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Teaching and Learning in the New Millennium: Transformative Technologies in a Transformable World

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Teaching and Learning in the New Millennium: Transformative Technologies in a Transformable World

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Mediated communication technologies are inescapable. While people could live in the past without particular gadgets that help us connect to one another, these technologies have created a demand for themselves in today's world. Moreover, that demand has increased the supply so that we presently face a great deal of technological sprawl. The technologies we use, though, have become more than just toys. They have become extensions of ourselves in the world and have led to a radical transformation in the way we interact with others in society. As a result, they have transformed the way service institutions, like those in education, can operate.

Institutional learning has become distributed learning, and the full-time student sitting through five classes a day has new options for the way he or she spends that time. Learning can happen anywhere, but only just recently has that individual had the choice as to when and how learning will be assessed. This review essay deals with that idea of choice and of the transformative nature of educational technologies presently used in the creation of teaching and learning environments around the world.

1. Overview

"Distance learning" has grown into a discipline in its own right, producing 1,780,000 hits on the Google Search Engine in March of 2003. For the purposes of this review, we will home in on four of the predominant educational technology magazines, all of which have online and print versions, published in the United States and written for the consumption of lay educators: *T.H.E. Journal* (i.e., *Technological Horizons in Education Journal*), *Converge* Magazine, *Syllabus Magazine,* and *Technology & Learning*. Beyond this, there are two dozen peer-reviewed journals dedicated especially to the idea of distance learning, including the *American Journal of Distance Education* (*AJDE*), the *International Journal on E-Learning* (*IJEL*), the *Journal of Computers in Mathematics and Science Teaching* (*JCMST*), the *Journal of Interactive Learning Research* (*JILR*), the *Journal of Educational Multimedia and Hypermedia* (*JEMH*), the *Journal of Technology and Teacher Education* (*JTATE*), *The Internet and Higher Education* (*IHE*), the *Journal of Asynchronous Learning Networks* (*JALN*), the *Journal of Interactive Media in Education* (*JIME*), the *Journal of Distance Learning Administration* (*JDLA*), the *Journal of Distance Education* (*JDE*), the *Electronic Journal on Information Systems in Developing Countries* (*EJISDC*), *European Journal of Open and Distance Learning* (*EJODL*), *International Review of Open and Distance Learning* (*IRRODL*), *The Turkish Online Journal of Distance Education* (*TOJDE*)—to name a few, all of which have online components.

Beyond these English language journals, there is also a body of literature to be found in Spanish (a bib-

liography of which has been appended to this article) and in other European and also Asian and African languages. A literature review dealing with distance learning in the spring of 2003, as a result, would have to ask a more focused question of the literature than it would have had to ask five years ago (see *Trends*, Vol. 16, No. 2, 1996), and even then there would be more information to absorb into an article than there is space for it.

While there is a large body of literature concerning the implementation of distance or distributed learning initiatives throughout the world, this literature review will deal primarily with the use of communication technologies to transform teaching and learning environments within the United States. To accomplish this, this review will draw from practitioner's journals and resources to focus on the very specific question of what literature discusses the transformative nature of distance learning as it affects the teaching and learning environment created by the teacher and developed by the student. Distance learning, we will posit, has nothing to do with distance as the majority of colleges with distance learning options will attest. Most distance learning students live within a few miles of the institution from which they are taking their online courses, in fact.

Distance learning has to do with time, and students who involve themselves in distance learning courses do so for the flexibility of their schedules around developed structures within their lifestyles. As a result, distance learning has opened educational opportunities to people who would not have otherwise been able to attend continuing education classes. Distance learning has opened degree possibilities to people who would never have otherwise considered returning to school to accomplish a Master's degree or finish a Bachelor's degree. This influx of students has been warmly received by institutions that would have otherwise not been able to accommodate such large numbers of interested applicants or pay full-time salaries to the number of professors needed onsite to manage the courseloads.

Distance learning serves a purpose separate from institutional and student prerogatives, however. It contributes to the transformation of human consciousness in the Walter J. Ong sense of extending our understanding of geography, of reinterpreting our engagement of the text, and of transforming our social relationships along with our idea of community.

A Brief History of Distance Learning

Distance learning, according to a Public Broadcasting System (PBS) study (2003), has existed since the written word—it is what upset Plato so much in the *Phaedrus* when he argued that writing was a *pharmakon*, both a poison and a cure. Moreover, Paul the Apostle used it when he wrote letters back to the Christian communities he had formed in his travels; indeed, Julius Caesar engaged in it when he wrote of his exploits for the people of Rome.

The name given to it in the 1800s was correspondence study, and that appellation remained through the end of the 20th century as postal-based programs like the first university distance education plan developed in 1850 at the University of London evolved into the radio courses of the 1920s, the filmed courses of the 1930s, the tele-courses of the 1950s and 60s, the online courses of the 1980s, and the web-based courses of the 1990s (*TEC,* 2003). In 1971, when Intel invented the first microprocessor and sent the first email, the door swung open to a revolutionary new distance learning medium that would provide not only instant transmission of course materials to a global audience but also instantly create micro-communities functionally interacting with one another around the planet.

Though the Internet did not become popularly used by educational institutions until the early 1990s, the two great promises of the Internet were, in the early 1970s, already realized in their nascent form—that of its being a resource database and that of its being a tool of mediated communication.

Distance vs. Distributed Learning

In many cases, institutions start distance learning initiatives when their professors engage in the building of hybrid courses. Michael Badolato (2002) says that

> what we are coming to know as a *hybrid* course is simply a course whose elements are distributed. The distribution of learning is not a fundamentally new concept. Historically, as now, students meet in classrooms to hear lectures and participate in discussions, conduct research using a variety of materials in a library, arrange appointments with their teacher for extra help, study with other students at mutually agreed upon times, and use an assortment of media including, but not limited to, wall maps, physical models, microfiche and film. Classroom activities typically happen at a scheduled place and time (synchronously), independent research often occurs outside of normally scheduled classroom hours and at the learner's discretion (asynchronously), the learner might interact with some form of communications media for access to content in

> the form of a computer or television program (online), or in face-to-face contact with teachers and classmates (on-ground). In this sense, learning is distributed across people, places, objects, and timeframes that are connected through curricular intent or other design. Technology alone, therefore, is irrelevant to distributed learning. Technology can, however, provide a means of managing and a lens for focusing the events of learning and, depending on the sophistication of the system, enrich the experience.

The challenge, then, comes in the ability to package course materials in an online environment in such a way that they allow communities of learners to interact with one another through them.

The development of integrated course templates at this point was inevitable. In 1995, Web Course Tools (WebCT) came into existence under the aegis of its designer Murray Goldberg at the University of British Columbia. Two years after that, in 1997, Blackboard .com came into existence "to transform the Internet into a powerful environment for teaching and learning." The idea of distance learning was transformed into distributed learning. This means, according to the California State University Center for Distributed Learning, "using a wide range of information technologies to provide learning opportunities beyond the bounds of the traditional classroom." Distributed learning combines the use of tools like email, discussion boards, audio and video files, databases to filter web information, and the like, with the use of transformative pedagogical strategies and methods in order to create teaching and learning spaces that are fundamentally different from the institutional structure of the classroom or the multi-mediated tele-courses they replaced. Distributed learning in the hands of growing clusters of institutions forming material-sharing consortiums has provided both an integrated resource and a means by which to instantly engage others around the world pursuing the same interests across the disciplines.

2. How Does an Institution Develop a Model for Distance Learning?

Many educational institutions from the elementary school level to higher education have implemented some form of an online distance learning initiative over the past decade, with those schools taking the lead that already had imbedded within their infrastructure some form of distance learning program (CHEA 2000). Two questions are crucial to the development of any distance learning initiative: Why is an institution willing to advance in the directions of distance-learning? and What does it mean for that institution to do so?

A spectrum exists concerning those schools beginning their engagement of computer-mediated educational platforms that has at either end one of the following faces: those with a distance learning tradition that already have well-developed programs in place and merely need to transition into web-based, interactive learning platforms and those that have no tradition of distance learning from which to draw and begin their experimentation in distributed learning through the development of technological initiatives in face-to-face classroom settings. This latter kind of institution starts with what experts call hybrid classes, which used to be classes where students met three times a week and used course templates to increase their interaction with one another, with their professor, and with their learning materials. The trend now moves towards decreasing face-to-face meeting time in order to increase real time outside of class spent working through the online course materials and interacting with others. Mary Ellen Lago (2000) notes a distinction being made by the University of Central Florida between e-courses and hybrid courses, where the former entails students being in class full-time while using online resources and the latter entails students being in class only one hour a week and spending the other two hours interacting through the Internet. Of course, this seems counter-intuitive—one would expect an e-course to be fully online instead of actually using mixed-methods, and one would think a hybrid course would be both online and in the classroom. Distinctions like these, however, do not rest on any standard; each school that starts a technology and learning initiative coins its own original definitions. We are in for a world of conflicting terminologies, it would seem.

Many of these models appear not only in higher education but in elementary and secondary educational institutions as computers become more pervasive in

those face-to-face learning environments and as states begin to respond to federal initiatives like the No Child Left Behind Act. In some areas, virtual high schools (VHS) are forming around the model of university-type distributed education. "A VHS school provides one teacher to teach a VHS class and a site coordinator for all VHS students," Burck Smith (1998) writes. The way it works is that

> up to 20 students at that school may take a VHS class. Each participating school provides on-site Internet access, but students may access VHS from home as well. Students may choose from courses such as statistics, hands-on-physics, or introduction to folklore. Students and teachers post questions and responses, access materials, and complete assignments online. When needed, students and teachers interact one-on-one via e-mail. (Smith)

While VHS does not offer core courses like Algebra or English, it does offer things that a physical high school might not, like applied physics and folklore. In this instance distance learning offers something that site-based programs cannot. The idea of distance learning being about time and not distance, in this case, gets expanded to include opportunities for acquiring knowledge in esoteric areas rather than in traditional or mainstream areas.

Of course, distance learning can still overcome distance in areas where students would otherwise have to relocate into boarding schools in a central location. In isolated communities like Navajo Mountain along the Utah-Arizona border,

> 38 high school students…are taking classes via two-way television, interacting with instructors and other students at sites hundreds of miles away. Both instructors and students use e-mail to transmit homework and completed assignments to each other. They use the Internet daily to enhance classroom assignments. The new-age classrooms are part of a distance learning system formed by a partnership between the Utah Education Network, College of Eastern Utah and the San Juan School District. (Bird, 1998)

This model demonstrates two things: One, technologies are not necessarily being imposed upon institutions because they are the newest things in education; instead, institutions use them as solutions to problems long dealt with and much labored over. Two, institutions do not introduce these technologies in isolation from strong networks of support; rather, they establish partnerships and collaborative environments between non-profit service institutions and for-profit corporations along a distributive learning framework.

Consortium Building–Building outside the School

While educational institutions sought in the past to form vertical consortiums (or consortiums in which all the various entities helpful to a single institution could be mobilized), a growing trend now exists in the direction of educational institutions to also seek horizontal consortiums (or consortiums in which other institutions engaged in similar activities can be mobilized) for the purpose of sharing resources, training, and expertise. Virtual high schools and virtual universities lead the way on this, as Dan Page (1998) explains, "By using a model of regional cooperation, a broader range of resources may be brought to bear to harness existing and emerging technology and to reach a wider array of students with the broadest possible course offerings from many different providers of education."

Page quotes Pat Jones of Western Governors University as saying, "We are working with colleges and universities, and we are also working with industry, with companies that offer training courses for their employees." Of course, Western Governors University is unique in its own right, as its mission statement explains, "Western Governors University…offers online degrees based completely on competencies—your ability to demonstrate your skills and knowledge on a series of assessments—not on required courses. We make it possible for you to accelerate your 'time to degree' by providing recognition for your expertise" (*http://www.wgu.edu*). If the model of Western Governors University provides any indication of what to expect, then our students of tomorrow will indeed have reached the point of being able to choose when and how they will be assessed and to what purpose to put those tools of assessment. Growing interdependence in educational consortiums will begin to produce not only a new kind of student, but also a new kind of credentialing.

Stakeholder Development—Building within the School

Any institution engaging in the development of an instructional technology initiative should work with the stakeholders to develop a plan for implementation. Many institutions within the literature started out with lone-ranger efforts by a few dedicated faculty in isolated disciplines to integrate technology into their classrooms and into the way they presented their course

materials. When institutions that previously had no history of distance learning began to offer courses online, these lone-rangers were the first to volunteer or be drafted into the online teaching profession. It soon became evident to anyone engaged in the teaching of an e-learning community that merely posting the syllabus on a website was no longer a sufficient claim on having an online course. For an online course to engage its participants in their own learning processes, the instructor had to develop the kind of dialogic environment that makes a learning community functionally viable—otherwise, he or she might as well return to the level of correspondence learning and do away with the discussion boards.

