's anticipated resignation announcement, Dwyer pulled out a revolver and ended his life. Some of Pennsylvania's television and radio stations broadcast only partial recordings of the event; one TV station ran the entire tape of the suicide. As Matviko (1988) points out, those media outlets that declined to carry the entire suicide took a somewhat holier-than-thou stance regarding the incident. The station that showed its viewers the shooting was defensive about its editorial decision. Interestingly, a survey of more than 800 viewers showed that members of the public were fairly evenly divided between those who supported the decision to carry the shooting in its entirety (46%) and those who opposed the choice (54%).

Media Ethics and the New Technologies

With the 1980s came new developments in the manner in which information was presented to the public. Photographic methods improved, enabling newspapers and magazines to show their readers images that reflected an "improved" vision of reality. But as is true of many new techniques and inventions, the advancements in photography raised ethical questions. Some of these issues were
addressed by Shiela Reaves in her article, “Digital Alteration of Photographs in Magazines: An Examination of the Ethics” (1989).

As Reaves explains, new computer processes permit editors to alter the content of photographic images. Colors can be controlled, and objects or people can be removed from or added to pictures. Furthermore, if the changes are made carefully, they are virtually undetectable. To confuse the issue, negatives can be manufactured from an altered image to create “proof” that the photograph represents reality. The ethical issue is obvious: how far can photo editors take the alteration process while still purporting to present to readers a genuine image?

Reaves asked twelve magazine editors about their publications’ practices with respect to computer enhancement of photographs. The editors unanimously claimed that they would refuse to apply the technique to news photographs. One respondent labeled such retouching “never...morally justifiable.”

While the editors decried tampering with news photographs, most of them saw no ethical difficulty in adjusting the backgrounds of cover photographs to fit headlines and so on. Some also saw nothing wrong with deleting stray objects from pictures.

Reaves found that non-news magazines freely adjust elements of photographs for the best possible presentation. For instance, a home decorating publication might delete an unattractive curtain from the window of an otherwise “picture-perfect” home. A food magazine might erase a cigarette butt from a plateful of the consummate holiday feast.

**Media Ethics and Codes of Conduct**

What happens when a reporter derives personal gain or allows others to achieve such gain from his inside information about his organization’s publication plans? Stories in the prestigious *Wall Street Journal* have frequently helped determine the success or failure of a business venture. During the 1980s, a *Journal* reporter was found to have contributed to insider trading by passing tips along as to when his paper would carry stories about firms. This event was mentioned in an especially thought-provoking article by Robert E. Drechsel entitled “The Legal Risks of Social Responsibility” (1987). Drechsel suggests that in such cases as the *Journal* incident, the existence of an internal policy or code of ethics could backfire on a news organization. In Drechsel’s view, a party alleging that a news organization has committed libel (or in the insider trading case, a government prosecutor alleging that a reporter has practiced insider trading) can point to the code of ethics as a standard of care for the organization. For example, if a newspaper’s policy required double confirmation of facts, a person alleging that a story was printed in disregard of its truth or falsity could point to the lack of a second confirmation as “proof” of such disregard.

Drechsel identifies other risks inherent in ethical codes. If there were an industry-wide code to which most medium- and large-market radio news operations adhered, a small-market station might find it difficult or impossible to meet the standards set by the code. A city hall reporter in Boston might have no trouble in offering a public official the opportunity to deny an allegation of misconduct before the accusation is broadcast, if a code so required. However, a reporter in Smalltown, USA, who doubles as station engineer and afternoon announcer, facing time and resource constraints, could find it difficult or impossible to meet such a standard.

In “The Case against Mass Media Codes of Ethics,” Jay Black and Ralph Barney offer two major arguments against ethical codes for news reporting (1985). First, such standards are inconsistent with the notion of an unregulated press as envisioned by the First Amendment. As the authors suggest, protection of a free press is but a facet of protection of everyone’s free expression. Each person best develops as an individual and a citizen if he or she is free to obtain whatever information may contribute to that growth. Governmental control of the media, or even self-imposed regulations to which all reporters must comply, limits the flow of such information.

Black and Barney’s second argument against ethical codes for the news profession emerges from the difference between what they label moral philosophy and mere “moralizing.” The authors suggest that a genuine moral philosophy evolves within the reporter as that person gains experience. On the other hand, codes merely advise as to the industry’s view of what is appropriate behavior. The codes remove the need for reporters to become what Black and Barney refer to as “professional philosophers” who are capable of making their own decisions about what is right and wrong.

If codes of ethics are ineffective means of securing good journalistic practices, what would work better? John C. Merrill offers one answer in the title of his essay, “Good Reporting Can Be a Solution to Ethics Problem” (1987). Merrill would set the standard of ethical journalism at simply expecting the reporter to write a good story. As he sees it, expecting the journalist to expound upon the ramifications of an event is empty moralizing. Merrill would also call upon reporters to abandon the claim of objectivity (an obviously unobtainable goal) for an admit-
Media Ethics: Some Specific Problems

ted subjectivity which the reporters constantly work
to overcome.

Journalists themselves accept Merrill's view that
objectivity equals ethicality, but they see objectivity
as a reasonable goal. When Merrill asked 50 report-
ers and 50 journalism educators whether an accu-
rate story is an ethical story (Merrill, 1985), 64% of
the reporters agreed. Conversely, only about half as
many of the educators took the same position. Al-
most all of the journalists had faith in the possibility
of objective journalism, while almost all of the edu-
cators negated that possibility.

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How to “Read” Television: Teaching Students to View TV Critically

by Nola Kortner Aiex

In light of the current explosion of mass media products and technology, most education practitioners would probably agree about the urgent need for students to develop critical viewing abilities along with critical thinking abilities.

At the close of UNESCO’s 1982 International Symposium on Media Education, the representatives of the 19 countries in attendance issued a unanimous declaration that called upon competent authorities to “initiate and support comprehensive media education programs—from preschool to university level, and in adult education—the purpose of which is to develop the knowledge, skills, and attitudes which will encourage the growth of critical awareness and, consequently, of greater competence among the users of electronic and print media. Ideally, such programs should include the analysis of media products, the use of media as means of creative expression, and effective use of and participation in available media channels. Training courses should be developed for teachers and intermediaries both to increase their knowledge and understanding of the media and train them in appropriate teaching methods.” [Dwyer and Walshe, ED 250 651]

Although there is some evidence that media literacy programs are well underway in classrooms in many countries around the world, such as France, Switzerland, West Germany, England, and the Scandinavian countries [Gambiez, ED 243 408], as well as Australia [Dwyer and Walshe, ED 250 651], curricula in American schools still give little consideration to any systematic study of the ubiquitous mass media.

Media Study in High School

Sneed [ED 307 654] argues that the best time and place for students to begin a serious study of the media is in the high school social sciences curricula. English/Language Arts high school teachers surveyed by Koziol [ED 309 493] also felt that mass media education was better suited to a social studies department. In adolescence, young people become acutely aware of the vast and sometimes confusing array of mass media that permeate their lives.

For example, a recent study on the effects of television tested attitudes of students in grades 6-10 and found that older students were more balanced in their assessments of the influences of the medium, both positive and negative, than were their younger counterparts. These findings suggest that audiences in general, and young people in particular, are far more involved and mentally active when watching TV than has been previously thought. [Krendl and Lasky, ED 287 181] It follows that the public needs to develop skills that can help them better interpret and analyze a variety of video messages. Formal study of the media in high school will also make for better informed citizens. People must become critical viewers, particularly of television—“both the most powerful communication medium ever developed, and the most effective medium for reaching a great number of people simultaneously.” [Metallinos, ED 312 675]

Critical Viewing Concepts

Sneed [ED 307 654] believes that the key component to media literacy is understanding the symbols, information, ideas, values, and messages that emanate from the media. O’Reilly and Splaine [ED 289 796] enumerate a number of basic critical view-
ing concepts which apply to all visual media, and especially TV: (1) the direction of the camera will affect how a particular scene is perceived; (2) a director can choose a camera position to impart almost any desired message; (3) even though the event is "live," the director can still "edit" the event by selecting which camera will portray the event; and (4) after an event, the editor can juxtapose a series of images to convey virtually any desired message. In addition, most TV screens are small and provide an ill-defined image, a technical limitation which directly affects the content and methodology of the medium.

**Models for Critical Viewing**

Specific models for critical viewing of television have also been developed by O'Reilly and Splaine. Viewers should first ask themselves when watching television: what is this program's point of view, what inferences can be drawn from the program, what persuasive techniques are used, and what evidence is used to support the program's argument? After this initial questioning, separate models can be used for viewing news programs, political advertisements or debates, interviews, entertainment programs, sports, or commercials.

For example, the entertainment analysis model, VIPE, asks: V—What values does the program convey? I—Did the program involve the viewer? P—What point is the program making? E—What are the emotional appeals? A similar analysis model for commercials is called MAIL. MAIL asks: M—What was the main point of the commercial? A—What appeals did the advertiser use? I—What images were used to impart the advertiser's message? L—Will the commercial have a long-term effect on the viewers? [O'Reilly and Splaine, ED 289 796] O'Reilly and Splaine also caution viewers to remember that commercial TV networks are profit-making businesses, that television thrives on simplicity and avoids complexity in program content, that the omnipresence of television makes most viewers more susceptible to its messages, and that commercial TV programs are generally aimed at the lowest common denominator.

**Suggestions for Class Activities**

A companion teacher's guide [O'Reilly and Splaine, ED 289 797] to "Critical Viewing: Stimulant to Critical Thinking" offers suggestions for in-class activities as well as longer-term projects and research papers that will interest students at the high school level. Dwyer and Walshe's guide, "Learning to Read the Media" [ED 250 651], developed for elementary school level students in Australia, can be adapted for almost any academic level. This teacher's guide presents over 100 classroom activity units to bring purpose and critical interactions to young persons' encounters with the mass media.

Ploghoft [ED 291 636] provides guidelines and techniques for focusing on TV news programming to help prepare students for their roles as citizens by developing the ability to distinguish between objective and subjective reporting. Among the goals of the suggested activities are for students to be able to (1) distinguish between local, national and international news; (2) analyze the TV news program as to the priorities given to news items; (3) compare and contrast the nightly newscasts of the three networks for the content, selection, and emphasis of the day's news; (4) establish their own criteria for local, state, national, and international news and to analyze the TV news using these criteria; (5) compare the TV news to newspapers and news magazines in terms of content, depth, emphasis, and objectivity; and (6) become aware of the process of news gathering on a local, state, national, and international level.

**Implications for the Future**

Mass media technology is shaping young people's lives far more than print, and for the traditional public school system to avoid withering, it must take an active role in helping students interpret television imagery. Contrary to some claims, the significance of imagery as an intellectual tool for understanding concepts and processes will not reduce the importance of print in a literacy intensive future environment. Both forms of reading will take on even greater importance, both in the "real" world and the educational world. Print, however, will no longer be considered sacred, and pictures will acquire a newfound respectability. The result will be a more active and rigorous process of teaching and learning. [Adams, ED 260 371]

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Using Film, Video, and TV in the Classroom

by Nola Kortner Aiex

Teachers have long used the media—and particularly film—to accomplish various instructional objectives such as building background for particular topics or motivating student reaction and analysis. The appeal of visual media continues to make film, video, and television educational tools with high potential impact; and they are now considerably more accessible and less cumbersome to use. The use of film in the classroom has become more popular since the arrival of the videocassette recorder (VCR) with its relative economy and ease of operation. The opinion of one teacher probably echoes the opinion of many others: “The VCR gave us flexibility. We could watch the first exciting twenty minutes, stop the tape and discuss elements of introduction, mood, suspense, and characterization and view it again....The VCR is simple to operate, portable, and less expensive.” (Farmer, 1987) Another educator who has considered the potential of the VCR believes that “one of the pedagogical tasks of the next decade may well be discovering the most efficacious ways of employing this omnipresent piece of technology.” (Gallagher, 1987) Another teacher pinpoints a reason for the potential: “Because students live in a media-oriented world, they consider sight and sound as ‘user friendly.”’ (Post, 1987)

The Potential Applications Are Wide-ranging

Even before the advent of the VCR, the “introduction to film course” had become a staple in most American universities (Lovell, 1987). What has become apparent over the years is that film can be used as an adjunct to almost any discipline, especially the language arts. And it can be particularly effective in teaching different kinds of learners. Lovell notes that in addition to encouraging the use and development of communication skills, film can be used to establish a social context for English as a second language and to provide visual “texts” for deaf students.

Post (1987) argues that videotapes of literary classics can become powerful allies of the teacher in the English classroom if used effectively. She adds that films allow the teaching of longer works that might otherwise be omitted or of controversial works that might be excluded from the curriculum. The example she gives is of Tennessee Williams’s “Cat on a Hot Tin Roof.” Although it is definitely an adult film, its screenplay contains none of the potentially objectionable material or language that appears in the original play.

Film Can Link Disciplinary Perspectives

Film can also be used in interdisciplinary studies. Krukones and several colleagues (1986) designed an interdisciplinary college-level course integrating political science, literature, and film to examine politics on the local, state, national, and international levels. Based on the premise that students too often sort information into categories dictated by the different courses they take, the authors developed the course to enable students to get from theoretical politics a clearer, practical meaning with broader implications. Such concepts are not easy for all students to grasp, but can be more affectively experienced when studied in the context of a political novel or movie.

In Krukones’s course, four novels and their analogous films correspond to particular political spheres: “The Last Hurrah” (local), “All the King’s Men” (state), “Advising and Consent” (national), and “Fail-Safe” (international). Following an overview of a novel or film, specific scenes and passages are discussed and are related to real-world politics. Classes meet for 2 1/2 hours once a week, so that...
more than one discipline can be dealt with and sufficient time for movie viewing is available.

Films Can Serve Very Specific Courses and Units

The range of courses in which film can play a major instructional role is wide. For example, White (1985) reported on the effective use of film in a college-level course called "Women and Violence in Literature and Film"; Dyer (1987) developed a secondary-level mini-course on "Rural America in Film and Literature."

Dyer's course encompasses nearly all the mass media forms. It begins with readings of several classic short stories with rural settings by Willa Cather and John Steinbeck. It proceeds by examining articles from the newspaper about farm issues and incidents, and then it has the students view the recent movies, "Country" and "The River," both of which portray contemporary life on a farm. Next the students view a 27-minute television documentary about three women farmers in Minnesota; and then the course continues with the study of the recent best-selling novels, "The Beans of Egypt" and "In Country." It concludes by having the students listen to several segments of "Lake Wobegon Days."

Rebhorn (1987) also uses Hollywood movies to enliven and enrich history classes, with the conviction that film brings an immediacy and interest to historical events that students often consider dull because they occurred long ago and faraway. Some of the films which she uses are "Inherit the Wind," "The Grapes of Wrath," "All the President's Men," and "Reds."

Another example of more focused use of film and television in the classroom is found in a course on the Holocaust (Michalczyk, 1982). A review of Holocaust films yielded material in various popular genres—newsreels (both German and Allied), documentaries, fiction films, and TV docudramas; the value of the particular type of media in teaching about the recent past was considered along with the content of each piece. Michalczyk had Holocaust survivors and educators evaluate the diverse films and their potential for teaching the Holocaust as an historical event with profound implications for humanity; and their reactions and experiences were incorporated into the course material.

Films Can Target and Motivate Writing

Boyd and Robitaille (1987) offer suggestions for using the popular mass media to generate topics for a composition workshop designed for the college writer but adaptable for secondary school students. They concentrate on advertising images but also use movies, monthly magazines, and television series to help foster critical thinking while writing. The workshop is built around a sequence of analogies between what students already know experientially as viewers of film and television and what they need to know as writers of essays. Another approach to teaching college composition classes (Masiello, 1985) organizes brainstorming sessions around themes from popular movies—for example, talking about family relationships as portrayed in "Breaking Away," "The Deer Hunter," "The Godfather," "Saturday Night Fever," and "Terms of Endearment." He finds that the film viewing helps students learn to observe carefully and often results in sharper writing skills.

Moss (1987) uses the lowly, elemental daytime soap opera as a vehicle for teaching remedial writing in the SEEK program in New York City colleges. Using a VCR so that everyone can watch the episode at the same time (and filling in gaps in plot lines by reading "Soap Opera Digest"), he begins by asking the students to write on the most elementary level. The assignment is intended to tap into their passionate devotion to "the soaps"—which characters do they like the best, the least, and why? Then the class members discuss the acting and begin to impose certain critical criteria on the material. A short lesson on genres establishes appropriate aesthetic categories, and the students can begin to dissect the narrative in a composition.

Jeremiah (1987) outlines an instructional model for using television news and documentaries for writing instruction in the secondary and postsecondary classroom. He believes that the structure and content of news presentations mirrors the practice of essay writing, and thus can serve as a writing project that effectively serves instruction. A step-by-step examination of a selected TV program can be undertaken in a single class period, using the following strategies: 1) as a warm-up mechanism, the teacher introduces the writing skill (for example, to provide information or to persuade); 2) students are allowed time for questions and comments; 3) the news segment or documentary is shown; 4) students produce an outline for the news report they will write in response to the stimulus; and 5) the outlines are assessed for organization. The outlines are collected at the end of the class period to minimize any external influences; and the students produce a full-length essay during the next class period, after their outlines have been returned.

The instruction using this model and the evaluation of the products that result should stress that the news treatment of a topic should include an intro-
roduction and adequate supporting detail and explanation. If the aim is to persuade, the writing should include adequate argumentation. Both formal and informal mechanisms should be used for evaluation, and the students should be given opportunity to revise.

A novel approach in the use of film in generating enthusiasm for writing in the elementary grades is advocated by a librarian who sponsored a writing contest in which 1,100 students participated (Simpson, 1982). She began by showing the classic short French film without dialogue, “The Red Balloon.” Students viewed the film and were allowed two weeks to complete entries that included poems, short stories, or essays expressing any themes or experiences connected with the movie. Entries were judged on the qualities of appeal and originality, and all the participants received certificates on Honors Day. The winners additionally received ribbons on their certificates.

The mass media are an integral part of the environment in which today’s students learn to read, write, listen, speak, and make meaning of their lives. Thus a properly designed course of instruction can use media to channel a student’s enthusiasm and route it to an academically useful goal. The documents cited here are but a small sample of those in the ERIC database illustrating how teachers can do that.

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Using Newspapers as Effective Teaching Tools

by Nola Kortner Alex

Use of the mass media as a teaching instrument in the classroom has increased considerably at all grade levels in the past few years. The Journal of Reading carries a regular series—"Use the News"—on integrating the reading of newspapers into classroom activities. The newspaper is the most widely used of the media, a direct result of a national campaign by publishers, known as "Newspapers in Education" (NIE). This initiative encourages the use of newspapers as an educational tool both to complement and supplement traditional classroom texts and resource materials (Newton, 1985). "The Newspaper as an Effective Teaching Tool" (1981) explains the intent of the program and provides a variety of classroom activities using newspapers.

At the present time, about 600 newspapers in the United States and Canada participate in the NIE program, which involves approximately three million students, 90,000 teachers, and 16,000 schools each year.

Before the advent of NIE, newspapers tended to be used only by secondary school social studies teachers in two-week units or for Friday current events sessions. Now, however, newspapers are used throughout the school year in every area of the curriculum (Kossack, 1987).

The success of this broad initiative is evident in programs such as "Newspapers Are for Kids, Too!", which was designed for young children and their parents. It contains creative ideas to help children improve reading, writing, social studies, math, and science skills. It can easily be modified for classroom use in the elementary grades (Hermann, 1981).

Teaching Comprehension, Awareness, and Skills

Rhoades and Rhoades (1985) provide ways teachers can use newspapers to teach comprehension and critical thinking and to help students develop sensitivity and awareness of the self, the community, the nation, and the world.

Hamrick (1981) designed a 60-page activity booklet that is organized by sections of the newspaper and can be adapted to most grade levels. It can be used to teach basic skills in a variety of subject areas, including language arts, reading, mathematics, social studies, and science. The activity sheets allow students to use the different newspaper sections to locate, categorize, and sequence details, and to distinguish fact from opinion. The activity sheet also helps the students to locate main ideas, to form sentences, to find facts, to practice critical thinking skills, to solve math problems, to write creatively, and to comprehend better.

Other teachers have developed classroom materials using the newspaper for more specialized instructional purposes. For example, Yeaton and Braeckel (1986) created a series of model lessons for grades 4-6 that demonstrate the use of the newspaper to study the United States Constitution and the Bill of Rights. First, the lessons contain step-by-step procedures and sample questions to show how each specific part of the newspaper can be used in a lesson. Then, sample lessons take children on a journey back to the historical time when the Constitution was written. Numerous interesting, practical activities are suggested within the lesson plans.

Teaching Legal Awareness and Citizenship

Another specialized newspaper-based course was developed by Diamond and Riekes (1981) for students in grades 10-12. This course employs the newspaper as a foundation for law-related courses.
Model lessons are delineated for each part of the newspaper, as well as in five law-related areas: criminal law, consumer law, family law, housing law, and individual rights law. A sample lesson in the Diamond and Riekes course deals with developing critical thinking skills by resolving problems described in newspaper columns—a "Dear Abby" column, in one case. After each student has read the column in question, the teacher divides the class into groups, and each group discusses the problem and determines some resolution following a decision-making procedure previously outlined in the class. After each group presents the reasons for its decision to the entire class, a general discussion is held on the problem and a variety of possible solutions are considered.

Another lesson revolves around the concept of juvenile law. Following a discussion of what juvenile law is and why there are separate laws for juveniles, the students read a letter to the editor dealing with a serious crime committed by a juvenile. The students decide whether they agree with the writer’s position, debate the question of whether juveniles should be treated as adults in the court system, and make a chart showing the advantages and disadvantages of holding juveniles responsible for the crimes they commit.

Schwartz and Bromberg (1984) have devised a newspaper course for older students that helps prepare them for effective citizenship in an interdependent world, providing instruction in global concepts such as economic interdependence, the migrations of people, environmental independence, cultural diffusion, the communication revolution, and cultural diversity. The emphasis of the course is on reading, writing, and reasoning ability; and it requires students to classify and organize materials, to identify cause and effect, and to make judgments using sound reasoning.

**Developing Critical Consumers**

A course intended for intermediate and junior high school students (Greenup, 1983) presents 11 lessons using newspaper materials to teach consumer education. The practical classroom activities help students 1) define consumer education terms and distinguish between wants and needs; 2) explain why laws are necessary for consumer and seller protection and understand the concept of consumer responsibility; 3) define consumer-related terms; 4) create a classroom newsletter to reflect consumer knowledge; 5) recognize and explain different advertising appeals; and 6) explain the intent of the Pure Food and Drug Act and the work of the Federal Trade Commission.

A series of instructional ideas developed by Dianna (1983) also focus on teaching intermediate and junior high students to respond critically to advertising. An outline defines 16 advertising techniques (including eye appeal, youth appeal, snob appeal, celebrity endorsement, and expert endorsement); and a list of activities which help students realize the effects of advertising, create their own ads, and evaluate television and radio commercials as well as those in print.

**Making Reading Real for Adult Learners and Learning Disabled Students**

Newspapers can also prove to be a valuable tool for teachers who work with adult education students. Fenholt (1985) provides a series of activities that use the newspaper as a learning resource to develop both reading and life skills. Her contention is that regular elementary school reading materials fail to motivate readers at the adult level and are also embarrassing for adults to use. Fenholt’s activities booklet is aimed at adults who want to read on an intermediate level and pass the graduate equivalency diploma (GED) test.

The practical activities include those designed to promote an understanding of coupons, want ads, news stories, and maps and those designed to build vocabulary. One exercise called "Decode the Ads" deals with deciphering abbreviations commonly used in classified advertisements. A unit on news stories uses questioning techniques to elicit information on what happens in the story. An exercise that uses weather maps asks the student to begin by putting a mark on the general location in which he or she lives. It then asks the student to find newspaper stories about local, state, national, and international news.

Fenholt’s activities booklet is aimed at adults who want to read on an intermediate level and pass the graduate equivalency diploma (GED) test.

Hunter and McNearney (1988) have designed a series of twelve lessons which use the newspaper in an adult basic education curriculum. Each lesson focuses on a particular letter of the alphabet and furnishes a list of vocabulary needed for the lesson, extensive hints on how to teach it, and suggested activities.