The members of the learning communities, of course, include students, and for this reason any training initiative that prepares instructors for online or hybrid teaching should include training initiatives that prepare students for online learning. The trends, according to the indicators within the literature, will soon move in the direction, then, of community formation programs instead of just faculty formation through the hiring of educational technologists who can teach instructors the mechanics of WebCT or Blackboard and take care of site administration in the meantime. In spite of this reality, there are still many institutions within the literature that have as their comprehensive vision the training of the faculty in the use of instructional technologies in context with their face-to-face courses without a concurrent training initiative on the part of the student stakeholders. *T.H.E. Journal*, in fact, demonstrates in its March 2003 issue the need for technology integration throughout education, but it focuses entirely on the faculty and administrative side of the issue whereas *Technology & Learning*'s March 2003 issue concerning web literacy focuses on the formation of the students. Eventually, we will see the emphasis shift from faculty training to community training across the board if only because the professorate will absorb these materials either through attrition and rehiring or through retraining.

Institutions engage in the idea of faculty formation outside of student formation under the belief that the faculty must first be trained on how to effectively use these technologies if they are to be able to make use of them with the students. Schools expect students, on the other hand, to figure out for themselves how to use these technologies, and anyone signing up for a distance learning course or a course which employs the technologies in conjunction with face-to-face teaching is expected to take the responsibility for learning the technologies upon him- or herself. This has led more than one student at Kenrick Glennon School of Theo-logy in St.Louis, Missouri, for instance, to feel like he had enrolled in two courses—one in the discipline for which he had signed up and the other in the technologies used to improve the teaching and learning environment within which the school offered that discipline.

Siemens (2002) writes that "before discussing an e-learning model, it's important to note some of the characteristics needed in order for e-learning to thrive in an organization" and presents what he calls "seven critical aspects that must be present": **commitment** from the top, an environment that encourages **experimentation** and accepts failure, **a collaboration**/resource sharing attitude**, an availability** of resources for those instructors wanting to "play" with technology and learning, a **change management** strategy to ensure e-learning is adopted with "minimal discomfort," development **support for instructors,** and **student support**. While these are all valuable ideas within the development of an instructional technology initiative, only the last of these deals with students, and the idea of student support should itself be expanded into more steps.

To address both student and faculty needs, a well-developed strategy for instructional technology implementation should include an institutional vision of its future as a producer of pedagogical inquiry through the use of appropriate technologies. It holds no value for an institution to invest in data projectors for its classrooms, laptops for its faculty and students, wireless or wired networks for its grounds, and instructional courseware for its learning communities if the institution itself has no clear vision of where it wants itself to be three or five years hence. While developments in technology and teaching are moving faster than institutional programming committees can meet, a working technology initiative should expect its implementation strategies to change over the semesters because of its activity rather than its inactivity. The very students being trained on technologies in conjunction with their face-to-face classroom settings one semester may enroll in online courses the following semester as it is from the face-to-face pool of students that many online students come.

New Institutional Directions

For this reason institutions have to grow beyond the idea that the posting of an online syllabus and course materials is commensurate with the establishment of interactive, web-based learning since the post-

ing of resource materials only provides a separate place for the students to retrieve and print their documents. An institutional commitment to the use of instructional technologies would mean its hiring an educational technologist to train instructors on an individual basis over the course of an entire semester while providing the instructor with a course load reduction and micro-grant monies to invest in technologies appropriate for the discipline being targeted. A vision, then, can grow out of this kind of commitment as policies are made to ensure the training of new instructors within a year of their arrival; to ensure the continued education of students on media literacy and ethics; to ensure the academic office budget includes continuing funds to pay for course templates, software and hardware; to ensure the institution itself maintains within its budget funding to support network and email servers and to support individual grants sought by various departments for specific projects.

In the United States, many of these new technologies will one way or another be absorbed into institutional practices. In one instance this will happen through the normalization of the technologies within the affected disciplines as society becomes more conscious of the relative value various tools might have for teaching and learning. Students will increasingly bring laptops to class and instructors will consider the digestive beeps and whirrs of the hard drives as normal classroom noise; some of the innovative teachers might even take advantage of the dual nature of the classroom as lecture hall and computer lab to engage students in online programs built especially for the course either downloaded through wireless Internet or beamed through infrared sensors from laptop to laptop.

Secondly, this will happen through the invisibility factor, a phenomenon by which we internalize the processes of the equipment we use so that it becomes second nature to us—like reading or writing. A book on the desk is a perfectly normal form of technology, that is to say, while our ability to read through its pages remains invisible to us. In the same way, the ability of the youth to engage these technologies as producers rather than consumers will become markedly apparent, and the job of training the students will no longer rest on the instructor outside of the occasional esoteric question. The classrooms of tomorrow will be fundamentally different from those of today, and institutionalized education platforms will evolve to address the new social realities about the ways individuals live within the world and the ways communities interact with one another and engage one another in teaching and learning.

Regardless of how normal or invisible these technologies become, there will remain a real cost in terms of dollars to the institution that far exceeds the routine expenses of print media. "Internet instruction has nearly all the problems of traditional instruction, plus the difficulties intrinsic in doing something different within an organization that has stayed the same, as most colleges have. If colleges are to get serious about the Internet, they must commit funds, people and time, and must change the nature of the organization" (Levin, 1999, qtd. in Beatty-Guenter, 2001). For these reasons, Siemens (2002) argues that we need a new educational model that will transform institutionalized education to meet the various needs of the new generation of geographically ubiquitous students. Ideally, this model will increase learning in the classroom, for "a significant benefit of distributed learning is the ability to improve the learning experience of both traditional and non-traditional learners. As online resources are developed, students in a physical classroom and on the Internet have access to the quality resources" (Siemens, 2002). Few have accomplished this outside of the University of Phoenix and Abathaca, he argues, as most of the exploration others do in these areas does not seriously transform the teaching and learning experience to match societal trends.

How to Begin a Distributed Learning Initiative

The way to begin, then, includes the use of small group exploration within each organization to "explore and play with new technologies, trends, and concepts" in order to create "a safe environment for interested people to experiment and evaluate [the] potential organizational impact of new developments" (Siemens, 2002). Upon this experimental group's completion of its initial experiences, an evaluation system has to be established to determine the real results of the process and how it can be practically made to better fit institutional goals (that are also in the process of being assessed). Following the evaluation period, the changes should be introduced systemically and receive institutional support in the necessary areas. Resistance should be anticipated and dealt with in practical terms since "resistance to technology is more about natural resistance to change than it is about technology" (Siemens, 2002). Furthermore, according to the Missouri Department of Higher Education (2000), as an example of recommendations that might be made by other edu-

cational authorities, distance learning and web-based courses and programs should be assessed and evaluated regularly using the following guidelines:

> 1. Institutions should assess student capability to succeed in distance education programs and should apply this information to admission and recruiting policies and decisions.
> 2. Institutions should evaluate the educational effectiveness of their distance education programs and web-based courses (including assessments of student learning outcomes, student retention, and student satisfaction) to ensure comparability to campus-based programs.
> 3. Institutions should ensure that the performance of distance learning faculty and faculty involved in providing web-based courses is evaluated in a fashion that is at least as rigorous as the performance of their peers who do not teach distance learning courses.
> 4. Institutions should ensure, to a reasonable extent, the integrity of student work.

3. Professional Education vs. Liberal Arts Education

Because post-secondary distance learning education divides into degree seeking and vocational training students, the instructor must tailor the course to the specific needs of his or her environment. Siemens (2002) writes that several changes have occurred in society to make e-learning an important part of the lifelong educational experience. Students, he argues, have changed as more and more non-traditional students find their way to the colleges and universities searching for certification or degree conferral. Jobs, too, have changed, as people no longer expect to find lifelong employment in a given industry and need to diversify their skills. These practical skills or knowledge make people more competitive in the business world, and corporations pay for specific continuing education initiatives as a way of investing in the success of their workforce in order to improve their on-the-job performance.

In a society inundated with information, the real value of the teacher has shifted from being able to provide lecture content to being able to package that content in a digestible manner. Digital learning platforms like WebCT and Blackboard were created to assist in the packaging of course content and in the providing of teaching and learning space, and these are relatively simple for the non-techie instructor or student to use. As we have seen, geography no longer governs competition for students but rather extra-geographical factors like course offerings and the speed with which one may matriculate through a program. Instructors teaching in virtual environments, then, have to be cognizant of their students' needs and have to adapt their teaching to the specific needs of the program within which they are teaching.

Gina Palmer (2000) expresses a developing trend in the rise of corporate universities to fulfill these particular needs. "Corporate universities," she explains, "are springing up to serve the needs of working adults, and traditional universities will find themselves either competing with them for these students, or collaborating with them to create innovative business programs. According to Corporate University Xchange, more than 62% of corporate universities have alliances with colleges, and by 2003, this is expected to increase to 85% So the opportunities for partnerships are there." A corporate university is run by the corporation to fulfill its own continuing education needs and may, like Motorola University, have physical campuses around the world while others, like Dell University, have gone entirely virtual. Palmer concludes that "one of the biggest trends is the explosion of alliances between corporations and colleges, as companies and non-profits look for innovative ways to offer continual education."

The model of the corporate university has also inspired other institutional in-service training programs like those within private and public education or in governmental organizations. In the first instance, Keith Oelrich (2001) explains that

> teachers who have access to professional development in a virtual school environment can choose courses that meet their specific training needs. A school district with a virtual school can offer access to a workshop on an as-needed basis to a teacher who needs to update a specific teaching skill, such as classroom management strategies. This can be done at a much lower cost than developing and implementing a district-wide program that might not be appropriate for all teachers.

In the second, according to Sally Johnstone (2003),

> One of the largest collaborative distance learning activities operating right now is the e-Army University. It began enrolling students two years ago [in 2001] and they now have had over 50,000 enrollments. A group of colleges and universities each offer their own individual degree or certificate programs but many of the student support services are offered through a portal created and managed by a team within IBM Corp.

These examples demonstrate a growing reality in institutional continuing education—no single institution has to be responsible for maintaining all the resources necessary for successful in-service training initiatives or continuing education initiatives because each can now viably function in a partnering relationship with institutions spread over great geographic distances.

Not all institutions operate the same, of course, so depending upon the nature of the institutional vision, the needs of the teaching and learning environment may vary considerably. Howard University's Divinity School, for instance, has both a spiritual and cultural tradition of face-to-face interaction in establishing a pastoral program. Martel Perry, the director of the International Faith Community and Information and Services Clearinghouse (*http://www.husdsupport.org/services.htm*), says,

> Distance education means a lot of different things to different people. What it does not mean to us in our community is e-mail and text. That is way too low-tech for our people. Our folks want to be able to see your face, to interact with you, to hear your voice. That means that we've had to think in very sophisticated ways about how to deliver courses, sermons, and information to folks. We needed to be high tech and high touch.

Dean Clarence G. Newsome agreed with this assessment, "We are not an engineering school. We are a divinity school, so we need to be able to appreciate the nuances of communication. We need to be able to feel you smile" (qtd. in Sanford, 2000). Similarly, other American theological institutions without a strong tradition of distance learning, like Kenrick-Glennon Seminary, are struggling to reinterpret the nature of formation programs governed around the disembodied presence of students as they interact with one another through the digital medium. It is one thing to credential the knowledge and learning of individuals within a particular core course of an institution's degree program, but it is quite another to credential the knowledge and learning of individuals within a program of ministry formation when much of their interaction is asynchronous and virtual. Consortiums of theological schools like that organized by the Wabash Center in Crawfordsville, Indiana, through its stewardship of a grant from the Lilly Foundation, or individuals like Sr. Angela Ann Zukowski at the University of Dayton, Ohio, who co-authored with Pierre Babin a book entitled *The Gospel in Cyberspace* (1999), are seeking ways to make this kind of teaching and learning viable not only for the seminary but also for parish ministry. As with all institutional initiatives, the use of the teaching and learning strategies and the assessment of student learning should be commensurate with the institutional vision—howsoever that vision may evolve in the process.

4. Preparation of Professorate

Our understanding of how secondary schools make use of these technologies helps us understand how post-secondary institutions may do so. Already, secondary schools augment their courses through the inclusion of instructional technology templates like Blackboard and WebCT, and some, like the Florida Virtual School and the Wichita Public Schools (Morris, 2001) have teamed with parents interested in home schooling to provide a cohesive academic program within an e-learning community environment. The instructors trained in the technologies, however, may not have any idea about how to transfer technical ability into sound pedagogy. In fact, even as late as 2001, the training received by secondary school faculty indicates that the institutional visions of the schools respond inadequately to the social realities of the community. "In the latest Quality Education Data study," according to Levinson and Grohe (2001, February), "80% of teachers now use the Internet for evaluating curriculum materials, but only 18% of teachers indicated that using the Internet changed the way they teach." If the technologies are not transformative, then there is no point in spending $18,000 to equip a classroom when a $59 overhead projector will suffice.

Teachers in the secondary schools have one thing going for them that teachers in the post-secondary institutions may not have, and that is a parallel degree in educational theory and practice. For this reason, post-secondary instructors may approach their classrooms from a pedagogical perspective (i.e., the lecture method) that precludes their ability to adapt readily to new teaching and learning environments. It is a truism in education that before teachers can effectively teach, they have to be familiar with the media through which they teach regardless of how well they understand their material. In the past, teachers expected face-to-face instruction through the institutional environment of a classroom setting in which the teacher stood before two or three dozen students who took notes or engaged in classroom activities. This medium of exchange had its various permutations, but it was the primary medium for both kinds of teachers—those who were teachers first and found a subject through which they could engage student learning, and those who were researchers first and found themselves confronted with a classroom of students at the institution that employed them. The new technologies created alternative media through which teachers could engage their students, and the early adopters discovered a variety of ways in which these technologies could provide useful methods for transforming teaching and learning environments. Of course, not all of them discovered these methods at once or had disciplines that seemed as conducive to their use as others. In order for many faculty members to make use of these technologies, in fact, they have to first have a use for them. This is where the instructional technologist comes in, for not all faculty members can divide their time between teaching their courses and learning appropriate technologies that complement their pedagogical goals. A great deal of teacher resistance, moreover, has come out of their not knowing how their technologies can be helpful to them in the classroom and from fear of having to start over in their understanding of classroom pedagogy.

There is a secret to the idea of instructional technology, however, and that is the idea of anticipated irrelevance. Now, we are *not* saying that technology does not make a difference—it has a definite and transformative effect on the teaching and learning environment by allowing the participants within that environment to recreate their learning experiences in ways that would otherwise have been impossible. Marshall McLuhan is still right on this one—the medium is still the message. What we *are* saying is that after the transformation in the inherent nature of the teaching and learning environment has taken place, the technologies themselves become less and less relevant and take a back seat to the pedagogies they helped to engender. Just as the medium of printed textbooks became a primary method of student interaction with their course materials in a way that gave the idea of the textbook an almost hegemonic authority over the student's understanding of the discourse, the digital medium creates an environment within which, and a worldview through which, the student comes to normalize his or her relationship to the discourse. It is in this sense that the medium becomes the message, pedagogically speaking. Ben Shneiderman, a professor in the University of Maryland Computer Science Department, adds that "the goal is not to get technology in education…[but] to enable students to become creative and critical thinkers, who know how to communicate and collaborate. It's not enough to teach our kids about surfing the Net. We have to teach them to make waves" (Murphy, 1999). There are lots of ways to do that, but for faculty members just starting out, Shneiderman suggests a rather low-tech approach. There is no one killer application, and the best return on a university's technology investment is promoting effective use of e-mail. Although video and electronic classrooms can do amazing things, they cost plenty and take planning. By contrast, e-mail applications such as listservs and bulletin boards require less planning and resources (Murphy, 1999).

In distributed learning environments, in fact, discussion boards and email have proven to be the primary means of student and teacher interaction outside of the classroom setting. They are usually the only means within an exclusively online environment. As the medium through which that interaction occurs becomes more familiar to everyone involved in the course, the medium itself is demystified, and the content of the exchange is what gets noticed.

The area in which the technology is quite relevant, then, rests in its being the medium through which social communion is made. This is what the instructional technologist seeks to impart upon the teacher, especially the teacher of an exclusively online course who may see no need to vary the teaching style between his or her teaching online and his or her teaching face-to-face. In a 1999 Penn State study, the researchers concluded that

> the role of an instructor in distance education is likely to be somewhat different than in resident instruction and requires some specialized skills

> and strategies. Distance education instructors must plan ahead, be highly organized, and communicate with learners in new ways. They need to be accessible to students, work in teams when appropriate, and play the role of facilitator or mentor in their interactions with learners. Finally, they may have to assume more administrative responsibilities than is true in a residential model. ("An Emerging Set")

Most importantly, an instructor has to learn how to interpret the new teaching and learning environment in order to make it more efficacious for the students who inhabit it. Stan Bird (1998) quotes Joseph Wilkes, a program specialist with the U.S. Department of Education, as saying that instructors are the key to success in distance learning. Wilkes argues, "No matter how much technology you put in, any distance learning class is only as good as the classroom facilitator. That teacher who sits in the classroom is the most important aspect of distance learning. It has to be a good teacher, a highly motivated one." Otherwise, the only thing the students have to keep the course together is their interactions with the weekly posted readings. They end up with what Socrates argues in the *Phaedrus*, with a text which has lost its father, the one who can interpret its meaning and give life to the content when it is obfuscating for the learner.

That need of the teacher to evolve is not merely predicated upon the fact that these technologies are pervasive and require evolution. Some pedagogical research findings indicate that students who engage in active and interactive responses to a given discipline have more opportunities to engage that discipline in different ways. The International Society of Technology in Education (ISTE) (*http://www.iste.org/*), which also publishes a practitioner's journal called *Learning & Leading with Technology*, moreover, has provided "a response to the recent research that shows that student-centered, constructivist, and collaborative learning is more effective learning than the traditional top-down, lecture-based, text-driven model" (ISTE, 2001 qtd. in Russell, Donohoe, & McCarron, 2001). The grid in Table 1 shows the difference between the traditional learning environments of the offline world and the new learning environments of the technologically connected world.

Teachers engaging their students within new learning environments are expected to have better success at conveying the materials than teachers who lead their students through traditional learning environments. The new learning environments, more than merely student-centered, actually help to create a negotiated reality between the various texts within the course—those posted by the students, those posted by the instructor, and those content modules that provide the substance of the course readings and materials through which the students are asked to engage the discipline.

Institutions have found many ways to develop faculty training programs, and most of them require the hiring of a full-time instructional technologist to provide technological teaching and support for the faculty members. That is only part of the work of the instructional technologist, for he or she must also strive to strengthen in very specific ways the pedagogical goals of the instructors being taught. Some programs, like the Curriculum Development Initiative at Seton Hall University, are, according to Mary Balkun et al. (2002),

> designed to help instructors incorporate writing into their courses in ways that are meaningful and pedagogically sound. The aims of the pro-

Traditional Learning Environments	New Learning Environments
Teacher-centered instruction	Student-centered learning
Single-sense stimulation	Multisensory stimulation
Single-path progression	Multipath progression
Single media	Multimedia
Isolated work	Collaborative work
Information delivery	Information exchange
Passive learning	Active/exploratory/inquiry-based learning
Factual, knowledge-based learning	Critical thinking and informed decision-making
Reactive response	Proactive/planned action
Isolated, artificial context	Authentic, real-world context

Table 1: Contrasting Learning Environments (ISTE, 2001 qtd. in Russell, Donohoe, & McCarron, 2001)

> gram are threefold: to increase the amount of writing students do in their classes and thereby improve the quality of that writing; to provide instructors with materials, training, and a support system; and to initiate change in the institutional culture.… In order to accomplish this student-learning objective, the first goal of the project is to help participating instructors learn how to construct effective writing assignments; the second is to develop an efficient system for commenting upon and grading assignments through the use of information technology. The final objective is the development of materials—templates, modules, models—that can be used by any instructor at the university who wants to incorporate writing into his/her course curricula.

If the instructional technologist does his or her job right, then the skills that person brings to the faculty are ultimately transferred to them in such a way as to preclude the continued need for that position. In our experience, though, the more an educational technologist tries to work himself or herself out of a job, the more that person is worked into it, for instructional technologies operate on the basis of graduated complexity—the more an instructor knows how to do, the more that instructor will desire to do and find that the means to accomplish new goals are already within his or her grasp if only a workshop or a training opportunity could be set up with the technologist.

The effective technologist, therefore, has to first be an educator, and this explains why so many schools of education have begun to sponsor departments of educational technology. The profile has changed, and instead of looking for network administrators who know only how to react to equipment malfunctions, educational institutions now seek teachers who can teach teachers. If nothing else, then, the introduction of new teaching methods and new teaching media has created one significant difference in the way academic institutions approach education. These institutions are hiring in-house educators who can provide pedagogical training to faculty who might otherwise lack it, which is a phenomenon most apparent in institutions of higher education where professors usually have doctorates in their subject matter but no training in the art of education. Even if the technologies had never come along, the hiring of educators to teach educational methods to educators would have been a good idea. As one professor puts it,

> Despite my apprehension and anticipation of my own struggle with technology, I decided to make technology a strong component of a course called Instructional Design, a required course for juniors who are preparing for student teaching.... The response was overwhelmingly positive, even from those students who had expressed the most apprehension initially. Some students did not have internet [sic] access at home and had to complete all assignments in the college computer lab. Despite their apprehension and the inconvenience of the online aspect of the course for some, students reported use of all features of the course and an enriched experience in the course. Some of their comments indicated that the technology aspect of the course convinced them to rethink their views about teaching and learning. (Seelaus, 2002)

Rethinking and reinventing teaching and learning environments keeps education relevant to changing social realities; for this reason more than any other the professorate should engage new media as an opportunity to engage the new learners.

5. Course Management and Evaluation

Managing courses online requires, as we have seen, a different kind of course management technique than does the management of face-to-face courses. According to the Missouri Department of Higher Education (2000), "distance learning courses and programs, including web-based courses, should maintain high academic integrity." The department gives eight rules that an institution should follow in its development and continuous assessment of online courses:

> 1. Institutions should ensure both the rigor of courses and the quality of instruction.
> 2. Institutions should ensure that the technology used is appropriate to the nature and objectives of each course.
> 3. Institutions should ensure the currency of materials, programs, and courses.
> 4. Each institution's distance education policies regarding ownership of materials, faculty compensation, copyright issues, and utilization of

revenue derived from the creation and production of software, telecourses, or other media products should be clear and in writing.
5. Institutions should provide appropriate faculty support services specifically related to distance education.
6. Institutions should provide appropriate technological and pedagogical training for faculty who teach distance education courses/web-based courses.
7. Faculty should engage in timely and adequate interaction with students and, when appropriate, should encourage interaction among students.
8. Institutions should ensure that distance learning courses and web-based courses apply toward degrees and that there is sufficient explanation to the distance learner how those courses apply toward degrees.

As in face-to-face courses taught on the campus, there is both an institutional and professorial responsibility to the management of courses offered through online, or computer mediated communication, by the college or university. Newman, Webb, and Cochran (1994) quote F. Henri (1991) as having identified five dimensions on which computer mediated communication can be evaluated. These include their being participatory (where the quality of the participation rather than the quantity of postings is measured), social, interactive, cognitive, and metacognitive (they should lead to cognitive inquiry about cognitive processes). According to Levinson and Grohe (2001, July), they should also allow for individualization of student learning, provide timely learning opportunities, be customizable so that different teachers can repeat the course content over time and ensure anytime, anywhere access for students separated by time and distance.

One danger in the first time offering of online courses for instructors new to the medium is to feel disorganized in their management of students with whom they have no face-to-face relationships. Developing a course map and posting all the course materials before the first day of the course helps to adapt to this environment. The management of the course can then shift from the creation of content to the discussion of content, from ensuring that all students have the materials to developing means by which students can interact with those materials. This is not to say that the first time an institution offers an online course that it should be handed to the instructor as a rigidly packaged educational unit or that it should be delivered to the student in ways that do not allow for flexibility in student interaction or response. The first time an institution offers an online course, the students who sign up for it should be made aware that they are helping to pilot the program, and the institution should allow the course to be offered even if only a handful of students decide to take it. This will help the instructor train in an experimental environment and strengthen the way the course is managed (and the students are taught) in later semesters.

6. E-learning Communities

Distance learning in its correspondence learning phase emphasized a one-on-one relationship between the student and the instructor, and this actually limited student interaction within a community of learners because each student was counseled in the discipline without the benefit of connecting with other students. Correspondence learning could reach only so far as the instructor's providing feedback to each of his or her students in a linear environment where the student was isolated from other members of his or her "class." Distributed learning that involves large numbers of students under the tutelage of a single professor or a number of professors has the opportunity to embrace what is called an e-learning community, which is a virtual community gathered together for a single educational purpose. While distance learning initiatives hailed the ability of a student to work at his or her own pace, e-learning communities emphasize a shared learning responsibility in which the more capable students strengthen the abilities of those who struggle through the learning materials.

The important thing about the formation of e-learning communities is, according to David Stoloff (2002) that the instructor does not have to take full responsibility for initiating all of the classroom discussions even though maintaining a discussion requires "vigilance, nurturance, and novelty." Aside from the discussion forums created by the professor, the students will take the discussion in unanticipated directions as they explore tangential ideas in their develop-

ing an understanding of the main areas of inquiry. Joe Pauley (2001) writes that the use of a discussion board has the added benefit of reinforcing

> desired writing skills in a couple of different ways. For one, while students will likely find the medium itself as stimulating as any other mode of electronic discourse, they will probably be more cautious when it comes to reacting in a spontaneous fashion, thereby eliminating the possibility of senseless oversights…[Two,] the messages are typically left in what are known as "threads," whereby any participating individual's comments, past and present, can be accessed by all at any time. Unlike a "live" classroom scenario wherein the conversation disappears as the words come to pass, this medium allows the words to be captured for future examination and possible elaboration… In this "virtual" environment, everybody has the opportunity to engage in critical thinking, problem solving, written communication, and is able to work together in a collaborative manner.

In a sense, then, the e-community is very versatile and very permanent since they have opportunities to move within the discourse and they leave a trail marking wherever they have been. Interactive discussion boards, in this light at least, address Plato's main concern about the orphaned text because these texts can be questioned and new texts can be developed around the answers.