Chandler (1988) reports that individual newspapers have also developed their own programs for adult literacy. The Tulsa World, for example, has introduced a program called "Read Up," which combines use of the daily newspaper with a telephone hotline to provide tutoring help for adult illiterates. A group of prison inmates served as a test group for this program. The inmates were tested for reading ability before beginning the twelve-week program and again at its conclusion. Results indicated substantial gains in vocabulary, comprehen-
Using Newspapers as Effective Teaching Tools

Among other groups that can benefit from using the newspaper in the classroom are learning disabled (LD) students. Like adult education students, they often "experience frustration and failure with traditional approaches to content area instruction" (Monda, et al., 1988). Monda asserts that the newspaper can be helpful for the LD teacher who wants to create an individualized instructional program, since it appeals to students who are not easily motivated. She advocates using teaching strategies that target specific learning skills in reading or language arts, and even in mathematics.

Some of Monda's suggestions include: 1) using words in grocery ads, sports sections, or comics to teach alphabetizing; 2) using news stories to teach grammar; 3) having students make charts or collages of words dealing with the five senses; 4) asking students to select a picture or photograph and to write their own stories; 5) having students make a timeline for current events; 6) having students write their own classified ads; 7) discussing the key elements of a book or movie review; and 8) asking students to design their own newspaper to report events happening in class or in school.

This sampling of the ERIC database indicates that in the development of readers at all levels, the newspaper can be a versatile tool. Certainly its currency and its availability outside the classroom make it valid and "real" material to use in developing one's ability to read.

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The Supreme Court on Hazelwood: A Reversal on Regulation of Student Expression

by Thomas Eveslage

Both judges and school officials have been thinking about and dealing with the nature of students' rights to free speech through the 1970s and 1980s, since Tinker v. Des Moines Independent School Dist., the 1969 landmark U.S. Supreme Court decision that acknowledged student rights. Stating that students do not "shed their constitutional rights...at the schoolhouse gate" (393 U.S. at 506), the Court upheld the right of three Des Moines high school students to wear black armbands as a peaceful symbol of opposition to the Vietnam war.

Tinker effectively brought the rights of students and those of other citizens closer together and placed on public school officials who deny students' rights burdens similar to those imposed on other government officials. The Court's ruling and reasoning subsequently were applied to student expression other than the wearing of armbands, from theater productions to art shows, from school assemblies to student publications.

Freedom of the student press was faithfully chronicled as it unfolded in the 1970s. The Supreme Court, balancing students' constitutional freedoms and administrators' traditional responsibilities, said in Tinker that school officials could not stop expression simply because they disliked it. Robert Trager's seminal work, Student Press Rights (1974), shows how lower courts built on this foundation.

The philosophy and reasoning of earlier court decisions were refined but not revised in decisions into the 1980s. Trager (1976) reported that the courts repeatedly overruled administrative efforts to use unconstitutionally vague regulations to censor student publications. Ingelhart (1986) identified 25 cases heard in federal court between 1969 and 1984 involving high school journalists. An overwhelming majority favored the students.

Despite such court support and increasing public awareness, the student press was far from free. Captive Voices (Nelson, 1974) characterized it as heavily self-censored, and Kristof (1983) noted that more than 80 percent of student editors surveyed in 1981 reported overt or self-censorship.

Meanwhile, the mood was shifting. As early as 1981, Overbeck observed that "it seems likely that the pendulum will continue to swing away from student freedom and toward administrative authority....[T]he courts seem prepared to give school officials an increasingly free hand to control the content of student publications." (p. 18) In 1987, a record 623 requests for legal advice flooded the Student Press Law Center in Washington, D.C.

The Court Changes Direction

Student journalists' efforts to gain press freedom experienced a major setback on January 13, 1988, when the U.S. Supreme Court ruled in Hazelwood School Dist. v. Kuhlmeier that school administrators could censor a school-sponsored newspaper. Just as Tinker had started an era of expanded student rights, so Hazelwood signals a departure that could lead toward more restriction of students' expression.

Day and Butler (1988) believe that the Supreme Court's Hazelwood ruling appropriately balances student journalists' constitutional rights and the pedagogical mission of public schools. Referring to education's historic role of "cultural transmission," they argue that school administrators must have the power to regulate behavior and preserve traditional rules and values. Furthermore, they believe that,
"[s]ince the school is the 'publisher' of the paper, the principal must exercise some content control."

The Hazelwood principal believed that the stories he censored—accounts of unnamed, pregnant students and a report on the impact of parental divorce on students—were unfair and inappropriate for teenagers. He was concerned that the "anonymous" students could be identified, that the school would appear to be condoning teenage pregnancy, and that divorced parents criticized should be consulted prior to publication.

**How Surprising was the Reversal?**

The Supreme Court did foreshadow its 1988 Hazelwood ruling. In 1985 it gave school officials broad discretion to search students and their belongings (New Jersey v. T.L.O.), and the next year it upheld the suspension of a student whose speech before a school assembly was considered inappropriately vulgar (Bethel v. Fraser). Neither case focused on student rights; both stressed administrators' rights.

But the same July day that the Supreme Court decided Bethel, the 8th Circuit Court of Appeals ruled in Hazelwood (prior to its reaching the Supreme Court) that the principal unconstitutionally censored the stories written by Journalism II students for the newspaper. The circuit court's ruling was predictable and consistent with precedent. It cited two free speech safeguards which also are highlighted in a Student Press Law Center book (1985) assessing the then-current parameters of student press rights: 1) publications that operate as forums for student expression cannot be censored merely because of dissatisfaction with the message; and 2) censorship based on substantial disruption of the educational process requires evidence of such disruption.

The Supreme Court surprised many when it agreed to hear the Hazelwood case. It had ignored its "substantial disruption" standard one year earlier in Bethel and had never ruled on the question of student newspapers as public forums. Many hoped that the Hazelwood decision would clarify those matters and resolve questions about fiscal and legal liability and the distinction between class-related and extra-curricular expression.

The real surprise came on January 13. Mark Goodman, Director of the Student Press Law Center, called the Hazelwood decision a "dramatic contrast to the decision of courts across the country over the last 15 years." (1988) Most important, from a legal perspective, is the virtual abandonment of Tinker and its progeny. After Hazelwood, students retain First Amendment rights in the schools, but the Tinker standard (especially the "substantial disruption" justification) applies only to non-school-sponsored speech—personal expression that happens to occur on the school premises. Most other student expression is subject to a new standard the Court fashioned with sweeping language and broad implications (Eveslage, 1988).

Instead of ruling narrowly on student newspapers, the Court in Hazelwood gave discretion to school officials to:

1. Serve as publisher. (The Court equated publisher with editor-in-chief, but ignored the implied fiscal and legal liability that comes when one exercises such control.)

2. Censor, if there is a "reasonable" educational justification, any expression that does not properly reflect the school's educational mission. The Court called it reasonable to censor a newspaper story that school officials believe is not "fair," expression that deals with "sensitive topics," and content that is "ungrammatical, poorly written, inadequately researched, biased or prejudiced, vulgar or profane, or unsuitable for immature audiences."

3. Use this power to control expression through any school-sponsored activity. Legal distinctions between class-produced and extra-curricular publications disappeared. Theater Production (Faaborg, 1985), art shows, debates and pep rallies are just some of the school-sponsored activities now under tighter control. However, underground publications produced without teacher assistance remain subject only to the Tinker standard.

4. Review student expression in advance, even when no guidelines define what will or will not be censored.

Most perplexing for student journalists is the Court's definition of public forum. It was not enough that the Hazelwood East newspaper, through its own policy and practice, was identified as a public forum. It is up to school officials to designate it as such. Upon doing so, school officials must apply the Tinker standard to any regulation of the newspaper's contents.

**Some Questions Remain Unanswered**

Several questions remain after Hazelwood. Abrams and Goodman (1988) raise significant concerns regarding the public forum concept, the parameters of school sponsorship, and fiscal liability and authority. They persuasively conclude that Hazelwood does not apply to the college press, but the Supreme Court refused to dismiss that possibil-
The Supreme Court on Hazelwood: A Reversal on Regulation of Student Expression

ity. And what Adams (1983) called "the adviser's dilemma" remains a problem, as advisers face pressure to exert more control over publications.

Free speech proponents can only hope for legal relief. Future litigation may cause lower courts to limit or refine the Supreme Court's broad language delineating student rights. Until then, student journalists can seek help by:

1. Using Justice Brennan's dissent in Hazelwood and other philosophical arguments for a free student press (Trager and Eveslage, 1985; Ingelhart, 1986; Student Press Law Center, 1985) to negotiate a supportive school policy;

2. Encouraging adoption of a journalism curriculum that stresses the importance of freedom of the press as well as the appointment of an adviser able to establish appropriate publication policies;

3. Finding support systems both within and outside the school (Student Press Law Center, 1985; Goodman, 1988; Trager and Eveslage, 1985); and

4. Joining the efforts of school boards to establish new policies and of states to enact post-Hazelwood legislation—such as the Massachusetts law dated July 14, 1988, and a similar law in California, which protect students' free speech rights.

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Communicating within Organizational Cultures

by Nola Kortner Aix

Before the present decade, the systems metaphor guided organizational communication research. But for the past several years, many management and organizational communication scholars have explored another guiding metaphor—organizational culture (Pacanowsky and O'Donnell-Trujillo, 1982).

Explication of the Metaphor

Organizational culture has been defined as "a system of shared values (what is important) and beliefs (how things work) that interact with a company's people, organizational structures, and control systems to produce behavioral norms (the way things are done around here)." This anthropological perspective probably owes its existence to the acceptance and wide dissemination of the ideas of the cultural anthropologist Clifford Geertz, but Kendall (1986) traces the emergence of the organizational culture metaphor directly to the setbacks experienced by American industry in the face of Japanese competition. Scores of books and articles have suggested that the phenomenal Japanese success can be attributed to the strong organizational cultures found in Japanese industry.

The Japanese corporate model may have provided the concepts involved in organizational culture: ideology, beliefs, rituals, myths, symbols. In support of this assertion, Kendall cites an article by William Starbuck which claims that "when number crunching has failed to solve organizational crises, theorists have turned to ideology." In any case, mass market business books by John Naisbitt, Terrence Deal and Allen Kennedy, and Tom Peters have explored the idea of organizational culture with great success in recent years.

Deal and Kennedy (1982) identified four key attributes of organizational cultures: values, the philosophies and beliefs shared by members of the organization; heroes, those who articulate the organization's values as a vision of the organization's role and future; rituals and rites, activities through which organizational beliefs are celebrated and reinforced; and communication network, the informal interaction among members of an organization that can reinforce, elaborate on, and realistically clarify and/or qualify the impact of values, heroes, and rituals.

Ethical Implications of the Metaphor

A critical approach to the use and abuse of power in corporations frequently calls for broader cultural perspectives and has led many to endorse ethical commitments regarding corporate social responsibility. According to Peppers (1988), a freemarket economy undisciplined by a common set of ethical standards can easily become an economy of greed. He considers that it is every business leader's responsibility to himself, to his company, and to society to insure that his management people at least think about the ethics of their business activities from time to time.

The modern model of a socially responsible corporate organization is a proactive one, and corporate communicators are now concerned with articulating the ethical framework of an organization (Toth and Trujillo, 1987). Although professional associations usually develop codes of ethics, teaching ethics—an ancient discipline—in schools, as Peppers proposes, can be focused on almost any level. Thomas (1985) recommends beginning with the study of literary, political, and philosophical materials.

Greenberg (1986) proposes incorporating a unit on communication ethics in an introductory college speech course, while Halpern (1987) has developed a college-level course on raising ethical issues in
Diverse Applications of the Metaphor

In scholarly research, the culture concept has been used for naturalistic examinations of such diverse subjects as an automobile dealership (Valentine et al., 1985), AT&T (Kendall, 1986), a sales team at a media representation firm (Leontiou, 1987), an urban hospital (Heller and Freeman, 1987), and Disneyland (Smith and Eisenberg, 1987).

Smith and Eisenberg’s article on Disneyland centers on conflict and dissent as elements present in most bureaucratic organizations. In their view, alternative interpretations of culture are always available: individuals enter organizations with pre-existing frameworks for thinking about work, and successful organizations find ways of coping with their members’ multiple goals and interpretations. However, it is not difficult to see that for a neophyte, only a period of time spent actually working in an organization will yield knowledge about its mores and institutional history, as well as the behavior expected of its employees.

The Role of Language and Communication

Organizational culture is inextricably interwoven with speech communication, but organizational communication entails more than just speech communication. A recent opinion survey of 590 professional communicators, Patterson (1988) found that these professionals rated writing and the ability to define corporate and communications objectives as their most important concerns.

Toth and Trujillo’s (1987) research supports the results of Patterson’s study. They suggest that corporate communication has become a multifaceted process that connects the organization with a variety of publics—internal and external. These publics include shareholders, corporate boards of directors, customers, regulators and legislators, employees, media, and the general community. The two researchers believe that a unified set of concepts from public relations, organizational communication, and management research can help the public better understand the changing (and more complex) role of corporate communications. The concepts which they pinpoint as critical to an understanding of corporate communications are language, structure, roles, technology, power, and social responsibility.

Technical writing is an increasingly important type of corporate communication and one in which corporate culture clearly intersects with the classroom. Each organization speaks its own language and exhibits a unique personality. Because an organization’s product manuals, public relations pronouncements, and correspondence all contribute to the corporate voice, writers new to an organization need to be aware of their role in establishing corporate culture as well as their obligation to adjust the tone of their writing to the culture as it exists. Teachers of organizational writing can help students by making them explicitly aware of a general need to adapt writing to the environment (Ravlin, 1988).

Implications for Instruction

Redding (1985) adopts a critical approach to the study of organizational culture and is another of the few people to suggest ways in which college speech communication teachers can prepare students to cope with the organizational world. Redding first articulates some of the traditional purposes of speech communication courses: 1) to teach techniques calculated to make a speaker more “successful” in gaining understanding or acceptance from an audience and 2) to help would-be employees learn how to get along (primarily a matter of communicating) with their future superiors. He adds that “the world into which we are sending our students is almost always an organizational, bureaucratic world ... and the most basic fact of life in the typical bureaucratic organization is hierarchy.”

Redding argues that college speech communication teachers should be consciousnessraisers, with a duty to expose students to the total spectrum of the real organizational world. He advocates class discussions and assignments based on the communication problems of dissenters, boat-rockers, and whistle-blowers, as well as role-playing exercises in which students have the opportunity to experiment with various communication strategies employed in the manager-dissenter interaction. Students should be encouraged to think seriously about the organizational cultures in which they will spend the rest of their lives. Speech communication teachers should also help their students practice other specific strategies for expressing dissent in an organization, such as gentle persuasion, oblique hints, recruiting allies for political maneuvering, and neutral presentation of “objective” information.

The manner in which organizations and the people who work within them use language is directly related to the concept of organizational culture, since language is the prime element with which values are articulated, heroes purport those values, most rites and ceremonies are conducted, and communications are transmitted and understood.
Communicating within Organizational Cultures

References


Patterson, Margaret Jones. "Designing a Master’s Program in Corporate Communication at an Urban University: A Case Study." Paper presented at the 71st Annual Meeting of the Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication, July 1988. [ED 295 244]


Introduction to FAST Bibs

Two types of citations are included in these bibliographies—citations to ERIC documents and citations to journal articles. The distinction between the two is important only if you are interested in obtaining the full text of any of these items. To obtain the full text of ERIC documents, you will need the ED number given in square brackets following the citation. For approximately 98% of the ERIC documents, the full text can be found in the ERIC microfiche collection. This collection is available in over 800 libraries across the country. Alternatively, you may prefer to order your own copy of the document from the ERIC Document Reproduction Service (EDRS). You can contact EDRS by writing to 7420 Fullerton Road, Suite 110, Springfield, VA 22153-2852, or by telephoning them at (800) 443-ERIC (3742) or (703) 440-1400. For those few ERIC documents which are not available by these means, information regarding their availability is provided in the square brackets.

Full text copies of journal articles are not available in the ERIC microfiche collection or through EDRS. Articles can be acquired most economically from library collections or through interlibrary loan. Articles from some journals are also available through University Microfilms International at (800) 732-0616 or through the Original Article Tearsheet Service of the Institute for Scientific Information at (800) 523-1850.
Creative Arts in the Classroom: Readers’ Theater, Drama, and Oral Interpretation

by Jerry Johns, Mary Ellen Sanders, and Sharon Weber

This bibliography focuses on the integration of the creative arts into the classroom. It is organized into three sections: Overview, Readers’ Theater, and Dramatic Production and Interpretation. The entries in these sections help teachers discover how the use of the creative arts can become a vital part of their curriculum. Because there was not consistency with the term “readers’ theater” (singular or plural and spelling of theater), the annotations reflect the authors’ usage.

Overview
Cowen, John E., Ed. Teaching Reading through the Arts, Newark, Del.: International Reading Association, 1983. 116p. [ED 226 339]

Explores ways of using the arts in humanizing reading instruction and developing lifetime readers. Offers many creative articles to help reading and classroom teachers provide their students with educational experiences that will not only help them master basic skills but also affect their capacity for aesthetic appreciation, growth, and sensitivity.


Suggests that there is considerable untapped potential for using drama as a teaching method in the English classroom, including improvisation; role-playing; readers’ theater; choral readings; and writing and producing radio programs, television screenplays, or documentaries. Stresses that the use of drama in the classroom helps the teacher to become a facilitator rather than an authority or the source of knowledge. Notes that drama techniques in the classroom can become a vital part of a teacher’s repertoire.


Includes annotations of library resource materials in the following areas: (1) “Identifying Titles for Reading Aloud”; (2) “Learning to Express Yourself: Puppetry, Reader’s Theater, Storytelling”; and (3) “Just for Fun: Literature Activities.”

Readers’ Theater

Suggests that reader’s theater has much to offer at all levels of student development. Defines principles of learning from educational psychology that need to be emphasized, including: meaningful experiences for students; provision for individual differences among students; and appropriate sequence in learning. Focuses on information which should be included in inservice education.


Suggests that oral interpretation facilitates the learning processes of adolescents by making the presentation of subject matter more interesting and meaningful to them, helping them feel involved, and providing them with an opportunity to perceive literature in action. Presents prose, poetry, and drama in a storytelling, choral reading, or readers’ theatre format as an exciting way to explore literature and to stimulate productive student endeavors.


Provides an annotated bibliography of sources that will help teachers select materials and structure activities in oral interpretation,
readers' theatre, improvisation, and creative speaking for the English classroom.


Clarifies the principles behind preparing a piece of literature for a Readers' Theatre production. Uses Sylvia Plath's autobiographical novel, The Bell Jar, as an example.


Suggests that while the availability of both oral and written historical narratives provides the Readers' Theater adapter with a rich opportunity to experiment with mixing oral and written narrative styles in documentary form, those who plan to use such mixing must consider the differences between oral and written narratives.


Advocates the use of readers' theater in the college reading classroom. Discusses the definition of readers' theater; its advantages and disadvantages; choices of materials and suggested materials; cutting and adaptation; classroom use; personal considerations; physical arrangement and movement; rehearsal; onstage and offstage focus; and group self-evaluation.


Provides an overview and several examples of the "readers' theatre" approach to teaching literature, which dramatizes literature to provide both a visual and an oral stimulus for those unaccustomed to using imagination to experience literary works.


Asserts that students' reading comprehension is enhanced by sharing personal text interpretations through social interaction in the reading classroom. Presents three lessons which encourage sharing and extending text comprehension by exploring text meaning through art; by developing a Readers' Theatre script; and by shifting question-asking responsibility to students.

Swanson, Charlene C. "Reading and Writing Readers' Theatre Scripts." Reading Around Series No. 1. Australian Reading Association, 1988. Sp. [ED 296 293]

Describes the processes involved in executing a readers' theatre. Outlines the procedures for implementing readers' theater in the classroom: (1) finding or writing scripts; (2) introducing and assigning parts; (3) rehearsing; (4) reassigning parts; (5) planning a performance; and (6) finally performing. Concludes that the major benefits of readers' theater are increased oral reading, a deeper and more meaningful understanding of the elements of story such as character and plot development, and exposure to new books.


Explains how from the beginning, readers theatre performances generally have been held in academic or theatrical settings and have relied heavily on literary scripts; whereas now, readers theatre performers are finding a wider range of audiences and materials for their use. Discusses how special audiences such as elementary and secondary schools, schools for the physically handicapped, prisons, retirement homes, churches, and recreational camps have prompted performers and teachers to look for new sources of materials and to develop their own without relying on traditional literature.

Dramatic Production and Interpretation


Provides a lesson plan based on W. W. Jacob's dramatic play, The Monkey's Paw, which is intended for middle school teachers interested in helping students learn how to read and see a play by themselves. Discusses the general instructional objectives that students should attain after having read, discussed, and interpreted a well-made and worthwhile play. Considers various strategies for teaching the play, including how much time to spend on background, reading the play as a script, and basic terms for dealing with the structure (plot). Concludes with
a list of eight different ways to evaluate the students’ success in learning about the play and with a brief coda that reiterates the purpose of the lesson plan and its usefulness for future studies of dramatic texts.


Encourages the use of storytelling in the classroom as a method for developing verbal, written, and reading skills, as well as nonverbal communication skills. Offers guidelines and specific activities for involving students in storytelling.

Karabas, Gertrude; Leinwein, Rochelle Teaching Literature Grade 9: Integrating the Communication Arts. Drama. Experimental. New York City Board of Education, Division of Curriculum and Instruction. 1985. 72p. [ED 290 154]

Demonstrates a variety of ways in which listening, speaking, reading, and writing activities can be built around the study of the drama in the ninth-grade classroom. Begins with an introduction to teaching drama. Discusses teaching drama as both literature and theater, and developing skills in play reading. Includes worksheets containing techniques for playreading and a checklist of questions for readers of plays; material on approaches to teaching drama and on using drama to teach reading skills; and a description of a resource unit on teaching the play, A Raisin in the Sun, by Lorraine Hansberry. Includes fourteen sample lessons centered around A Raisin in the Sun.


Discovers the lack of attention given to plays for young adults in most published booklists, and includes a list of recent works for junior and senior high readers.


Presents a lesson plan intended to foster playreading skills in high school students. Teaches essential ingredients of a play in a single class period which can be used verbatim or adapted as desired. Includes a phase for motivating student interest in reading plays, a discussion of the skills needed for reading a script, and a description of the nine parts of a stage.

Theater Arts; A Thematic Approach to Integrating the Communication Arts. High School PREP. New York City Board of Education. 1985. 130p. [ED 281 266]

Uses a theater arts thematic approach to demonstrate ways listening, speaking, and writing activities can be built around the study of works of literature. Presents activities and sample lessons to help students develop an awareness of the interrelationships between performance and the language arts. Consists mainly of sample lesson plans for the following: (1) preparatory activities, (2) unit based on a play, (3) mythology unit, (4) short story unit, and (5) unit based on a novel. Concludes with two appendixes, one providing definitions of readers’ theater and the other an annotated bibliography of sources on oral interpretation and readers’ theater.


Suggests that small high schools on a limited budget do not have to sacrifice a theater program. Explains how teacher/directors can use basic materials to develop an outstanding program based on units within the language arts curriculum, mini-courses, staged readings, or productions of original plays.
The importance of listening skills to the business world has greatly increased as corporations place more emphasis on good communication skills. This increased emphasis has occurred because of changes in corporate structure and philosophy, the high proportion of work time spent communicating, and the costs of ineffective communication in business. Listening instruction has been added to formal training programs being offered by several corporations, to the curriculum in elementary and secondary education, and to courses at the university level. The ERIC database provides a number of sources which may be used for listening instruction in Business English and Business Communication. The sources cited in the first section of this bibliography are primarily concerned with techniques and strategies for teachers of secondary and higher education business classes, although there are a few sources meant for students. References are also provided for teaching materials, skills assessment instruments, and learning modules. The second section presents citations of recent research on such topics as the current state of comprehension training in business courses, barriers to effective communication, and strategies used to improve listening skills in business communication settings.

Teaching Techniques and Strategies


Reviews the relative importance of listening, speaking, reading, and writing, and argues that the average adult does not listen efficiently. Presents the AIM (Attention, Interest, Motivation) Technique for improving listening skills.


Summarizes several representative listening texts and current approaches to listening. Suggests a definition of listening that provides educator: with a comprehensive framework for organizing listening instruction.