Offering courses in media competence as a core requirement of an academic program has allowed many institutions within the literature to successfully respond to the need for greater social responsibility as students engage one another within the classroom, within their e-learning communities and within society. Media competence, after all, has at its core the study of ethics rather than the study of technique, for technical ability without social responsibility provides very little use-value even in terms of our being able to achieve our personal goals within an increasingly interconnected global network. In the Technology, Ethics, and Society course taught online at Webster University, for instance, issues of intellectual property rights, online anonymity and privacy, and online access and training are discussed not as ends but as means by which to conceptualize human responsibility to very real online communities. The establishment of e-communities has a very powerful and important purpose, therefore, in the ability of students to form a relationship with the subject matter while forming online relationships with one another. An e-community, for that very reason, has to be treated like any real community concerning the social responsibility every member of that community has to one another. This idea of social responsibility in the online medium has led to the creation of courses in cyberethics and to the development of organizations devoted to instilling an understanding of such in all participants of the online medium.

The Cyber Citizen Partnership Conference, for example, aims "to bring together a body of proactive individuals who would create, launch and lead a program dedicated to teaching young computer users, their parents, and teachers smart, ethical, safe, and socially conscious online behavior" (Painter, 2001). Far from being a higher education phenomenon, computer ethics courses are being taught on every educational level. Diane Painter (2001), a technology resource teacher, implemented a cyberethics initiative in her elementary school. She writes,

> From what I learned at the Cyber Ethics Conference and the experiences I had with my students during the Cyber Safety and Netiquette lessons, I believe that we need to address the many safety and behavioral issues that have emerged with the development of the Internet. As a technology resource teacher, I need to continue to develop ways that we can best address those issues with children with the faculty at my school. We will want to help students make wise decisions regarding their use of technology—decisions that will keep them safe and demonstrate that they are responsible Cyber Citizens.

Perhaps the revisiting of ethics in the online world will also lead to a stronger sense of ethics in face-to-face interactions. That this issue is of increasing importance is evidenced by the rapidly growing resources on cyberethics and social relationships in the online medium. Among the books out there is one entitled *Cyberethics: Social and Moral Issues in the Computer Age*, edited by Robert M. Baird, Reagan Ramsower, and Stuart E. Rosenbaum (2000). Among the web resources is one out of Wales called the Center for the International Study of Cyberethics and Human Rights at *http://www.cischr.org/*. As we race into the future of cybercommunications and online interactivity, ethics as a field of study will have a reawakening through the lens of virtual reality.

7. Collaborative Learning

Collaborative learning is learning that takes place through meaningful interactions with others within the learning community. Collaboration works best when students work to accomplish a shared goal, and these shared goals in which students engage constitute the foundation of project-based learning. Project-based learning can be accomplished quite readily in the online environment since the Internet opens itself to every conceivable project idea that might be of interest to an instructor or to his or her class. The literature on project-based learning initiatives provides a wealth of ideas to stimulate the interaction of online learning communities regardless of the discipline or the level of education. Online museums, for instance, are, according to Jean Shields (2001), a useful resource for instructors trying to engage e-learning communities where there is no geographic contiguity between the participants in a class. Students anywhere in the world can gather at a virtual museum and asynchronously post their observations of the learning materials as a contribution to any discussion, and with the various kinds of online museums in existence, every discipline should find itself supported.

Project-based learning does not have to be collaborative, but in the best cases it is. "In project-based learning," according to Gwen Solomon (2003),

> students work in groups to solve challenging problems that are authentic, curriculum-based, and often interdisciplinary. Learners decide how to approach a problem and what activities to pursue. They gather information from a variety of sources and synthesize, analyze, and derive knowledge from it. Their learning is inherently valuable because it's connected to something real and involves adult skills such as collaboration and reflection. At the end, students demonstrate their newly acquired knowledge and are judged by how much they've learned and how well they communicate it. Throughout this process, the teacher's role is to guide and advise, rather than to direct and manage, student work.

Some of the projects Solomon offers as means by which to achieve this kind of collaborative learning include not only the web for access to online museums and libraries, but also physical sites remote from the institution. "Students," she says, "can create electronic compositions of art, music, or text collaboratively; participate in a simulation or virtual world; and work together to accomplish a real task or to improve global understanding." When the projects are completed, moreover, "all work can be published on the Web for review by real audiences, not just a single teacher, class, or school" (Solomon), and this helps to create more online educational materials for use by other learning communities.

Ken Royal (2001) offers another option of taking the class on an online expedition. "Debi McNabb at Lightspan.com," he writes, "handles all the introductions and becomes the third party in making the classroom-expedition match-up successful. Several expedition choices exist at Online Expeditions. At the time of this writing, some choices include a Trans-Oceanic Row, an African Edventure [sic], The Jason Project, the Bancroft Arnesen Expedition, and CAMELL (Circumnavigating Australia Motivating Environmentalists at Local Levels), and others." Since his writing of this, other expedition projects have gone online, which can be easily found through a tailored Google search. "The key in finding a fruitful collaboration," Royal continues,

> is to keep open to interesting possibilities. You never know when those may occur. It could be in an e-mail from a partner teacher, posted to the bulletin board at school, a statement made by a teacher you're meeting for the first time, something you've read in an article or online, or just one of those flashes of brilliance that seem to occur when teachers struggle for a 'what am I going to do next' answer just before the school day begins. Make sure you choose partners that will follow through and complete a project, and don't try more projects than you and your students can comfortably handle. Let your collaborations remove the classroom walls and bring the world to your students.

In a sense, any teacher can construct a collaborative learning opportunity through a handful of links on the Internet, but the important element within any kind of collaboration includes the human resources that can be found and used.

Users of Internet resources who fail to see people behind the creation of all the content on the web often lose sight of the human dimension. The Internet, in fact, is a heavily populated place even though most of the people online do not have immediate access to most of the other people online at the same time. Moreover, the Internet has an impressive range, depth, complexity, and originality, as Jamie McKenzie pointed out at the 2003 Midwest Educational Technology Conference. These two factors combine into an almost unlimited potential for shared projects. Depending upon the age of the student, this can be illustrated in different ways. For example, the secondary teachers could ask their students "How balanced is the news coverage? What evidence can you provide?" By designing their module around a website such as *http://www.totalnews.com/*, teachers can ask students to read the same story from different global perspectives. Middle school teachers could ask the question, "Who was the best ship's captain?" and follow the inquiry with questions concerning how the students decide what makes a good captain. Is it bravery? Is it compassion? Is it honesty? Is it navigational skill? Research can then be done by groups of students working together to locate relevant Internet sites to answer these questions.

Students at an early age can learn how to filter through what would otherwise appear to them as massive tracts of information. While they are filtering through some pages of information, they are putting faces on other pages, and the learning network grows accordingly. Students must become discerners of information, and opportunities provided them to interact with information are the best means by which to accomplish this.

In another keynote speech presented at the 2003 Midwest Educational Technology Conference, Alan C. November makes reference to putting a web camera in the classroom. This would change the way students react when they know that real poets are listening to them read poetry. In the era of the global economy, there is little reason not to have a global classroom. November states that *every* teacher should ask his or her students: (1) What is your favorite web site? (2) Are you meeting anyone online? in chat rooms? using instant messenger? and (3) Do you have a web site of your own? November emphasizes that being information literate and communication literate are the skills that will outlast particular technologies and provide our students with the opportunity to become producers rather than consumers of technologies they use in the classroom.

Corporations such as Intel (*http://www.intel.com/education*), moreover, have helped teachers design meaningful integrated lessons. Students at O'Leary Junior High in Twin Falls, Idaho, for instance, are featured on the Intel site in an article entitled "It's a Wild Ride." Teachers certified in mathematics, science, and language arts team teach to help students learn important concepts through studying, in this example, roller coasters. They have students accessing, investigating, expanding, applying, and contributing to knowledge. This is only one of the learning modules that can be accessed from that site, and the idea can be generalized to the sites of other educational corporations that showcase projects as ways in which to promote the use of their programs.

8. Student Attitudes

Students have mixed attitudes towards these technologies primarily because they, too, are learning them alongside their taking online courses and classes in which technologies are being used to transform the teaching and learning environment.

> Successful distance education learners need to be independent individuals who are motivated and have focused learning goals in mind. Most adult learners need flexibility in program structure because of their other responsibilities, such as full-time jobs and family needs. Adult learners typically want practical information that they can use immediately. Some need to be taught how to use the technology needed for program delivery and assignments. ("An Emerging Set," 1999)

In fact there is a high-attrition rate in online courses because students sign up for them thinking they can fit them into their already packed schedules and find that

they had unrealistic expectations in how much time they would have to allocate for their studies. This is because online courses generally require the same amount of reading as face-to-face courses even if online discussion is substituted for the face-time in the classroom. Moreover, reading and responding to materials on a discussion board can actually take longer than it would have taken for students to engage that discussion in a classroom if for nothing more than the simple fact that participating in a classroom usually requires little more than listening to others while participating in an online discussion requires downloading and keyboarding, skills that students might have to learn in conjunction with their course materials.

A growing body of literature addresses the idea of preventing attrition in online courses. Beatty-Guenter (2001) writes that "studies consistently report that dropout rates are higher and course completion rates are lower for distance education courses than in their face-to-face course equivalents. In general, course completion rates in the literature have been reported as lower than 'traditional' classroom delivery." While this has been a problem in general throughout online education, it has been a problem in particular in institutions that have tried to run developmental English and mathematics courses in an online format. A developmental writing course taught by Sebastian Mahfood at St. Charles Community College in St. Peter's, Missouri, in the spring of 2000, for example, experienced an attrition rate of 60% in the first eight weeks of the course. Developmental students are developmental for a reason—they need special attention paid not only to the reading, writing and calculating areas in which they exhibit fewer skills than are required for college-level course work, but also to their particular learning needs that might not be conducive to the online medium. That developmental students are not the only ones that have these problems is evidenced by the larger body of literature that studies non-developmental students who drop out of their online courses for the same reasons—an inability to operate within the medium for whatever reason.

To address in part the reasons online learners fail to complete an online course, we would argue that schools should require students to complete an orientation session, either face-to-face or online, prior to their being allowed to sign up for online courses if for nothing more than to make them aware of what it is they are signing up for. This would go a long way towards eliminating student frustration, which, according to Serwatka (2002), is "one of the main factors in improving student success in distance learning courses." Serwatka adds that an online instructor should try to maintain an effective and strong presence in the online course, for "if students feel they are empowered and have close contact with the instructor, then their learning experience in an online course will be a good one." If we can develop methods that help students engage their own learning in online environments, we will have come a long way towards improving the efficacy of the medium, for these examples show that it is not only the student upon whom the burden of the educational experience must fall, but also the institution and the instructor responsible for that student's educational experience.

Institutions and instructors can do a lot to help student achievement—in fact, that is why they exist in the first place—but there is no greater assistance an institution or instructor can offer than the incipient formation of the learning environment itself. If we provide environments conducive to student learning that meet the learning needs of the student community, then students will find them more amenable to their own life goals and, practically speaking, have greater success operating through them. Andy DiPaolo, the executive director and senior associate dean of the School of Engineering at the Stanford Center for Professional Development, has suggested that the way "universities become more consumer-oriented is by breaking course work into modules, allowing students to mix and match components to get what they need" (Moyer, 2000). Moyer adds that "it's like a cafeteria plan for education, but no one is offering this yet. DiPaolo called it 'chunky education.' For example, some students may not need an entire 30-hour course. They may only need two hours from that course and three hours from another course. Breaking education into 'chunks' would allow for this flexibility" (Moyer, 2000). This would not be a bad idea for corporate education programs, but it would require academic institutions to reconceptualize what it is they mean when a student receives course credit for, say, a three-week module on post-colonial literature within the framework of a 15-week course on literary theory.

Moreover, the modulation of course materials should still provide interactive environments for students engaged in any particular module within the context of a given course or program of study. According

to Beatty-Gunther (2001), "Carefully designed web based courses need to build in requirements for student-student interaction, not just student-instructor interaction. A well-designed interactive distance course would encourage students to be active learners, and allow for developmental conversations that will result in greater comprehension." Beatty-Gunther then provides a short review of the literature starting with Kubala (1998), who "notes that successful on-line learning requires that there be regular contact between the instructor and student, and that on-line students will participate in 'discussion' more than if they are in regular classroom situations." He continues that Carr and Carnevale (2000)

> cite evidence that "shy students" will participate more easily than if they were in traditional classrooms. The key factor is interactivity (Muirhead, 2000). Students and faculty members need to be able to interact around cognitive and affective dimensions. They do not need to be in the same space to do this, but they need to have established connectivities. Teaching is not just about learning objects and learning is not just about content.

Finally, Beatty-Gunther shows how Carr "uses the heading of frequent contact to describe successful distance education courses: professors e-mail their students frequently, remind them about assignments, and develop personal touches to make contact. Interactivity is the spark that fires a successful instructional activity." Beatty-Gunther's hypothesis, then, is that "the higher the levels of interactivity, the higher the course completion rates." More importantly, the higher the course completion rates, the more successful the online learning environment should prove.

9. Student Learning Styles

The most important factor in the shaping of student attitudes involves the way in which institutions and instructors shape online courses around the various student learning styles. Diaz and Carnal (1999) write that

> educators have, for many years, noticed that some students prefer certain methods of learning more than others. These traits, referred to as *learning styles*, form a student's unique learning preference and aid teachers in the planning of small-group and individualized instruction. If optimal student learning is dependent on learning styles, and these styles vary between distance and equivalent on-campus students, then faculty should be aware of these differences and alter their preparation and instructional methods accordingly.