Provides a skills assessment instrument to determine if a student has the basic mathematics, reading, writing, and listening skills that are prerequisites for training for office occupations.


Consists of materials for use in teaching a course in Business English for high school students. Addresses the following topics in individual units: the fundamentals of communication, listening skills, oral communications, telephone communications, information resources, reading and vocabulary, the mechanics of writing, grammar and usage, business reports, business letters and memos, and employment procedures.

Communication. Listen, Speak, Write, Use. School of Business, University of Northern Iowa, Cedar Falls, IA. 1986. 204 p. [ED 276 870]

An instructional unit intended to help secondary and post-secondary business students develop their communications skills.

Communications Skills I. Reading Skills, Writing Skills, Using a Newspaper. Ohio State Dept. of Education, Div. of Vocational Education, Columbus, OH, 1984. 79 p. [ED 274 873]

This student workbook contains instructional units dealing with developing reading, writing, and listening skills and using a newspaper. The unit on listening skills deals with learning to listen and evaluating listening skills.

fiche copy available from EDRS; paper copy not available]

Consists of materials for use in helping students enrolled in postsecondary vocational or technical education programs to master technical communications skills. Listening skills (communication obstacles and oral presentations) are addressed in one of the 13 individual units of the guide. Each unit contains some or all of the following components: a unit objective, specific performance objectives, suggested activities for the instructor, a list of references, information sheets, transparency masters, assignment sheets, a test evaluation instrument, and test answers.


Points out that listening can be taught. Discusses activities and techniques to use, including commercially-produced or teacher-prepared rating instruments, listening teams, student logs, brief encounters, and films.


Contends that authentic listening materials are appropriate and desirable for instruction in English as a second language (ESL) for business purposes for several reasons: they have high interest, leading to enhanced motivation and increased opportunity for learning; they contain many natural redundancies and repetitions that facilitate comprehension; and they are rich in the target culture. Suggests that despite a lack of commercially available materials for business ESL, other sources can be tapped for authentic listening materials, such as tapes of business-related radio and television programs and commercials, teacher-made tapes of interviews or sales talks with local business people, taped university lectures, guest speakers in class, and field trips.


Indicates that skills in listening to and motivating people need to be emphasized more in undergraduate business communication courses. Presents three theories of motivation—Maslow's hierarchy of needs, McClelland's achievement motive, and Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory—that can introduce students to the systems perspective, an approach suggesting that workers' motivations can only be understood in relationship to their work setting. Suggests that (1) to develop skill in listening, students must develop active feedback techniques (encouraging, restating, reflecting, and summarizing); and (2) by responding to hypothetical examples, students can gain skill in listening and thus in changing people's need for sympathy, fame, power, and prestige into positive motivational factors—desire for empathy, recognition, cooperation, and respect.


Defines interpersonal communication and suggests classroom activities for students in business communication courses to help them (1) assess their own interpersonal skills; (2) observe and interpret nonverbal cues; (3) listen and speak effectively; and (4) provide and interpret feedback.


Advocates the use of a group sales project, an activity which integrates the oral and written communication skills important in the workplace, to culminate the business communication course.


Contains two learning modules focusing on basic communication and on speaking and listening skills. Examines the growing emphasis on communication skills in business, emphasizing changes in corporate structure and philosophy, the amount of work time spent communicating, and the costs of ineffective communication in business. Discusses the role of the sender, receiver, message, and environment in the communica-
tion process; corporate concerns about this process; and the influences of personal life orientations, perceptions, and expectations, and of position, stereotyping, and individual labels on effective communication. Examines one- and two-way communication, as well as the speaker's responsibility for creating a climate conducive to effective communication, for being direct, for using specific but simple words and phrases, for requesting feedback, and for listening carefully. It also considers ways of communicating more effectively by adjusting one's attitude, using open-ended questions, and listening; and ways to improve listening habits.


Describes an assignment for students in content-based classes for English as a second language in which they read, listen, discuss, and write about a current topic in the business world.

Recent Research


Presents a study in which entry-level employees who recently graduated with business degrees were surveyed to discover what forms of communication they used most, which they felt were most important, and what types of communication problems interfered with their work.


Analyzes the current state of comprehension training in business courses. Presents the theoretical perspectives by which the basis of noncomprehension can be understood, such as message reception constrained by ambiguity, by egocentrism, and by relational considerations. Determines that the best theoretical underpinning to comprehension of problematic messages is the information-processing approach to human interaction, which makes use of schemata.


Conducts a survey to assess the importance of listening and the deficiency in that skill and to identify existing listening training programs for future study. Finds that (1) sending messages was perceived as more important than receiving them (however, listening, a receptive skill, was considered more important than reading and speaking); (2) receptive skills were more important in the oral medium, while expressive skills were more important in the written mode; and (3) overall, the oral medium was more important. Suggests that improving listening skills deserves special attention from both trainers and communication educators.


Presents a study conducted to determine which barriers to effective communication are perceived as most serious by business communication students and to test for differences in the seriousness of the communication barriers based on various student characteristics.


Compares strategies used to improve listening skills in business communication settings. Finds that (1) both class discussion and high incentive increased scores on a listening test; (2) students exposed to a lecture plus a videotape asked more questions than the other students; and (3) the quality of the student summaries was higher and notes were taken more frequently by students exposed to a lecture than by students not exposed to it.


Presents an experiment on student scores on listening tests which increased as a result of a 45-minute class discussion on listening skills and a high-incentive condition: telling students that if
they did not score well on the test, a written report on listening would be required.


Finds that (1) students exposed to any three of the instructional strategies (lecture, video role model, and lecture plus a role model) produced better summaries and took more notes than the control group; and (2) those exposed to the video role model asked the most questions.


States that listening skills are the most used and least taught of the communication skills. Discusses (1) the addition of listening and speaking to much of the curriculum after the Elementary and Secondary Education Act was passed; (2) how the number of universities offering separate listening courses has increased in response to demands from the business and professional community; and (3) how several corporations, realizing the importance of effective listening, have provided formal training programs in listening. Cites purposes of effective listening and factors critical to one’s listening ability.
Increasingly, people are worried about the ethical standards of those choosing a career in business. Are students being assisted to recognize ethical dilemmas and to make wise choices? Do students even see a need for ethical instruction? A search of the ERIC database provides information on these and other questions concerning the role of ethics in business and business education.

This FAST Bib has been divided into three sections. Sources cited in the first, "Business Instruction," deal with teaching ethics in business communication, business literature, and other areas of the business education curriculum. Sources in the second section, "The Relationship of Business and Higher Education," address such concerns as universities' roles in commercial activities and industry-sponsored research, their investments in South Africa, and student-sponsored commercial enterprises. The last section, "Big Business," contains citations on values and codes of ethics in the corporate world.

**Business Instruction**


Surveys 90 college advertising programs for answers to questions asked by the Accrediting Council on Education in Journalism and Mass Communication (ACEJMC) about the teaching of ethics. Finds that the accredited programs preferred teaching ethics in all courses, while departments of advertising tended toward offering a separate course. Ethics was considered to be an important subject that was covered seriously by the majority of responding programs.

Baron, Philip; and others. "Business Students' Perceptions of Corporate Ethical Behavior." 1984. 20 p. [ED 247 861]

Examines the contention that the education of business managers should include courses in business and society because such courses would heighten student perceptions of the ethical and social dimensions of managerial decisions.


Examines the level of acceptance of questionable marketing practices by marketing students, instructors, and practitioners. Finds that ethical orientation may be dependent on situational perspectives, proximity to business practice, years of experience, and gender.


Reviews arguments for and against including business ethics courses in the Master of Business Administration (MBA) curriculum. Concludes that few of the arguments against teaching ethics are valid, but none of the arguments for the subject are strong enough to warrant requiring such courses.


Includes theory and principles, basic guidelines, suggested teaching unit, classroom activities, annotated list of films, and a bibliography.


Offers a "how to" approach to various topics (including ethics) in business communication for teachers of business communication.

Suggests a college-level course in business literature is an ideal place to raise and discuss ethical issues. Recommends that a teacher of this course must engage student interest, help the students articulate and understand their own ethical attitudes, clarify the stance and artistry of the author, and refine student responses to ethical questions.


Proposes general semantics as the ideal means of teaching a process-oriented analysis of ethical standards. Discusses general semantics principles and their applicability in teaching business ethics.


Discusses various aspects of ethics in business: recent trends in business, definitions of ethics, ways of applying the Golden Rule, management's role, educating people to think about ethics differently, beyond ethics training, making standards clear and sticking to them, and the belief that people want to do the right thing.


Discusses the relationship between liberal education and careers in business and covers a seminar discussing ethics and the teaching of morality.


Developed for the purpose of providing educators with current, meaningful instructional materials to guide students' personal discovery and development of affective skills vital to both work and life success, this curriculum guide discusses attitudes, ethics, safety, and the work future; getting to know yourself; self-management skills; and efficiency for greater productivity.


Discusses the development of the interest in business ethics as a regular part of the business education curriculum. Indicates that ethics is an essential issue today because of information technology and changes in the socio-political environment.


Argues that standard approaches to ethics in business writing do not adequately stress the inescapable power of language to perpetuate certain values. Claims that, as prospective writers within professions and organizations, students need to learn about this power in order to use and respond to it responsibly.


Contends that thinking skills and ethical judgment are needed in all areas of business, and instruction in these areas should be included in business communication courses. Argues that business communication textbooks should provide the explanatory and exercise materials required to teach thinking skills and ethical judgment, but seldom do. Suggests that instructors who wish to include such instruction will have to develop their own supplemental materials and offers approaches for instructors to follow. Includes a list of thinking skills and ethics objectives adapted for business communication.


Discusses the teaching of moral and ethical education to business students. Topics include: (1) Who should teach morals and ethics? (2) How should it be taught? and (3) Will it make a difference?

Surveys marketing students and faculty members on their attitudes toward cheating behaviors. Finds that 49% of the students stated that they had cheated at school and that there is an inverse relationship between the frequency of the occurrence of cheating and the person's judgment as to the seriousness of the cheating behavior.


Debates the ethics of marketing educational programs. Presents the difference between the potential negative impacts of big business and high-pressure advertising in education versus marketing as an acceptable process that attempts to establish mutually satisfying exchange relationships between those who provide and need services. Covers the literature devoted to market segmentation, in which the aggressive marketing style is contrasted to more balanced approaches to marketing.

The Relationship of Business and Higher Education


Describes the growth of industry-supported research in universities and debates ethical issues and the role of universities in commercial activities. Discusses industrial objectives, a comparison of some specific agreements, and desirable directions for industry support of university research.


Considers the value issues raised by the commercial ties formed between university scientists and commercial corporations. Presents arguments for and against patenting the results of university research. Compares cases involving an independent inventor, groups of industrial researchers, and university researchers.


Expresses concern about quality control in workshops, seminars, and other educational offerings of profit-making organizations. Admonishes colleges to verify the academic excellence of these programs before entering into an alliance with their sponsors.


Examines moral and economic issues relating to college withdrawal of investments in South Africa, using the experiences of Harvard University and Exxon stock for illustration.


Examines management approaches in ethical terms, arriving at numerous criteria applicable to educational administration. Discusses scientific management, morally neutral concepts, hyper-rationalization, tightening of controls, and the business/industry model as having eclipsed or confused the moral dimensions of education. Calls for enlarged moral sensitivity and responsiveness.


Reviews the conflict over student-sponsored commercial enterprises on legal and philosophical bases, illustrated by several court cases. Considers nonjudicial challenges to such activities and proposes guidelines colleges can follow to minimize conflict.

Big Business


Discusses new values and codes of ethics emerging in the corporate world. Suggests the secretary's role as a gatekeeper.


Argues that A. W. Page's six principles of corporate behavior, which were developed in the 1920s, are still valid today, and that the cor-
porate communicator has the responsibility to raise business standards.


Discusses financial contributions by American corporations that are designed to influence domestic or foreign policies. Identifies ways that business corporations can influence either general policy or particular decisions. Presents a brief history of corporate philanthropy in the United States and financial support for public policy purposes. Includes six policy guidelines to help corporations determine which public policy groups share their political philosophy, and what the relation between donor and recipient should be.


Examines the church's economic power, its ties with the corporate world, and what kind of moral responsibility this entails.


Compares the decision making process of large and small advertising agencies to determine if the size of the agency, in terms of gross annual billing, had any effect on adherence to the rules set forth in the American Association of Advertising's Standards of Practice. Finds that the subjects viewed their personal ethics along rule utilitarian lines, or the concept of making decisions based on rule following, and that subjects conceptualized rule following to be more important in the area of interacting with "close-at-hand" business and social associates than with the "far away" consumer.


Reports comparisons of the results of the ethical inclinations of present and future managers. Discusses the ethics of future executives.
Teenage Television Viewing
by Michael Shermis

While working as a group home houseparent with juvenile delinquent boys, I frequently wondered how much effect their television viewing was having on them. I watched as they viewed normal prime-time television filled with violence, sexual content, and sometimes with apparently misleading or stereotyped information. Were these programs harmful to them or helpful in their socialization? Were there any benefits to the shows they were watching? Which might be educational? Could I use the television to facilitate communication with these youths? Or was TV's only benefit that it could be a source of escape? How much TV should I let them watch? Teachers and parents who are concerned with these questions and others will find this selection of documents from the ERIC database helpful and informative.

This FAST Bib has been divided into four sections. Sources cited in the first, "Impact on Health, Sexual Behavior, Use of Alcohol," address such issues as the relationship of viewing sexual content to sexual activity and sex role acquisition, and relationships between amount of viewing and the way youth deal with stress and other pressures. Sources in the second section, "TV Violence and Teenage Behavior," examine concerns like the relationship between media content and antisocial behavior and possible connections between fantasy violence and real-world violence. Sources cited in the section on "Impact on Other Social Behaviors" deal with TV's possible role as a socializing agent and relationships between television viewing and academic achievement. In the last section, "Viewing Habits," the sources cited examine and report on the monitoring of television viewing, parental intervention, educational uses of television, and other concerns parents and teachers are likely to have.

Impact on Health, Sexual Behavior, Use of Alcohol


Examines the relationship of the frequency of viewing sexual content on television and sexual activity among a sample of adolescents.


Assembles and evaluates the main findings of recent work on television and sex role acquisition, points out gaps and limitations in present inquiry, and sketches a framework around which future research might usefully address some of the remaining questions.


Examines the intervening and/or conditioning roles of integration into peer groups (a traditional socializing agent) and access to new video technology via home cable viewing (a new socializing agent) in the relationship between television viewing and adolescents' sex-role images.


Draws upon ideas about "television effects" and the adolescent peer group to illustrate how interconnections between these two socializing agents contribute to the adolescent's "construction of social reality." Examines how gender, sexual, consumer, and occupational roles as enacted by teenagers are a product of media and peer group influences.


Focuses on the association between early sexual activity and, respectively, household
structure; television viewing; sex education; race; and parent-teen communication.


Discusses pressures that may cause stress in children and adolescents. States that shifting family patterns due to divorce or working parents, stressful situations at day care centers, busy schedules during adolescence, test anxiety at school, and watching violence on television all can increase stress for today’s children.


Determines the extent to which light, moderate, and heavy television viewing relate to multiple measures of obesity and physical fitness among high school males. Shows that light television viewers scored significantly better than heavy viewers on a composite fitness index but that light viewers were not significantly less obese than moderate or heavy viewers.


Examines television and drinking practices of high school males to determine the extent to which adolescents classified as light, moderate, or heavy television viewers differed regarding alcohol use. Finds that heavy television viewers consumed alcohol significantly more often than did light and moderate viewers, especially the former, particularly when demographic variables were controlled simultaneously.


Finds that middle-school level students watch more television than any other age group and that they are exposed to violence, sex, use of drugs, and sex role socialization in many programs. Suggests schools can help students become discriminating consumers of television.

TV Violence and Teenage Behavior


Concludes that adolescent aggression increases with perceived reality of television violence.


Investigates relationships among factors such as teenagers’ videogame playing, watching violent television programs, antisocial behavior, and self-esteem.

A Hearing on Media Violence before the Subcommitteee on Juvenile Justice, Committee on the Judiciary, United States Senate (October 25, 1984). Congress of the U.S., Washington, D.C. Senate Committee on the Judiciary. 59 pp. [ED 252 322]

Contains the testimony of researchers from governmental agencies and media organizations, representatives of scientific associations, scholars, early childhood educators, and television personalities concerning the effects of televised violence on the behavior of children, adolescents, and adults.


Explores the hypothesis that heavy television viewing, particularly the viewing of a great deal of violence, cultivates certain misconceptions about social reality. Finds that for adolescents there was only scant evidence that television might alter perceptions of social reality in a way that is consistent with its content.

Impact on Other Social Behaviors


Examines how children’s understanding of social interaction portrayed on television changes with age.


Finds that students (grades 6-12) who were heavy viewers of crime shows were more likely to have anticivil-libertarian attitudes. Suggests that television entertainment may be an important source of political learning.


Summarizes research from the California Assessment Program (1980) and the Foundation
for Child Development (1976) concerning the relationship between student academic achievement and television viewing habits.


Examines both general and specific parent-child television viewing experiences together and interactions related to television, whether the child has watched with a parent or alone.


Outlines research into teenage viewing preferences which was undertaken prior to production of a television series for CITY-TV, Toronto that was designed to attract as large a teenage audience as possible, and to promote “socially responsible” attitudes. Discusses effects on instructional television programming.


Examines both the short-term and long-term effects of television advertising on the development of adolescents’ consumption-related orientations.

Viewing Habits


Examines the influence of duration and amount of soap opera viewing by sixth and seventh graders on their perceptions of relational fragility and importance of talk in managing relationships. Mediating variables of viewing motives, experience with peer relations, and family structure are also examined.


Contends that parental intervention with respect to television viewing is necessary for both young children and adolescents. Lists guidelines that give a purpose for watching television.


Disputes previous research findings that the amount of time spent viewing television declines significantly during the adolescent years.


Reviews recent empirical research on the effects of television on children and teenagers by examining the results of two surveys which were conducted to determine the opinions of experts in the field.


Examines families’ use of home television, including educational use, and parents’ involvement in their children’s television viewing.


Examines views of current U.S. teenage population regarding valued traits and family-shared television viewing habits, as well as overall trends in society among the adult population. Reports on a national survey conducted to determine proportion of adults who viewed television with their children on a regular basis.


Reports on a study of the relationship between adolescent television viewing versus listening to youth music and participation in adult-structured segments of daily life. Finds that music is more successful in engaging youth in its world.


Examines the amount of time adolescents spend viewing television. Finds that 1) adolescents viewed television 147 minutes per day; 2) employment of mother significantly affected the time adolescents spent viewing television; and 3) sex of adolescent; age of father, mother, and adolescent; education of father and mother; in-
come of family; and day of week were not significant factors.


Explores patterns of pastime activities that stand as alternatives to television viewing among middle school children.


Describes patterns of exposure and motivation of adolescent sample group. Correlates findings with race, gender, involvement with peers, attitude toward school, and other personal circumstances.


Provides a theoretical framework for thinking, from a developmental perspective, about the role of television as a “dominant activity” of American childhood.
Televangelists have been receiving a large amount of attention in the news. Along with concern over personalities, however, there is a renewed interest in the medium itself and in its impact on its viewers. Documents in the ERIC database treat questions such as these: Why does the "electronic church" have such a broad appeal? Who are those who watch "televangelists"? What influence does the Christian Right have on media viewers? Has the religious broadcasting industry received unconstitutional aid from the Federal Communications Commission (FCC)?

The first section of this FAST Bib lists sources which relate to the historical development of religious broadcasting. The next section looks at the role that television plays in religious broadcasting. A section on the Christian Right examines the role evangelicals have played in making religious broadcasting so pervasive on television. The government and its relationship to religious television, specifically regulation by the FCC, is considered in several articles and papers cited in the fourth section. The last section looks at a few other issues that are currently being researched in communications and reading.

The History of Religious Broadcasting


Provides an informative review of scholarly treatments of the history of religious broadcasting in the United States, tracing the evolution from early broadcasts of simple church services to today's evangelical paid-time programming. Traces recent developments in the structure of religious television, and identifies three major trends: 1) the growth of high-energy, entertaining evangelical presentations; 2) the adoption of the broadcast/cable network system; and 3) the adaptation of traditionally secular television formats to the religious task. Describes the viewership of religious television via a review of pertinent research literature, identifying a shift away from the stereotypical older, female viewer. Explores the potential social effects of religious television.


Discusses the history and development of religious broadcasting. Suggests that the growth and structure of religious broadcasting is the result of a good fit between the needs of the evangelical community and the dynamics of the television medium.

Religious Broadcasting and Television


Examines the viewers of religious programming, the allure of televangelism, and how the electronic church has become good television and effective mass communication.


Examines religious program activity of over 430 television stations on such matters as weekly hours of program time, program types and styles, and subjective evaluations of the value and professional quality of programs used or created by the stations. Finds that the numerous local broadcasts consisted either of worship, inspiration, and meditation (the largest category); programs of religious information, orientation, and education (including those designed for children and youth); or seasonal, holiday, and memorial programs, many of which employed music, drama, or dance.

Concludes that viewing religious programming on television is positively correlated to the need to know oneself better and is negatively correlated to the need for entertainment.


Examines four recent books on the religious media: Ben Armstrong’s *The Electric Church*, James F. Engel’s *Contemporary Christian Communications: Its Theory and Practice*, Malcolm Muggeridge’s *Christ and the Media*, and Virginia Stem Owens’ *The Total Image: or Selling Jesus in the Modern Age*. Evaluates the internal validity of each.


Examines levels of satisfaction with present television programming; awareness of and exposure to religious broadcasts; motivations for exposure to "The 700 Club," a nationally syndicated religious program; and potential utilization of Christian Broadcasting Network (CBN) alternatives to traditional television fare. Finds that there was marked dissatisfaction with present television fare among a sizable segment of the sample; more respondents were aware of religious broadcasting than watched it; seeking spiritual guidance was the most important factor influencing exposure to "The 700 Club"; the greatest interest in alternative programming was for prime time and early evening news; and no strong and systematic relationship existed between satisfaction with present programming and interest in the CBN alternative.


Investigates the nature of religious television, its viewers, and its effect on mainline or other local churches. Finds that: 1) those who watch more general television are less likely to have had a religious experience, to attend church often, to engage in non-worship activities, or to make contributions to their local church; and 2) heavy viewers of religious programs are more likely than non-viewers to describe themselves as conservatives, oppose a nuclear freeze, favor tougher laws against pornography, and report voting in the last general election.


Considers the broad appeal of broadcast evangelism among conservative American Protestants. Defines, describes, and examines the mythos as represented in the rhetoric of various well-known broadcast evangelists and their trade association, National Religious Broadcasters. Criticizes the mythos as a possible agenda for further inquiry.


Examines the current state of empirical research on religious television, discusses some of the implicit difficulties in exploring this phenomenon and its viewership, and suggests avenues for future research.

**Religious Broadcasting and the Christian Right**


Examines the political and social issues that best predict attendance to religious broadcasts. Finds that fundamentalist issues, political distrust, political power, and political knowledge tended to be the areas of distinction between viewers and nonviewers of religious broadcasts.


Discusses the pervasiveness of broadcast religion with the emergence of television. Suggests that televangelism can best be regarded as a dialogue between communicators and audiences, not a magical tool by which the few manipulate the behavior of the many.

Religious Broadcasting

Contends that the break between ecumenical and evangelical religious broadcasting can be attributed to a failure of the evangelical churches to present a united front in the early days of radio until long after the ecumenical churches, united in the Federal Council of Churches of Christ (FCCC), had begun cooperating with commercial radio networks. Suggests that the split between ecumenical and evangelical broadcasting was caused by each group's different view of the nature and purpose of the church—spiritual versus social.

Religious Broadcasting and the Government


Focuses on the relationship between the Federal Communications Commission (FCC) and religious broadcasters. Summarizes some of the decisions made by regulating agencies and courts concerning religious broadcasting.


Discusses the problems of well-known religious broadcaster, Jim Bakker, head of the "PTL Club" (People That Love). Reviews the Federal Communications Commission (FCC) investigation and Bakker's subsequent rhetorical strategy in response to it.