In the traditional classroom, there were usually only a few ways an instructor could alter his or her methods within the time constraints of any given class. Online, a dozen different methods can be used at once and students can engage their coursework according to the method that best suits their learning style. "Faculty who are putting a traditional course online should consider administering a student learning style inventory to both their distance and traditional students," Diaz and Carnal argue, because "knowledge of student learning preferences can aid faculty in class preparation, designing class delivery methods, choosing appropriate technologies, and developing sensitivity to differing student learning preferences within the distance education environment." If institutions do not become cognizant of how to tailor their courses around various learning styles, then student attitudes toward the online experience will not be appreciably improved regardless of what else institutions might do.

So, what does this mean in practical terms? Learning style is a biologically and developmentally imposed set of personal characteristics that make the same teaching method effective for some and ineffective for others (Dunn, et al., 1989). Every student has a learning style, Rita Dunn and her colleagues say, which is the result of from many influences, and no learning style is either better or worse than another. Certain learning style characteristics are "biological [responses to sound, light, temperature, design, perception, intake, mobility needs, and persistence]; whereas, others are developed through experience, [sociological preferences, motivation, responsibility (conformity), and the need for structure]" (Restak, 1979; Thies, 1979). Dunn and Griggs (2000) have compiled the literature on

practical approaches to using learning styles in higher education. Their work represents information on applying learning styles to higher education, nursing, business, law, engineering, and liberal arts. One such approach that is highlighted in Dunn and Griggs includes alternative methods to learning challenging material. Because a great deal of diversity is inherent in learners, a need exists to address this diversity in classroom instruction in order to improve student performance. Research has shown that student motivation and performance improve when instruction is adapted to student learning preferences and styles (Miller, 2001). Individuals learn best in many different ways, sometimes using a variety of learning styles, but teachers and trainers may not always present information and learning experiences in the ways that best suit learners.

The use of appropriate methods to match a student's learning style with the educational curriculum is paramount to student success, not because students are incapable of engaging their learning materials in a manner that helps them best learn but precisely because they are quite capable of doing so. The debate within the literature has stemmed around the issue of whether the instructor should be a sage-on-the-stage or a guide-on-the-side; however, neither approach is very amenable to reaching the learning potential of a diverse community of learners. At the worst, a sage-on-the-stage can tell the students what to think and measure their success by their ability to regurgitate their learning onto a final exam and a guide-on-the-side can avoid standing in the way of a student's construction of knowledge through project-based and collaborative learning opportunities. At best, both types of teachers, and all the various types in between the lecturer and the coach, can hope to engage the students through the course materials to improve their understanding of their relationship with the world around them so that they learn how to study the discipline beyond the course in which they are enrolled. So, it is not the question of teacher-centered or student-centered that we should be focusing on, but the question of creating a negotiated reality between the teacher, the students and the course materials as the various texts of the course start to develop relationships with one another over time.

Because the primary means of interaction in an online course is through the written text, the trends in the literature point towards a greater need for instructors of disciplines other than writing to emphasize writing skills in their teaching. Not every email or discussion board posting or chat room discussion needs to be grammatically correct, compositionally developed, or rhetorically sound, but the general tendencies of the student writers ought to lean in those directions. As students develop more practice in the engagement of e-learning communities through text-based means, perhaps writing skills will improve over time, but we may see a time in the near future where writing as a means of conveying thoughts is joined by a greater reliance on the posting of audio or video files. In *Orality and Literacy* (1982), in fact, Walter J. Ong predicted that computers would bring about a second orality as our ability to use them as tools of mediated communication evolved from the text-based form back into oral forms of communication. Students, therefore, will have alternatives in interacting with their learning communities, and this might stem the attrition rates in online courses and promote greater retention rates and more meaningful learning experiences.

To help ensure access to distance learning for students with learning disabilities or for students with physical disabilities like blindness, deafness, speech disorders, mobility impairments, and seizure disorders, Sheryl Burgstahler (2001) has called for a universal design for distance learning platforms. The concept of Universal Design, defined by the Center for Universal Design at North Carolina State University, is "the design of products and environments to be usable by all people, to the greatest extent possible, without the need for adaptation or specialized design." So, "when designers apply these principles," Burgstahler says, "their products meet the needs of potential users with a wide variety of characteristics." Disability, Burgstahler argues, is not the only consideration that needs to be made in the designing of a course.

> Others include height, age, race, native language, ethnicity, and gender. All of the potential characteristics of participants should be considered when developing a distance-learning course. Just as architects design buildings used by everyone, including those who use wheelchairs, distance-learning designers should create learning environments that allow all potential students and instructors to access course content and fully participate in activities. (Burgstahler, 2000)

In short, student learning styles are influenced by a great many factors, and it is fortunate that the online medium can be made responsive to these (Thombs, 2002).

10. Resources

According to the Missouri Department of Education Commission (2000), "institutions involved in distance education and web-based instruction should ensure that students have access to adequate resources and services." Those the department lists include the following:

> 1. Institutions should have access to the equipment and technical expertise required for distance education.
> 2. Institutions should ensure that students have access to, and can effectively use, appropriate library resources (through traditional and electronic means), including MOBIUS, a consortium of Missouri's academic libraries.
> 3. Institutions should monitor whether students make appropriate use of learning resources.
> 4. Institutions should provide laboratories, facilities, equipment, and software appropriate to the courses or programs and/or make clear to students the responsibilities they have to provide their own such equipment.
> 5. Institutions should provide adequate access to a range of student services appropriate to support distance learning courses and programs, including (but not limited to) admissions, enrollment, assessment, tutorials, special needs access, financial aid, academic advising, delivery of course materials, placement, and counseling.
> 6. Institutions should provide an adequate means for resolving student complaints.
> 7. Institutions should provide students with information that adequately and accurately represents the programs, requirements, and services available.

In essence, "institutions should ensure that students enrolled in courses possess the knowledge and equipment necessary to use the technology employed in the program and should provide aid to students who are experiencing difficulty using the required technology" (MDEC, 2000). Every state's department of education, in fact, has a similar set of guidelines posted on its state governmental website in the areas related to secondary and post-secondary education.

Moreover, non state-governed educational institutions are taking responsibility for their technological development as the institutions begin to realize that building infrastructures that are supportive of technology not only create more favorable teaching and learning environments, but also help attract more students. Of course, there are more technologies available to students than those that can be provided by the institution. In the same way students bought calculators on their own prior to their institution's making the equipment readily available in the classroom, students are buying Personal Digital Assistants (PDAs) like Palm Pilots, Handsprings and Pocket PCs to help in their course work without any prompting from their schools' administrations. In the distributed learning network, schools will eventually see a value for devices like these and provide them as readily as they do calculators for specific learning tasks. PDAs equipped with sensing devices, for instance, come in handy during fieldwork for data collection. PDAs are used in math, programming, industrial technology, physics, physical education, and fine arts. Even administrators are using them to monitor student activity. With them, lesson plans can be shared between teachers and administrators. Class notes can be downloaded by students. Grades can be sent by teachers. A third grade class, for instance, might take a field trip to its local zoo where information would be gathered on their PDAs for fourth or fifth graders in the same school to design a web page that incorporates the information from the third graders. The web site *http://AvantGo.com* allows one to sign up for free downloads of information from various web sites to the PDA, but various PDAs will have various means of retrieving and storing information.

Other websites helpful for teachers include one sponsored by the Intel corporation (*http://www.intel.com/education*), a search engine focused on news sites and current events (*http://www.totalnews.com/*), and one sponsored by United Learning, a group specializing indistributing supplementary education materials online (*http://www.unitedlearning.com*).

11. Conclusion

In conclusion, Bates (2000) speaks of confronting the technology challenge and what colleges and universities must do in the future. People will need to retrain at least five times in a working lifetime. Working people cannot afford to give up jobs to relocate for a retraining nor to uproot families on the possibility of a new job. New technologies have the potential to provide wider access of information to a wider audience. A tension exists between the need for students to have access to technology and the issues of equity and universal access to higher education. Funding of these new technologies will probably be the biggest lever for change.

Tension for resources, especially during economically depressed times, is always a tight-rope walk. The key is to realize that resource allocation has very little to do with the resources and a lot to do with their allocation. We have to decide where to invest our resources to produce the most efficacious learning environments, and no matter how we spend our limited resources on technology, we must make certain that our stewardship is sound. We must do better in our use of appropriate technologies to make students stronger discerners of information. Moreover, because the technologies on which these students are developing their learning processes will themselves evolve, the essential emphasis should not be on the technology at all; rather, the emphasis needs to be on helping students become information literate and communication literate so that they will thrive in the world they themselves are creating.

Afterword

W. E. Biernatzki, S.J., General Editor

Somebody—it may have been Horace Mann, the "inventor" of the comprehensive high school—once said that the best approach to education was as a dialogue between the student on one end of a log facing his teacher on the other end. Not much has changed in this age of distributed distance education, except that the "log" is now a virtual electronic tree, with branches reaching into all corners of the world, and with students and teachers perched on the branches, dialoguing without regard for distance. As some of the sources cited put it, the educational process becomes not only the dialogue between teacher and student but a dialogue among students, and, even more broadly, a process of communication among learning communities.

Authorities cited in the text have emphasized that the teacher, or "classroom facilitator," remains "the key to success in distance learning," even when students are teaching students or learning communities are interacting with other learning communities. Without some informed guidance, the learning process can be in danger of wandering into all kinds of fantasies and irrelevancies. In that case electronic distance learning would be just as much in danger as the printed word of becoming the "text that has lost its father" which Plato bemoaned in the *Phaedrus*.

A related danger warned of in the main article, above, is loss of the human dimension by users of the Internet "who fail to see people behind the creation of all the content on the web." The web is a "heavily populated place," although those who are communicating may not be present to each other at the same time. Then, too, what is being communicated needs prudent analysis. Some of the distant communicators are smart, some are dumb. Some are honest, while others have "hidden agendas" or predatory purposes of one kind or another.

Many signals, supplementing the mere words used, might enable one to judge the other party in the face-to-face communication of people on opposite ends of the same log, but few such signals are available in most electronic communications. The facial expressions and "body language" of the communicators are

not available to each other online. As many anthropologists have pointed out in their studies of "body language," "kinesics," and other forms of non-verbal communication, the ability to observe and analyze signals of that sort is essential if one is to achieve the fullest potential of any communicative interaction.

Nevertheless, although the Internet and distance learning may lack some of the depth of face-to-face dialogue, they do make available a vast spectrum of information, insights and opinion far beyond the reach of unaided direct dialogue. The classroom facilitator must be present to help ensure the presence of the human dimension that will keep the educational process from degenerating into solipsism or a mere interaction among machines, rather than communication among real people. That presence also is necessary to adapt the process to the peculiar needs of each student. Some of the authors cited have noted that different students have different learning styles, which the teacher or facilitator can understand only through direct feedback.

On the other hand, the resources now available online are truly vast. The inquisitive student with the proper computer tools really has the world of knowledge at his or her fingertips, to explore or mine at will. This capability entails additional cautions if it is to be used constructively. One component of distance education, if it is going to develop the greatest productivity in its students, therefore should be to inculcate discipline in the ways those resources are used. As with e-mail, one can follow one's fancy into many by-ways and one-way streets on the web. A parallel can be seen in computer games, which can be habit-forming and all-consuming, as mere observation of some of their players will quickly testify. Unlike computer games, the material on the web is not necessarily designed to be habit forming or to generate compulsive behavior; but the possibility of such dangers is there, and some attention should be paid to developing ways to avoid it.

Another caution about any large-scale use of the Internet for education, development or any other program to improve people's quality of life is the need to pay attention to the "digital divide." Many factors can account for the failure of segments of a population to use computers and computer-based communication.

One obvious cause is monetary: people with low incomes need to devote their meager resources to sheer survival, and have nothing to spare for even the least expensive computer technology and online connections. These can sometimes be helped by making access available through public institutions, such as schools or libraries. Special efforts also need to be made to convince these non-users that computer access can help them improve their chances in life—as, for example, by making distance education opportunities available to them.

Another cause is cultural or social, in the sense that computer use has never appeared to offer some people sufficient rewards to warrant the investment of time and money required to obtain the proper equipment and competency in its use, even when sufficient time and money are available to them. Their priorities simply lie in other directions.

Some, especially older people not raised in an environment dominated by electronic technologies, might simply feel unable to master the required skills. Some, having gone through the drudgery of mastering one system or set of programs, simply give up when faced by a need to repeat that process anew when new systems and programs appear to make their previous skills obsolete.

Others, of course, might not have the mental or physical capacities to learn and use the technology.

The result of all this is that a considerable proportion of any population is, and will remain "off-line." Anyone involved professionally in computer-intensive activities, including distance education, should recognize this. If they wish to reach those people they must either provide the needed equipment, access and training to their disadvantaged students or supplement computer communication with more "old-fashioned" methods of communication. If their programs are important and reach a large number of people with computers, they must nevertheless realize that a large number of others still are not being reached directly, and consequently that their efforts are not only partly frustrated by the digital divide but are actively widening it.