Examines the rise of "electronic religion" (religious broadcasting on radio and television) in the United States and the movement's fusing of religious and political issues during the 1980 election year. Analyzes the potential political influence of these broadcasters and the Federal Communication Commission's (FCC) possible problem with exempting religious programming from the fairness doctrine's requirements because such programming is seen as being non-controversial by definition.


Examines the question of whether the religious broadcasting industry has indirectly received unconstitutional aid from the Federal Communications Commission (FCC). Reviews individual FCC cases involving religious programming and religious broadcasters, the constitutional meaning of the establishment clause, and the limits the courts have set on governmental relationships with religion. Finds that there is no evidence that the FCC has contributed to the establishment of religion.


Discusses the historical basis of the government's regulation of religious broadcasting.

Other Issues Related to Religious Broadcasting


Enhances the grammatical and formal features of drama through the application of Kenneth Burke's "principle of perfection" and nine "indexes of dramatic intensity" to study the tragic-symbol preaching of Rev. Jerry Falwell. Finds that Falwell's televised discourses represent remarkably "perfected" and strong dramas.


Discusses the successes of television evangelists including Oral Roberts, Jim Bakker, Robert Schuller, and Jimmy Swaggart, both in terms of finances and in conversion of souls. Classifies the television preachers in four categories: evangelicals, fundamentalists, Pentecostals, or charismatics. Analyzes Swaggart's leadership style with the use of Max Weber's definitions of political leadership to determine that it is charismatic. Utilizes Theodore Windt's characteristics of political leadership to give further insight into Swaggart's charisma.


Identifies the significance of the long-running debate regarding the size of the religious televi-
sion audience among religious broadcasting professionals and religious practitioners.


Uses fantasy theme analysis—specifically the three fantasy theme myths of the Hero, the Fellowship, and the Sacrifice—to examine the so-called “electronic church,” today’s television ministry.


Examines the verbal and nonverbal language characteristics of several renowned television preachers. Argues that they have identified and segmented their market to exploit more fully the television market and that they have mastered promotional and advertising skills. Proposes governmental controls of some aspects of religious broadcasting.
ERIC/RCS
Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills
THE ERIC NETWORK
ERIC, the Educational Resources Information Center sponsored by the Office of Educational Research and Improvement of the U.S. Department of Education, is a national educational information system designed to do the following:

MAKE AVAILABLE hard-to-find educational materials, such as research reports, literature reviews, curriculum guides, conference papers, projects or program reviews, and government reports.

ANNOUNCE these materials in Resources in Education (RIE), a monthly journal containing abstracts of each item.

PUBLISH annotations of journal articles in Current Index to Journals in Education (CUE), a monthly guide to current educational periodicals.

PREPARE magnetic tapes (available by subscription) of the ERIC database (RIE and CUE) for computer retrieval.

CREATE products that analyze and synthesize educational information.

PROVIDE a question-answering service.

Most of the educational material announced in RIE may be seen on microfiche in one of the more than 700 educational institutions (college and university libraries; local, state, and federal agencies; and not-for-profit organizations) that have complete ERIC collections. It can also be purchased from the ERIC Document Reproduction Service (EDRS) on microfiche, a 4" x 6" microfilm card containing up to 96 pages of text; or paper copy, a photographically reproduced copy.

Journal articles announced in CUE are not available through ERIC, but can be obtained from a local library collection, from the publisher, or from University Microfilms International.

ERIC/RCS
Where would you go to find the following kinds of information?

- Suggested activities and instructional materials to teach elementary school students listening skills.
- Instruction in writing that focuses on the writing process.
- A list of suggestions for parent involvement in reading instruction.

Your answer should include the ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills (ERIC/RCS). Each year ERIC/RCS helps thousands of people find useful information related to education in reading, English, journalism, theater, speech and mass communications. While we cannot meet every educational information need, anyone with a strong interest in or involvement with teaching communication skills should look to ERIC/RCS as a valuable resource.

The ERIC/RCS Clearinghouse is now located at Indiana University, in Bloomington, Indiana.

Write or call ERIC/RCS for the following information:
- How to submit material for inclusion in the ERIC database.
- How to conduct manual or computer searches of the ERIC database.
- Where to get an ERIC computer search.
- Which organizations and institutions near you have ERIC microfiche collections.
- To obtain a list of ERIC/RCS publications.

ERIC/RCS PUBLICATIONS
These publications represent a low-cost way to build your own personal educational library and are an excellent addition to a school professional library. They are the results of the clearinghouse's efforts to analyze and synthesize the literature of education into research reviews, state-of-the-art studies, interpretive reports on topics of current interest, and booklets presenting research and theory plus related practical activities for the classroom teacher.

ERIC/RCS FAST BIBS (Focused Access to Selected Topics): abstracts or annotations from 20-30 sources in the ERIC database.

ERIC/RCS NEWSLETTERS concerning clearinghouse activities and publications, featuring noteworthy articles for communication skills educators.
ERIC DIGESTS with information and references on topics of current interest.

ERIC/RCS SERVICES
As part of its effort to provide the latest information on education research and practice, ERIC/RCS offers the following services:
- Question-answering, a major clearinghouse priority along with processing documents and producing publications.
- ERIC orientation workshops at local, regional, and national levels, at cost.
- Multiple copies of ERIC/RCS no-cost publications for workshop distribution.
- Clearinghouse-sponsored sessions at professional meetings on timely topics in reading and communication skills.
- Customized computer searches of the ERIC database. (The charge for this service is $30 for the first 50 citations.)

ERIC COMPONENTS

ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult, Career, and Vocational Education
Ohio State University
Center on Education and Training for Employment
1900 Kenny Road
Columbus, OH 43210-1090
(614) 292-4353
(800) 848-4815

ERIC Clearinghouse on Counseling and Personnel Services
University of Michigan
School of Education, Room 2108
610 East University Street
Ann Arbor, MI 48109-1259
(313) 764-9492

ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management
University of Oregon
1787 Agate Street
Eugene, OR 97403-5207
(503) 346-5043

ERIC Clearinghouse on Elementary and Early Childhood Education
University of Illinois
College of Education
805 West Pennsylvania Avenue
Urbana, IL 61801-4897
(217) 333-1386

ERIC Clearinghouse on Handicapped and Gifted Children
Council for Exceptional Children
1920 Association Drive
Reston, VA 22091-1589
(703) 620-3640

ERIC Clearinghouse on Higher Education
George Washington University
One Dupont Circle, N.W.
Suite 630
Washington, DC 20036-1183
(202) 986-2597

ERIC Clearinghouse on Information Resources
Syracuse University
Huntington Hall, Room 030
150 Marshall Street
Syracuse, NY 13244-2340
(315) 443-3640

ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior Colleges
University of California at Los Angeles
Math-Sciences Building, Room 811B
405 Hilgard Avenue
Los Angeles, CA 90024-1564
(213) 825-3931

ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics
Center for Applied Linguistics
1118 22nd Street, N.W.
Washington, DC 20037-0037
(202) 429-9551

ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills
Indiana University, Smith Research Center
2805 East 10th Street, Suite 150
Bloomington, IN 47408-2698
(812) 855-5847

ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools
Appalachia Educational Laboratory
1031 Quarriner Street
P.O. Box 1348
Charleston, WV 25325-1348
(800) 624-9120 (Outside WV)
(800) 344-6646 (In WV)

ERIC Clearinghouse for Science, Mathematics, and Environmental Education
Ohio State University
1200 Chambers Road, Room 310
Columbus, OH 43212-1792
(614) 292-6717

ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education
Indiana University
Social Studies Development Center
2805 East 10th Street, Suite 120
Bloomington, IN 47408-2698
(812) 855-3838

ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Education
American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education
One Dupont Circle, N.W., Suite 610
Washington, DC 20036-2412
(202) 293-2450

ERIC Clearinghouse on Tests, Measurement, and Evaluation
American Institutes for Research (AIR)
Washington Research Center
3233 K Street, N.W.
Washington, DC 20007-3541
(202) 342-5060

ERIC Clearinghouse on Urban Education
Teachers College, Columbia University
Institute for Urban and Minority Education
1200 Main Hall, Room 300, Box 40
525 West 120th Street
New York, NY 10027-9998
(212) 678-3433

ERIC Processing and Reference Facility
ARC Professional Services Group
Information Systems Division
2440 Research Boulevard, Suite 400
Rockville, MD 20850-3238
(301) 258-5500

ERIC Document Reproduction Service (EDRS)
Cincinnati Bell Information Systems (CBIS) Federal
7420 Fullerton Road, Suite 110
Springfield, VA 22153-2852
(800) 443-ERIC (3742)

ACCESS ERIC
Aspen Systems Corporation
1600 Research Boulevard
Rockville, MD 20850
WOULD YOU LIKE EASY ACCESS TO EDUCATIONAL INFORMATION?
If you are involved in graduate studies, developing and evaluating programs or curricula, designing a new course or revamping an old one, writing a report, or any of countless other projects in the areas of reading, English, journalism, speech, or drama, then you already know how important it is to locate and use the most relevant and current resources. And if you have not been using ERIC, you have been missing a lot, simply because many resources in the ERIC database are not available anywhere else.

These resources cover all areas of education, including research reports, case studies, bibliographies, surveys, government reports, curriculum guides, teaching guides, program descriptions and evaluations, instructional materials, course descriptions, speeches, and conference reports.
Currently about 700,000 document abstracts and journal article annotations make up the ERIC database, which grows at the rate of approximately 30,000 entries per year. In order to make these resources more accessible to you, the ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills offers a computerized database search service.

WHAT IS THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN A COMPUTER SEARCH AND A MANUAL SEARCH?
The computer is much faster and far more efficient. Some highly complex searches that a computer can do in minutes would be virtually impossible for a person to do using the ERIC indexes Resources in Education and Current Index to Journals in Education. The computer offers the opportunity to search under several index terms at the same time.

HOW DOES A COMPUTER SEARCH WORK?
ERIC uses a coordinate indexing system, with each document indexed under as many as 12 index terms, or “descriptors.” These descriptors identify the educational level and content areas of a document. A computer search involves combining the descriptors for the specific search question into a search statement, which is then entered into the computer. Those documents that meet the requirements of the search statement are retrieved.

WHAT DO I GET?
You receive a printout of ERIC references that include complete bibliographic citations, annotations of journal articles, and 150- to 250-word abstracts of documents on your topic.

WHAT DOES IT COST?
The minimum charge for a customized computer search is $30 for up to 50 journal citations and/or document abstracts, plus $0.10 for each additional reference. This fee includes handling and mailing. You will be billed for the cost upon completion of the search.

HOW LONG DOES IT TAKE?
Generally, the time from our receipt of your request to your receipt of the printout is two weeks.

WHAT DO I HAVE TO DO?
No prior knowledge of computers or computer searching is necessary. A member of our staff can help you define your search question. Our knowledge of the ERIC database, especially in the areas of reading and the other English language arts, can be an important aid in developing a successful search.

If you would like our clearinghouse to run a computer search on a topic of your choice, fill out and return the attached order form. If your question needs further clarification, a member of our staff will call you before conducting the search.
COMPUTER SEARCH SERVICE ORDER FORM

Name ________________________
Position ______________________
Organization ______________________
Street ______________________
City ______________________ State ______________________
Zip ______________________ Phone ______________________

Purpose of search:

Education level ______________________

Format (circle one):

Research reports
Practical applications
Both

Journal citations only
Document abstracts only
Both

Known authority in field (if any) ______________________

Possible key words or phrases:

Restrictions: Year(s) ______________________
Monetary ______________________

Statement of search question:
Searching ERIC in Print

ERIC (the Educational Resources Information Center) is an information resource designed to make educational literature easily accessible through two monthly bibliographic publications: Resources in Education (RIE) and Current Index to Journals in Education (CUE). By following the steps below, individuals can quickly locate literature for their specific educational information needs.

1. **Phrase Your Question as Precisely as Possible.** Then list the key concepts of that question in as few words or phrases as possible.

2. **See If Your Indexing Terms Are Listed in the Thesaurus of ERIC Descriptors.** If they are listed, look for other descriptors that come close to matching your terms. To help you in this procedure most descriptors are listed with a display of cross-references to other descriptors, including narrower terms (NT); broader terms (BT); and related terms (RT) within the same area of classification.

3. **Go to the Subject Index Sections of the Monthly, Semiannual, or Annual Issues of RIE.** Read the titles listed under the descriptors you have chosen and note the six-digit ED (ERIC Document) numbers for those documents that seem appropriate for your information needs.

4. **Locate and Read the Abstracts of These Documents in the Main Entry Sections of the Monthly RIEs.** Main entries are listed consecutively by ED number.

5. **To Find the Complete Text of the Document, First Examine the Abstract to See If It Has an EDRS Price.** If it does, the document is available both in ERIC microfiche collections (which are owned by over 700 libraries nationwide) and through the ERIC Document Reproduction Service (EDRS) in Virginia. EDRS ordering information is given in the back of every RIE. If the document is not available through EDRS, it is due to copyright restrictions placed on the document by its author or publisher. In these cases, ordering information will be given in the document abstract in a note labeled "available from."

6. **If You Have Trouble With Your Search (e.g., the documents are not exactly what you want or you find no documents), return to steps one and two, checking your search terms. You also may want to ask your librarian for assistance in identifying descriptors.** If you want to expand your search to include journal articles, use CUE in addition to RIE. Remember, however, that copies of journal articles are not available from EDRS. If you want to read the complete article, you must obtain the journal from a local library, the publisher, or University Microfilms International.

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**A. A kindergarten teacher has been asked by some of his neighbors who have preschoolers if there is anything they can do at home to help their children get ready for writing in school. The teacher decides that the key concept involved is Writing Readiness.**

**B. The teacher checks that term in the ERIC Thesaurus at a nearby university library and finds it listed.**

**C. Selecting one of the library's volumes of RIE, in this case the January-June 1988 semiannual index, the teacher finds the following documents in the subject index:**

**Writing Readiness**

- Children's Names: Landmarks for Literacy? ED 290 171
- Integrating Reading and Writing Instruction at the Primary level. ED 286 158
- Sister and Brother Writing Interplay. ED 285 176
- Writing Begins at Home: Preparing Children for Writing before They Go to School. ED 285 207

**D. ED 285 207 Looks like an appropriate resource, so the teacher finds that ED number in a monthly issue of RIE "January 1988" in the document resume section:**

ED 285 207

Clay, Marie
Writing Begins at Home: Preparing Children for Writing before They Go to School.
Pub Date 87
Note. 64p.
Available from Heinemann Educational Books Inc., 70 Court St., Portsmouth, NH 03801 ($12.50)
Pub type. Books (010) - Guides - Non-Classroom (055)
Intended for parents of preschoolers, this book offers samples of children's writing (defined as the funny signs and symbols that pencils make) and attempts to show how parents can support and expand children's discovery of printed language before children begin school. Each of the eight chapters contains numerous examples of young children's drawing and printing, as well as helpful comments and practical considerations to orient parents. The chapters are entitled: (1) Getting in Touch; (2) Exploration and Discoveries; (3) I Want to Record a Message; (4) We Follow Sally Ann's Progress; (5) Individual Differences at School Entry; (6) How Can a Parent Help?; (7) The Child at School; and (8) Let Your Child Read. (References and a list of complementary publications are attached.) (NKA)

E. The teacher notes the price and ordering information for his neighbors. The teacher can then select other RIE documents to review from other volumes of the RIE index, or check CUE for journal articles on writing readiness.

KEYS TO USING ERIC

Thesaurus of ERIC Descriptors

The ERIC Thesaurus is the key to a search of the ERIC database, with approximately 10,000 terms and cross-references in the fields of education. Scope notes serve as definitions for most descriptors. Each document in the ERIC system is assigned several descriptors from the Thesaurus that indicate the essential content of the document. Once you have familiarized yourself with ERIC's descriptors and the Thesaurus, you have put thousands of pages of educational materials at your fingertips.

Resources in Education (RIE)

This publication prints the abstracts of documents processed and indexed for the ERIC system. About 1000 abstracts from ERIC Clearinghouses appear each month, arranged by ED number in the main entry section of RIE. In addition to the main entry section, each volume of RIE contains three indexes. Document titles are listed by subject (descriptor term), author, and institution. Unless otherwise noted, copies of documents abstracted in RIE are available from the ERIC Document Reproduction Service.

Current Index to Journals in Education (CIJE)

This ERIC publication directs you to educational articles from over 800 educational journals. Annotations describing over 1400 articles each month are arranged in the main entry section of CIJE according to EJ (ERIC Journal) number and are listed in subject, author, and journal indexes. Copies of journal articles annotated in CIJE are not available from the ERIC Document Reproduction Service but may be obtained from local library collections, from the publisher, or (in most cases) from University Microfilms International.

Semiannual and annual issues of RIE and CIJE consolidate the monthly subject, author, and institution indexes.

COMPUTER SEARCHES

Over 900 organizations across the nation, including the individual ERIC Clearinghouses, provide computerized searches of the ERIC database. The search strategy—selecting the key descriptors and scanning the documents under those subject headings—is the same as for manual searching. The differences are in time and cost. When you search by computer, you can combine several terms instantaneously for any or all issues of RIE/CIJE; in effect, you thumb through more than 200 issues of RIE at once. Costs for these services vary; while some institutions offer computer searches at no cost to in-state educators, others may charge from $5 to $300, depending upon the complexity and depth of the search or the kind of feedback requested. Our Clearinghouse can assist you in developing computer search strategy, and can provide information about computer search facilities near you. No prior knowledge of computers or computer searching is necessary.

CUSTOMIZED SEARCHES AVAILABLE

Customized computer searches of the ERIC database will be performed for you by the ERIC/RCS Clearinghouse, if you wish. The charge for this service is $30 for the first 50 citations. If your search problem does not fall within the scope of ERIC/RCS, we will refer your question to one of the other Clearinghouses in the ERIC System, or help you contact the appropriate Clearinghouse directly.
WHY NOT SEND YOUR MATERIAL TO ERIC/RCS?
The ERIC system is always looking for high-quality educational documents to announce in Resources in Education (RIE), ERIC’s monthly index of document abstracts. ERIC, Educational Resources Information Center, sponsored by the Office of Educational Research and Improvement of the U.S. Department of Education, is a national educational information system designed to make available hard-to-find educational materials (such as research reports, literature reviews, conference papers, curriculum guides, and other resource information). Through a network of clearinghouses, each of which focuses on a specific field in education, materials are acquired, evaluated, cataloged, indexed, abstracted, and announced in RIE.

The Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills is responsible for educational materials and information related to research, instruction, and personnel preparation in such areas as English language arts, reading, composition, literature, journalism, speech communication, theater and drama, and the mass media.

ERIC relieves you of the need to maintain copies of your materials for distribution to people or organizations requesting them, since documents can be ordered individually in both microfiche and paper copy formats from the ERIC Document Reproduction Service (EDRS) in Springfield, Virginia.

Dissemination through ERIC provides a wide audience for your materials since there are more than 700 ERIC microfiche collections throughout the world. In addition, your material can be retrieved at the more than 450 locations that provide computer searches of the ERIC database.

Because your documents are permanently indexed in RIE and on computer tape, ERIC serves an archival function as well as keeping users informed of current theories and practices.

We depend on our network of volunteer contributors to accomplish our goal of making information readily available to the educational community and to the general public.

HOW TO SUBMIT YOUR MATERIAL
Please follow the guidelines listed below for preparation of documents. Send two clean, dark-print copies, at least six pages in length, either in original or photocopied form to Coordinator of Documents, ERIC/RCS, 2805 East Tenth Street, Smith Research Center, Suite 150, Bloomington, Indiana 47408-2698.

Document Preparation. The following guidelines are designed to ensure that documents will be legible on microfiche and that readable copies will be available to ERIC users:
- Standard 8 1/2" x 11" white or light-tinted paper is preferred.
- Double-spaced pages printed on a laser printer or typed on a standard typewriter (pica or elite) photograph best. Dark-print dot-matrix computer printouts are acceptable.
- Letters and line drawings must be unbroken and as black as possible. Very small or finely drawn letters, as well as photographs and edited copy, will not reproduce well.
- Purple dittos and most colored pages will not photograph clearly.

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How Do Journalists Think?
A Proposal for the Study of Cognitive Bias in Newsmaking
by S. Holly Stocking and Paget H. Gross

Why do Dan and Tom and Connie sometimes get it so wrong on the 6 o’clock news, and even Charles on Sunday morning?

More importantly, how do they decide what to talk about and what slant to take?

How Do Journalists Think?—a trailblazing study by a team made up of a communication researcher and a cognitive psychologist—is a diagram of the structure of logic in the news reporter’s cognitive processes: categorization, theory generation and testing, information selection and integration, and the perseverance of biases despite claims of fairness and objectivity. Notwithstanding the fact-gathering power of the major networks, error is inevitable.

Stocking and Gross . . . take 200 years of additional thought [beyond I. Kant] on the subject of rose colored glasses and apply it to the way journalists filter reality through the myriad perceptual and cognitive prisms with which all humans are born. There’s no getting away from those prisms . . . Are journalists dupes of their own senses? I suspect the authors don’t think so. The book implies that rose colored glasses can be pushed down one’s nose. And occasionally, we may see over the rims—if we’ll try.

Tom Grimes, Assistant Professor of Journalism and Mass Communication University of Wisconsin-Madison

Holly Stocking is a journalism professor at Indiana University who has worked for the Los Angeles Times, the Minneapolis Tribune, and the Associated Press.

Paget Gross, formerly a psychology professor at Columbia University, is now studying the law.

Their book is a rejoinder for those who wonder how human information-processing research can be applied. Stocking and Gross depart from the bulk of traditional research to understand news reporting in terms of the reporters’ cognitive processes.

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<tr>
<td>• assumes objective reality independent of perceivers</td>
<td>• see reality as actively constructed</td>
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<tr>
<td>• studies values &amp; attitudes</td>
<td>• study working beliefs of reporters</td>
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<td>• emphasizes relationships between values &amp; attitudes and media content</td>
<td>• emphasize relationships between beliefs and steps in the cognitive process of newsgathering</td>
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<tr>
<td>• assumes origin of media bias in journalists or their superiors</td>
<td>• assume multiple causative factors of media bias</td>
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Short, easy to read, well documented, How Do Journalists Think? is suitable for advanced undergraduates in reporting courses and in cognitive psychology, as well as for graduate students in introductory mass communication theory courses.

Order Number G06; $14.95.

* * * * *

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The old notion of public relations as a slippery game being played by slick operators paid by big companies either to cover up something really awful or to sell the public a bill of goods that they could just as well do without, is gradually changing.

The PR field is changing. PR is changing partly because the academic study and teaching of the field is outgrowing its niche in the School of Journalism to become a recognized discipline of scholarly investigation and education in its own right. Partly, PR is changing because more and more women are entering the field. Partly, PR is changing because many of its practitioners are developing a more ethical sense of their calling. And partly, PR is changing because a teacher like Jim Measell is instructing practitioners of his discipline to take the art and science of communication seriously.

Jim Measell, Professor of Public Relations at Wayne State University, defines his "communication perspective" on PR to include the reciprocal nature of genuine human communication: PR spokespeople are the medium of information exchange, standing halfway between the client who pays them, and the "publics" with whom the client is trying to communicate. The PR person has a professional, moral, and communicative responsibility to make a careful study of demographic and psychographic data, the pros and cons of selecting among potential channels for the dissemination of a message, and the relationship of channel and feedback in the two-way process of communication between client and publics.

The messages that PR people construct and deliver these days are being formulated in a hi-tech environment that requires the artful style of a graphics designer, the technical savvy of a computer whiz, the linguistic sensitivity of a poetry-writing anthropologist, and 360-degree perspective of an expert in international relations, and the wisdom of a philosophical futurist. With a black eye from the bad press so richly deserved by government PR-henchmen who lie on behalf of the people in power, the would-be honest PR professional, says Measell, "will be in the forefront of debates on the ethical implications of communication, and their professional activities will be in the harsh spotlight of journalistic scrutiny."

Responding to the need of the hour of his discipline, Measell discusses applied communication theory and research, relating it directly to PR education and practice. He outlines a full semester of coursework, with detailed assignments for the students and point-by-point advice to the instructor. He recommends textbooks, and sets up a reading schedule for the students. Measell's "Sources and Resources" is more than a bibliographical essay; it puts one in touch with PR associations, periodical publications, and shakers and movers in the field.

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