That being said, the knowledge that has been acquired from recent experiences of distance education through new technologies is applicable to education of many kinds and at many levels. Church-related organizations, private schools, and other Non-government organizations (NGOs) should not despair of developing distance education programs that fit within their own financial capacities. The radio schools of Latin America and elsewhere, characteristically started by church-related groups, were successful with their relatively low-budget operations long before computers came into widespread use.

Radio remains the most practical means of reaching many people in remote places, and "snail-mail" often remains the best communication medium in those places. But satellite connections increasingly make those same remote places fully accessible to the Internet and the World Wide Web and potentially as interactive as are the world's most technologically advanced urban centers. Furthermore, the cost of those technologies is declining from year to year. NGOs, schools, churches, and others contemplating educational initiatives in less-technologically-developed parts of the world should fully weigh the possibility of utilizing those technologies before deciding to employ media that could only accomplish a fraction of the same task.

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It might be noted, here, that one of the chief motives of the then-superior general of the Jesuits, Father Pedto Arrupe, S.J., and his communications secretary, Father Stefan Bamberger, S.J., in founding the Centre for the Study of Communication and Culture (CSCC), in 1977, was precisely to make available to the Catholic Church and others working in less-technologically-developed countries an ongoing awareness of these kinds of unfolding changes and of the opportunities they open for the more efficient dissemination of the message of faith and justice the world so desperately needs.

The CSCC now survives chiefly in the form of this publication, *Communication Research Trends*, and lives more or less from hand to mouth on the generosity of the California Province of the Society of Jesus and Santa Clara University, as well as the uncompensated work of our dedicated writers, such as Dr. Ralph Olliges and Mr. Sebastian Mahfood, who made this issue possible. The assistance of our readers, both in the form of direct financial contributions and by encouraging others to subscribe to *Trends*, will help this publication survive and carry out its mission. Contributions and subscription payments may be sent to Prof. Paul Soukup, S.J., at the Department of Communication, Santa Clara University, Santa Clara, CA 95053-0001, USA

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Book Reviews

Brown, Jane D., Jeanne R. Steele, and **Kim Walsh-Childers** (Eds.). *Sexual Teens, Sexual Media: Investigating Media's Influence on Adolescent Sexuality*. Mahwah, NJ/London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 2002. Pp. xiv, 308. ISBN 0-8058-3489-3 (hb.) $74.95; 0-8058-3490-7 (pb.) $29.95.

Today teens have a nearly unlimited access to media and spend roughly half of their waking hours with some form of media. Some teens sleep with the radio or TV in the background and many use more than one medium at a time. Recent studies estimate that female adolescents (8-18) use media 7:41 hours/day while males' average use is 8:10 hours/day (p. 11). In this daily media diet, young people encounter a variety of messages about sexual behavior.

Adults and a number of socializing institutions (schools, churches, and health organizations) have concern about when, where, and what youth are learning about sex. Most adults would prefer that parents serve as the primary source of sexual guidance, but clearly youth learn a great deal about sexuality from mass media—movies, magazines, music, television, and the Internet. And the messages garnered from these media sources are often conflicting and confusing.

Despite the concern raised by parents, religious leaders, politicians, health advocates, and educators, remarkably little research exists on how mediated sexual content influences teens. The Henry J. Kaiser Family Foundation, since 1995, has coordinated a number of surveys, focus groups, and content analyses to discover what kinds of sexual content/messages youth are exposed to in the media and to discern how they are responding to these messages.

Sexual Teens, Sexual Media is a collection of research results from a number of the authors of the Kaiser studies (and others) who have researched the media's impact on adolescents in regard to sexual content.

In the Introductory/Overview chapter the editors describe the "Media Practice Model," which they developed as a result of a series of ethnographic studies that examine how youth select and use sexual content gained from the media. This model incorporates adolescents' motivation for media exposure, their interpretation and/or evaluation of the content, and its application to their lives. The model takes into account the "lived experience" of the teen and their individual sense of identity.

An "Adolescents' Media Diet Pyramid" is also presented (p. 12) in this overview chapter. At its base, the pyramid includes the "common culture" learned from the staple of television programming, which is identified as passive activity for the receiver. And, at the pyramid peak is web page creation, an interactive medium where teens can author their own mediated messages.

The remainder of the book closely examines each level of the media pyramid and how teens receive, interpret, and use the sexual content to which they are exposed. The book is comprised of three sections, each focusing on a medium that youth use with great frequency: Section One focuses on television programs, Section Two examines magazines, and Section Three explores movies, music, and the Internet.

Each section opens with a chapter that reviews the range of sexual content in that particular medium today. After an examination of the typical media message received from a particular medium, each section continues with a chapter that explores how teens interpret or evaluate this medium's sexual content. And, the final chapter in each section addresses how youth actually use the messages in their daily lives.

Brown, et al. provides a strong background for understanding the process of how youth select and use

media content. The book provides an important contribution to the on-going public concern about youth and exposure to sexual media content.

Sexual Teens, Sexual Media is well organized, thoroughly documented, and extremely well indexed. This book adds an important resource to the discussion of teens' exposure to mediated sexual content and will be a useful resource to parents, educators, and health advocates.

—Janellen Hill
Regis University

Dimmick, John W. *Media Competition and Coexistence: The Theory of the Niche*. Mahwah, NJ/London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 2003. Pp. xii, 145. ISBN 0-8058-3787-6 (hb.) $34.50 (special prepaid price: $17.50).

The author situates this book "in the relatively new field of media economics and management" (p. ix). At the same time it concerns one of the oldest preoccupations of media studies: control, power, and influence in the mass media.

Dimmick approaches his subject through an analytical framework borrowed from biological theory, "the theory of the niche" (*ibid*.). While he insists that "the book does not eschew traditional economics," and, in fact, uses "relevant economic constructs" in each chapter, he uses niche theory because it "provides a way to address the competition between industries...a phenomenon on which traditional economic theory has been relatively silent" (*ibid*.).

In chapter one the competition within communication industries is conceptualized as sociocultural evolution which, like biological evolution, "cannot appeal to universal laws like those of chemistry or classical physics" to explain phenomena (p. 1). Dimmick stresses the uniqueness of each medium of communication, influenced as it is by a pattern of influences unique to itself, and unable to be explained by causal laws (*ibid*.). Asserting, with Ernst Mayr, that "historical narratives...may be the only scientifically and philosophically valid way of explaining the unique in nature" (pp. 1-2), he constructs "in this chapter and in some sections of the following chapters...such historical narratives to explain the patterns of competition and coexistence within and among media industries" (p. 2). Selection factors derived from population and marketing theories are used in Chapter 1 to analyze the patterns of daily newspaper competition with resulting monopolistic tendencies in U. S. cities.

The Theory of the Niche is explained in Chapter 2 for application to conceptualizing and measuring competition among media industries" (p. 41). Various "niche dimensions" are defined, such as consumer gratification, media contents, etc., which collectively affect the competitive superiority of one medium over another in given circumstances.

Chapter 3 goes on to consider "the patterns of competition and coexistence that have occurred since early in the 20th century, on the advertising macrodimension and its attendant microdimensions" (p. 43). It traces the history of "the competition for advertising from the colonial press through the cable era" (p. 63). The impact of the World Wide Web is noted, but the author says insufficient data has thusfar accumulated to allow assessment of its impact (*ibid*.).

In Chapter 4, "The Niche and the Strategic Group: The Niche Breadth Strategy," that strategy is said to be designed to make possible "a theoretical and empirical understanding of the communication firm and its environment" (p. 64), that will avoid distortions of earlier analyses that viewed "the large media corporation...under the rubric of a 'conglomerate'" (p. 64).

Chapter 5 discusses the "gratification-utility niche" underlying consumers' media choices and demand for different media products and services (p. 77). Findings of several studies comparing the gratification-utility of different media are discussed—particularly newspapers, TV/cable, radio and the Internet. "One important conclusion which emerges from the studies reported in this chapter is the central role which gratification opportunities play in the use of the media, especially the newer ones" (p. 103).

Chapter 6 "presents theory and data organized around the major themes of the volume, competition and coexistence" (p. 105). It discusses those themes using the measures that have been developed to analyze media content as a niche dimension.

Finally, Chapter 7 "continues the community level of analysis begun in the sections on serial competition in Chapter 6 by concentrating on the community of media industries as a whole" (p. 118). The author notes the growing complexity of niche relationships stimulated by new technologies, especially the Internet. He feels that, even though this book has been able to concentrate "on only two resource dimensions," nevertheless he believes "that the theory is of sufficient conceptual richness to guide research which analyzes the

complexity of media competition and coexistence for the foreseeable future" (p. 126).

References by chapter, and author and subject indexes are provided.

—W. E. Biernatzki, S.J.

Douglas, William. *Television Families: Is Something Wrong in Suburbia?* Mahwah, NJ/London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 2003. Pp. viii,197. ISBN 0-8058-4012-5 (hb.) $45.00; 0-8058-4013-3 (pb.) $22.50.

Douglas "became interested in and, then, fascinated by television families" by watching fictional programs with his own family in their living room and noticing ways in which TV families were portrayed as both similar and dissimilar to "real life" families. He noted, too, "that television families are joined in a coherent history" and that "students react both enthusiastically and seriously to the issue of television family life, perhaps because they almost always want to talk about television families and real families in conjunction" (p. viii). As early as the 1970s the author discussed with his wife and daughter the "sense of familiarity" they had developed with the families portrayed on the small screen and "the impulse we exhibited to confuse real families with their fictional surrogates" (*ibid*.). These informal discussions eventually inspired the research on this interaction reported on in this book.

Chapter 1 discusses "the family and popular culture in America," noting, at the outset, that "there is, to say the least, considerable disagreement about the state of the American family" (p. 1). Some say the family as an institution is in decline, while others say that perception is erroneous (ibid.). Portrayals of the family on television over the past 50 years have changed, as has the condition of real families. Therefore, a mapping of the development of the television family and its current state may "provide insight into the tangled relationship between fictional and real family life" (p. 2). That view is controversial, some observers denying that there can be any similarity between real family life and that shown on television. Subsequent chapters discuss several issues that have emerged from research and discussions that do acknowledge a parallel, such as "the evolution of the American family, the extent to which popular portrayals are independent of real family life, and the relationship between the real and television postwar family experience.

Aspects of the development of the real family since World War II are discussed in Chapter 2 under two headings: "Revolution and Order," and "Trauma and Resilience."

> The next three chapters take up these issues [of earlier family images] looking, first at the evolution of the family prior to World War II. ... Study of the family in popular culture investigates the cultivation of stock characters and contexts and the sociology of family explicitated by vaudeville, comics, and radio. Finally the postwar family is examined. (p. 24)

Chapters 5 and 6 trace the development of the television family, first in terms of spousal relations, then of parent-child and sibling relations. Chapter 7 considers television treatment of two minority groups: African-Americans and the aged.

Finally, Chapter 8 asks, "Is something wrong in suburbia?" It responds to a specific hypothesis of the study: "that the television family has become distressed in ways that are sometimes seen to define the real family experience" (p. 156). The author concludes that "the distress apparent in fictional families, which gathers around the eroded experience of children, corresponds closely with the supposed experience of real families, lending a sense of validity to audience-based research" (p. 170).

Parallels are not exact but are close enough to make further research on the topic worthwhile. "Despite their apparent fiction, we recognize their [television families'] experiences, sometimes because it reminds us of our own and sometimes because it reinforces and extends our sense of life and relations in families unknown to us" (p. 174). Douglas closes with some recommendations for researchers into this complex and fascinating interaction between popular culture and real life.

References and both author and subject indexes are appended.

—WEB

Grunig, Lisa, **James E. Grunig**, and **David M. Dozier**. *Excellent Public Relations and Effective Organizations*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 2002. Pp, xiii, 653. ISBN 0-8058-1817-0 (hb.) $135; 0-8058–1818-9 (pb.) $55.

One of the greatest problems public relations practitioners face is proving that they make a worthwhile contribution to their organizations. This is especially so during economic downturns when businesses and nonprofits are looking for ways to eliminate need-

less expenses. Many of the measures such as news media coverage or hits on a website that PR people traditionally use to demonstrate their institutional value are simply not very persuasive in tough times. What does PR really contribute to organizational effectiveness in return for the money invested in it?

That's one of the root questions that this dense book summarizing extensive quantitative and qualitative research about the role of public relations in organizations attempts to answer. For anyone with willingness to plow through the research findings this book, the final book of three studying excellence in public relations, is close to indispensable. The books were underwritten by a $400,000 grant from the International Association of Business Communicators. In addition to a table of contents, this book includes a useful first chapter that summarizes the contents of the remaining chapters. This is especially helpful given the variety of topics covered and the depth in which they are examined. Many readers probably will skip some chapters while studying others in detail.

Major topics covered include the value of public relations, empowerment of the public relations function, communicator roles, organization of the communication function, relationship to other management functions and use of consulting firms, models of public relations, the origins, management and outcomes of programs for key publics, activism and the environment, and "inside the organization." Overall, authors show that:

- "The value of public relations comes from the relationships that communicators develop and maintain with the publics."
- Reputation is based on quality of relationships and actions more than messages disseminated.
- Communicators have their greatest value when they bring information into the organization more than when they disseminate information from it (p. xi).

The authors view the function of public relations as building relationships with "stakeholders" such as employees or customers that help minimize or effectively manage conflict (p. 2). They continually emphasize that effective PR is a strategic managerial function, more than a technical function and stress that excellent PR department heads are part of an organization's top strategic management team. They have direct access to the CEO and offer the CEO "a broad perspective both inside and outside the organization" as well as dealing with "crises or the activist groups that often prompt those predicaments" (p. 115).

The authors also review research testing ways that might document the financial value of public relations to organizations. They discuss data that suggest that no means yet has been found for proving the annual return on investment on PR. This does not mean that excellent PR has no fiscal impact. "The absence of goodwill takes the heavy monetary toll of activism, regulation, or litigation . . . Good relationships contribute over the long haul . . . to such bottom-line factors as employee productivity, and stockholder investment" (p. 103).

In another notable finding, the authors reverse a recommendation from an earlier book in their series that PR be integrated with marketing in an overall communications program; instead they now maintain that "the organization is best served by the inherent diversity of perspectives provided by marketing and public relations when those functions remain distinct, coordinated yet not integrated" (p. 264). The authors also oppose the "sublimation" of PR to any other management function such as human resources. They feel it can best make a strategic contribution to the organization as a separate management function.

The book's numerous strengths include its detailed reports of the research findings (both quantitative and qualitative) on which such judgments are based. Extensive footnotes and references cited at the end of each chapter provide further guidance for readers interested in going into more depth on any topic. The book also features a fine comprehensive index.

Perhaps the biggest problem for a reader is the sheer volume and depth of the material covered. There is so much material that absorbing it seems daunting. The initial outline of the contents of chapters is a very helpful guide to readers who might otherwise miss some of the better material near the end of the volume. The relatively clear and readable writing style also makes this a work of scholarship that should be highly useful to PR practitioners as well as academics, especially top PR managers interested in improving their organizational and personal effectiveness. With adaptation, much of the material also can be useful to public relations professors teaching even undergraduate PR classes. Students need to absorb this book's vision of the field in order to maximize their opportunities for career success.

—Eileen Wirth
Creighton University

Hjort, Mett and **Scott MacKenzie** (Eds.). *Cinema and Nation*. London: Routledge, 2000. Pp. vii, 332. ISBN 0-415-20862-9 (hb.) $90.00; 0-415-2086-3 (pb.) $25.95.

Can cinema influence a nation's perception of itself? Can it export a unified image? Is national cinema an organic process or can it be imposed by the state? Can the state control the cinema produced within its boundaries? What tensions exist between cinema produced and cinema received? What *are* the boundaries of a nation? Can they be conceptual boundaries rather than geographical ones? How have shifts in theoretical frameworks affected our understanding of the relationship between cinema and national identity? How has globalization influenced this relationship? Is "national cinema" even a useful concept?

Cinema and Nation attempts to answer these and other questions from a variety of vantage points, both culturally and academically. According to its editors, the collection of essays "is designed to contribute to the project of conceptual clarification that orients discussions of national cinema during the late 1980s and 1990s. To this end, we have attempted to create a dialogic space that brings into play voices that do not typically speak to each other, although they may well talk about similar issues" (p. 4). Although Western cinema clearly dominates the analysis, the editors have brought together film scholars, philosophers, and sociologists who raise issues that transcend particular cultures as well as explore those less familiar to Anglo-American readers. The book's 18 chapters are divided among five parts: The Sociology of Nationalism; The Concept of National Cinema; Film Policy, Nationalism, and the State; The Production of National Images; and The Reception of National Images. In addition to the many references to U.S. and English films, there are extended discussions of films from several countries, including Denmark, Indonesia, Poland, India, Germany, Russia, Turkey, and Scotland.

Part I: The Sociology of Nationalism presents three perspectives on the relevance of particular sociological theories to the understanding of the intersection of film and nationalism. Schlesinger ("The sociological scope of 'national cinema'") uses social communication theory to explore how a nation functions as an interactive communicative space, particularly with regard to cinema. Lindholm and Hall ("Frank Capra meets John Doe: Anti-politics in American national identity") argue that "fundamental contradictions inherent in American national identity" undermined Capra's goal of developing "a positive American cinematic vocabulary" (p. 32). And Smith ("Images of the nation: Cinema, art, and national identity") illustrates parallels in the ability of both painting and cinema to forge national identities by way of concretizing "myths, symbols, traditions and memories."

Part II: The Concept of National Cinema asks whether such a category of analysis is valid and useful. Higson ("The limiting imagination of national cinema") contends that contemporary cinema both constitutes and transcends geographic boundaries. Jarvie ("National cinema: A theoretical assessment") uses the concept of function to assess national cinema along lines of protection, cultural defense, and nation building. Hayward ("Framing national cinema") identifies what she considers imprudent assumptions that undermine much film analysis but acknowledges that films do "contribute to the construction of nations." Hjort ("Themes of nation") uses Danish films to illustrate his contention that films can be made about a specific nation and its people without using explicit national themes.

Part III: Film Policy, Nationalism, and the State examines "the ways in which a variety of state-formations…aim at producing national culture though cinema" (p. 9). Carroll and Banes ("Cinematic nation-building: Eisenstein's *The Old and the New* Noel) illustrate ways in which the legendary director used filmmaking to contribute to the "invention" of the Soviet Union. Bergfelder ("The nation vanishes: European co-productions and popular genre formulae in the 1950s and 1960s") cites such pop phenomena as the early James Bond series as examples of trans-European filmmaking. And Petrie ("The new Scottish cinema") asks whether a distinct Scottish cinema can emerge within the context of the powerful British film industry.

Part IV: The Production of National Images looks at four countries: Indonesia (Roberts, "Indonesia: the movie"), Poland (Coates, "Notes on Polish cinema, nationalism and Wajda's *Holy Week*"), Turkey (Robins and Aksoy, "Deep nation: The national question and Turkish cinema culture"), and India (Chakravarty, "Fragmenting the nation: Images of terrorism in Indian popular cinema") to present some of the diverse motivations and strategies involved in the production of national images.

The final section, Part V: The reception of National Images returns to asking such basic questions about the nature and function of "national images within the public sphere" (p. 13). Who gets to construct

them? How does the public process them? Can they be contested? How else do they change? MacKenzie ("Mimetic nationhood: Ethnography and the national") examines those questions in the context of ethnographic film/video production. Rentschler ("From new German cinema to post-wall cinema of consensus") focuses on the significant change that occurred within 20th century German cinema.

Hedetoft ("Contemporary cinema: Between cultural globalization and national interpretation") contrasts French and Danish reaction to *Saving Private Ryan* with that of U.S. audiences to illustrate the notion of "national cinema" as a product of audience frameworks. And Gaines ("Birthing nations") concludes with a comparison of two early 20th century films that constructed race as national issues for the United States and South Africa respectively

This book asks questions that are complex, far-ranging and important. Though it does not exhaust possible answers, it provides diverse perspectives and thoughtful insights into how those questions might be considered.

Each chapter has a bibliography. The volume as a whole provides both a subject and a name index.

—Bren A. O. Murphy
Loyola University Chicago

Kodrich, Kris P. *Tradition and Change in the Nicaraguan Press: Newspapers and Journalists in a New Democratic Era*. Lanham, MD/New York/Oxford: University Press of America, Inc., 2002. Pp. xii, 199. ISBN 0-7618-2171-6 (pb.) $34.00.

In his Preface, Kodrich summarizes the changes in Nicaraguan newspapers over the decade of the 1990s as follows:

> When I first started reading the newspapers in 1989, I was amazed at the free-wheeling style—huge headlines, bloody photos, and a political slant that left no doubt which paper supported which political party. Now, many Nicaraguan journalists are taking a more 'professional' approach. The main national newspaper, *La Prensa*, for instance, is trying to be fair and objective—concepts unheard of a few years back in Nicaragua. (p. x)

In Chapter 1, "A Hurricane of Change," he uses the coverage of 1998's terrible Hurricane Mitch by the papers to exemplify how both tradition and change have come to manifest themselves in the country's journalism. He then sketches a general description of the Nicaraguan press in the 1990s, focusing on the two themes of tradition and change as manifested in papers' content and operations and in journalists' attitudes and behavior (p. 3).

Chapter 2 sketches the checkered history of Nicaragua and its media, typifying the country as a "land of poets and revolution," and emphasizing the birth of press freedom during the 1990 to 1997 presidency of Violeta Barrios de Chamorro, widow of Pedro Joaquin Chamorro Cardenal, the editor of *La Prensa* who had been assassinated in 1978.

Chapter 3, "Nicaraguan Daily Newspapers and Practices" focuses "on two research questions: How did Nicaraguan newsrooms operate? [and] How did the content of Nicaraguan newspapers differ from each other?" (p. 40).

Chapter 4, based on interviews and other research methods, looks at the journalists' roles and attitudes, in the wake of an unprecedented growth of concern with professional and ethical questions in the 1990s.

Chapter 5, "Outsiders and Nicaraguan Journalism," explores how foreign journalistic styles have influenced the country's journalism.

Chapter 6, "A New Era for Journalists," summarizes the findings of the study and views the prospects for the future of the country's newspapers and journalists.

An appendix describes the methodology used in the study. A bibliography and index also are appended.

—WEB

McMahon, Kevin (director). 2002. *McLuhan's Wake*. Producers: Michael McMahon, Kristina McLaughlin, David Sobelman, and Gerry Flahive. Toronto: Primitive Entertainment and Montreal and New York: National Film Board of Canada. 94 min. Purchase: $250.00; rental: $80.00. Orders: National Film Board of Canada; Sales and Customer Services (D-10); P.O. Box 6100; Station Centre-Ville; Montreal (QC) H3C 3H5 Canada, or National Film Board of Canada, 350 Fifth Avenue, Suite 4820, New York, NY 10118 USA, or online at *http://www.nfb.ca.*

Using clips of his lectures and television appearances, this feature-length documentary explores the life and thought of Marshall McLuhan, first in his own words and then through the recollections of his family

and colleagues. Following McLuhan's interpretation of Edgar Allen Poe's short story, "A Descent into the Maelstrom," this video uses the image of "the vortices of energy created by the media" and the need to "study the patterns of effects to find a way of survival" as a structuring device that frames McLuhan's thought.

Writer and producer David Sobelman divides the documentary itself into four parts, each one corresponding to one of the questions McLuhan posed in his 1978 book, *Laws of the Media: The New Science*, which he published together with his son, Eric. Each of the parts follows the same pattern: a statement of a key question based on the "laws," the introduction of key concepts, a biographical episode that introduces McLuhan more personally, the exploration of one of his books, and a commentary on his thought. This structure works quite well to give the viewer an understanding of McLuhan's central concepts, of his methodology, and of how the media work.

In Part I the video introduces the question, "What will this thing enhance?" Here it considers technology–the tools that humans make to extend their senses and that, in turn, re-make humans. Beginning with the alphabet, McLuhan explains that whenever we extend ourselves with technology, we numb the part of ourselves so extended. In this section, the viewers meet McLuhan, learning of his family, education, and intellectual background—all narrated in voiceover interviews. A look at his first book, *The Mechanical Bride* (1951), provides a more in-depth understanding of his initial methods of analysis.

Part II follows the questions, "What will this tool obsolesce? What will fade in the light of this new invention?" Here the viewer learns something of McLuhan's breakthrough book, *Understanding Media: The Extensions of Man* (1964). This, coupled with his explorations of the bicameral mind, introduces McLuhan's theories of the interaction of the senses.

In Part III, we meet one of the more famous of McLuhan's aphorisms, "the medium is the message," though it appears in this question format: "What will this tool retrieve from all the things you've lost?" Here we learn that media always look backwards and must perforce encapsulate what went before, with one medium containing another. This section also introduces McLuhan's notions of the global village, where electronic media make it possible for us to know "everything about everyone." This world is an acoustic world, one predicated on pattern recognition—the very thing McLuhan wishes to know. We also meet him as a cultural commentator, seeing him in television interviews and through the eyes of his colleagues.

Finally, in Part IV, the video addresses the questions introduced by the fourth law of the media: "How will your tool reverse on you when it's pushed to its outer limit?" This section explores the transformations of media. In a wonderfully prescient interview, McLuhan describes the personalization of books of the future: What he describes is the Internet, though he does so in terms of telephone calls requesting photocopies of documents from a massively linked index. These are books as they might exist with the consciousness of an oral culture—print turning back on itself to create something new. The section ends with a call for an ecology or balance among all these sources and media.

Kevin McMahon, the director, weaves the material together in a compelling narrative. He receives wonderful support from director of photography John Minh Tran's beautiful images, Kurt Swinghammer's music, and editor Christopher Donaldson's integration of original material, archival footage, animation, and interviews. The interview material tells most of the biographical story as well as explaining some of the intellectual concepts. The rest remains in McLuhan's own words. The narrator, Laurie Anderson, ties the pieces together and introduces each section.

Except for the final few minutes, all of the interviews occur off-camera; when on-camera, no identification is given, though from the context, one can recognize Corinne McLuhan (McLuhan's widow) and Eric McLuhan, his son. Other participants include Patricia Bruchmann, Edmund Carpenter, Derrick de Kerckhove, Liss Jeffrey, Lewis Latham, Robert Logan, Philip Marchand, Gerald O'Grady, Neil Postman, Patrick Watson, and Frank Zingrone.

This video works well as an introduction to McLuhan's thought, though its 94 minute running time may seem long to undergraduates. Some parts of the narrative seem not to fit as well as others; these in particular seem long.

The National Film Board of Canada provides a website with study guides available at *http://www.nfb.ca/mcluhanswake*.

—Paul A. Soukup, S.J.
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Mickey, Thomas J. *Deconstructing Public Relations*. Mahwah, NJ/London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates,

2003. Pp. vii, 167. ISBN 0-8058-3748-5 (hb.) $39.95; 0-8058-3749-3 (pb.) $19.95.

Americans live in a society that is so saturated with public relations messages that most people do not even realize how constantly organizations attempt to influence them. But that's only the start of the social impact of public relations. According to Mickey, most PR writings reinforce the status quo and existing social power relationships of dominance and subordination.

In this book, Mickey deconstructs the social contexts and message contents of nine public relations campaigns in an attempt to prove this central point. The book opens by explaining why the author believes it is important to examine public relations from a cultural studies/critical theory perspective.

> There is a need to be aware of how our choices of word and image validate power and meaning for the culture. Public Relations is a cultural practice. As such it needs to be viewed in terms of its relationship to the culture from a critical perspective for the purpose of human emancipation. (p.15)

The author continually reiterates his belief that language creates relationships, that "most people are not aware that when they use a particular discourse they are accepting a value system; that no act of communication is apolitical" (p. 157).

The nine cases vary widely—from a fascinating discussion of the promotion of an alcoholic malt beverage as a medicinal tonic at the turn of the century to a TV public service campaign to combat AIDS. The author weakens his overall case against PR by finding ideological implications in all PR activities discussed. By the end the reader may conclude that the cases are only vehicles for the predictable message that public relations reinforces cultural dominance and oppression.

For example Mickey criticizes the Boston Museum of Fine Arts' campaign to publicize a Monet exhibit as commercializing art because Monet's works are highly popular. Newspaper readers, he said, may not realize that the museum PR department was the source of an article on the exhibit. Huh??? Wasn't someone from the museum quoted in the newspaper story? Why shouldn't the museum inform the public via the media about an event of interest to thousands? Other cases such as the Centers for Disease Control public service campaign aimed at preventing AIDS that never mentions homosexuals (because they are devalued and their lifestyle offends some people) are more persuasive.

The book reads as though the author has written the cases separately with little editing, especially of the explanatory material about cultural studies and critical theories. Mickey repeats much of this information in chapter after chapter. In addition many cases are marred by undocumented statements such as, "most TV stations now routinely use video news releases from public relations sources whereas only a few years ago only about half did so" (p. 122). This may be true but the reader has no way of evaluating the source of this and other assertions stated as facts.

The author and PR practitioners agree that PR activities are designed to promote their sponsors. Mickey seems to object to this fundamental function of the field, especially when PR writers for businesses seek to sell products. For example, in a chapter on Martha Stewart and gardening, he states, "Where are the days when we gardened for leisure? That does not seem to be the case today. Martha Stewart produces her product of style of home and garden with a certain consumer mentality" (p. 93). Overall, it is hard to distinguish between Mickey's distaste for public relations practices per se and his ideological disdain for capitalism, weakening his case against the PR practices.

The book has some useful insights, especially its suggestion that public relations writers need to become aware of hermeneutics because it helps them "understand the role of language for experience" (p. 118) and that "as writers we need to listen to words and be open to what they call us to do or become" (p. 119). The extensive bibliography also is an excellent source of scholarly references on public relations. The book also contains an index.

Unfortunately Mickey's insights tend to get lost in his ideology. In addition, the book's academic language almost ensures very few PR practitioners will read it. This is regrettable; the author's views deserve critical consideration.

—EW

Miller, Edward D. *Emergency Broadcasting and 1930s American Radio*. Philadelphia: Temple University Press, 2003. Pp. viii, 256. ISBN 1-56639-992-0 (hb.) $59.50; 1-56639-993-9 (pb.). $19.95.

Though it mentions it (largely in footnotes), this book does not address the emergency broadcasting *system* in the United States; rather, beginning with specific events, it addresses how the *broadcasting of emer-*

gencies shaped radio in America during a crucial period of its development. Born of military applications (in the 1910s) and of increasing commercialization (in the 1920s), radio did not really come into its own in the United States until the 1930s; this decade placed even more distinctive a stamp upon its progeny than either its military or commercial parent. Miller argues that emergency events—the radio broadcast of the *Hindenburg* disaster, the Mercury Theater's "War of the Worlds" broadcast, Franklin D. Roosevelt's Fireside Chats with the nation—defined radio.

As background to this discussion, Miller situates radio within a wider theoretical model, considering the disembodied voice its most characteristic aspect. Contemporary discussion of the body and the role of the body in human interaction form the backdrop for this part of the book. A second preliminary chapter examines a psychological background: the Freudian sense of the "uncanny"; the contrasting senses of being at home or disrupted from the ordinary. Radio crosses this boundary, received at home but as an alien presence.

Only in Chapter 3 does Miller turn to the illustrations of his theme. Here we learn the story of the broadcast of the *Hindenburg* disaster, finding out, for example, that the most memorable broadcast did not occur until the day after the accident. The radio reporter had recorded it for a delayed broadcast, but the "live" recording of an eye witness account of the disaster set the tone for decades of radio reporting. Radio's ability to make its hearers feel as though they too witnessed events led to the "you are there" quality that would define how radio should work.

Chapter 4 introduces another use of radio in the United States: the presidential address and the shifting of political participation to the home. Throughout his presidency, Franklin Delano Roosevelt addressed the nation in what reporters came to term, "Fireside Chats." Despite their memorable impact, these radio addresses occurred relatively infrequently, perhaps two times a year. But in them, Roosevelt sought to reassure the nation, announced new policies, and challenged the fears and worries of the people. Miller analyzes these addresses and again situates them within a wider theoretical background. He notes how radio formed the "body" of the president, a body that transcended Roosevelt's own crippled body.

Orson Welles and the Mercury Theater's broadcast of *The War of the Worlds*, with its attendant panic, provides the material for Chapter 5. The broadcast used the newly established genre of radio news broadcast and eye witness reporting as a the structure for the science fiction tale of an invasion from Mars (based on the story by H.G. Wells). Simultaneously a story about invasion, colonialism, the destruction of cultures, and the fear of the unknown, this story lets Miller examine radio as a manifestation of cultural fears and desires. He reminds us that the event of the broadcast triggered one of the first focused research responses to communication: Why did some listeners panic while others did not?

The last two chapters of the book return to the theoretical orientation of the beginning, with Chapter 6 taking the myth of Echo and Narcissus as a focus. Miller asks how desire coexists with disembodiment and contrasts the tales of seeing (Narcissus) and hearing (Echo) as a way for us to understand radio and its continuing fascination. Chapter 7 attempts to apply the reflections on radio to the Internet, another medium that removes the body while it transcends space.

Emergency Broadcasting and 1930s American Radio makes fairly strong demands on its readers. Miller moves quickly through difficult theoretical material, often assuming its familiarity to the reader. But by introducing this material in the context of the radio, he allows the reader to understand just how much he or she takes for granted about a very familiar technology of communication.

The book features end notes, a bibliography, and an index.

—PAS

Rowe, David. *Sport, Culture and the Media: The Unruly Trinity*. Buckingham, UK/Philadelphia: Open University Press, 1999. Pp. xii, 193. ISBN 0-335-20203-9 (hb.) n.p.; 0-335-20202-0 (pb.) £15.99.

Written by a British-schooled sociologist who is a professor in Australia, this book concerns the nexus of sports and media within contemporary culture. Drawing on examples from largely England and the United States, the author analyzes specific sports media texts within a theoretical framework which addresses the dialectics of production, reproduction, and transformation.

While others have referred to the increasingly symbiotic relationship of media and sports as the "sports/media complex," Rowe prefers to call this phenomenon the "media sports cultural complex" to signify "both the primacy of symbols in contemporary sport

and the two-way relationship between the sports media and the great cultural formation of which it is a part" (p. 4). Reflecting this two-way relationship, the book is divided into two interrelated parts, with the first emphasizing sports production and the second emphasizing reception.

Part One, entitled "Making Media Sport" contains three chapters. The first presents a socio-historical approach to understanding both sport and media and how the two became intermeshed. Rowe presents brief histories of both sports and the media to explain the evolution of their convergence. He argues that the latter is a consequence of social structural changes, specifically the rise of capitalism and industrialism, which led to mass consumption and the commodification of leisure time. Beyond presenting his analysis of a political economy of sport, Rowe suggests there is also a cultural economy of sport, one in which images, information, and ideas are manufactured and exchanged.

Drawing on the theoretical work of critical theorists, the author suggests the book is essentially concerned with three manifestations of power. The first is institutional and concerns how sports and media have mutually influenced one another. The second is at the symbolic level and concerns itself with how the institutionally provided media operate as sports texts that can be accepted, rejected, and/or negotiated for different uses. The third manifestation of power is at the relational level and concerns the wider social and cultural ramifications of the media sports cultural complex.

The remaining two chapters of Part One include a detailed analysis of a mid-1990s case study of working British sports journalists and a political economic analysis of modern media-influenced sports. The purpose in presenting the former is to show that while sports media and sports have a mutually dependent relationship, sports media production is a complex process and not an automatic churning out of pre-programmed content. Rowe suggests that journalists' perceptions of themselves and their purpose influence their sports text production and, more significantly, there is a "cultural politics of sports journalism, especially in the way in which sports texts mediate understandings of social issues within sport and between the sport and the society in which it is imbedded" (p. 37). In the final chapter of Part One, the reader is introduced to a political economy perspective of the economic and cultural value of sports, especially via television, in bringing together millions of people once fragmented by space, time, and social difference.

Part Two, also consisting of three chapters, is entitled "Unmaking the Media Sports Text." The three chapters explore sports texts from the written and spoken word, still photography, and the moving image respectively. Rowe, in examining formal properties, suggests types of textual relations words and pictures may have upon readers and viewers. Specific examples are tied in to social issues, including race, gender, and class. For instance, a sports photograph of a female athlete is a type of gender discourse, and a particular sports photo may be interpreted as connecting issues of athleticism, health, beauty, and slenderness with the personal responsibility for attaining these attributes. The action, drama, and narrative of live televised sports or even the fictional sports film also lend themselves to rich symbolic meaning. Rowe, however, is quick to point out that like all texts, sports media texts carry multiple meanings and that such meanings are constructed in a negotiation between the text and its readers or viewers. The point of Part Two is to acknowledge the proliferation of sports media texts and how they can be associated to "specific viewerships, ideologies, myths, and other texts in a way that makes them important components of contemporary culture" (p. 144).

In an Afterword, Rowe suggests that the relationship between sports and media will continue to evolve, such as new interactive technologies possibly allowing for a transformation from consumer to auteur. A glossary of key terms, a 14-page list of bibliographic references, and an index are included.

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Scott, Linda M. and **Rajeev Batra** (Eds.). *Persuasive Imagery: A Consumer Response Perspective*. Mahwah, NJ/London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 2003. Pp. xxi, 436. ISBN 0-8058-4202-0 (hb.) $99.95 (special prepaid price: $45.00).

This contribution to the "Advertising and Consumer Psychology" series, sponsored by the Society for Consumer Psychology, consists of 20 papers on various aspects of imagery used in visual persuasion.

The editors complain that in spite of many folk beliefs about persuasive commercial imagery and widespread fears of its "deleterious effects," little "is really known about the human response to visual

images, including those of persuasive intent" (p. ix). They claim that the issue "has been...broadly oversimplified in cultural commentary" (p. x). Instead, "what emerges from the total of what is contained here is a sense of the enormous challenges presented by the complexity of the messages, the subtlety of the mental processing, and the contextual contingencies reflected in consumer response. The outcome of any attempt at visual persuasion seems extremely difficult to analyze, let alone predict" (*ibid*.).

The papers are grouped into five sections: "I. Persuasive Imagery: What Do We Really Know?" (two papers); "II. Image and Response" (five papers); "III. Image and Word" (three papers); "IV. Image and Ad" (five papers), and "V. Image and Object" (five papers).

In Chapter 1, "Persuasion by Design: the State of Expertise on Visual Influence Tactics," authors Keven Malkewitz, Peter Wright, and Marian Friestad explore "the accumulated expertise on visual persuasion in American society at the beginning of the 21st century." Five areas of expertise are cited: mental states, production technology, strategic persuasion (i.e., manipulation of particular factors to predictably influence particular observers), persuasion research, and persuasion coping (i.e., the ability to manage or thwart others' persuasion efforts).

Chapter 2, by Keith Kenney and Linda M. Scott, reviews the visual rhetorical literature.

Subsequent chapters address more particular issues relevant to their respective sections. Topics discussed include attentional limitations in visual perception, visual fluency (the ease with which stimuli can be processed); advertising repetition effects; changes in logo designs; mental imagery processing; scripted thought (the cognitive processing of written language); processing of ads by bilingual consumers; the role of verbal stimuli in eliciting mental imagery and thereby enhancing persuasion; semiotics and rhetorical perspectives in visual persuasion in advertising; the rhetorical power of character to create identifications; erotic rhetoric in sexually oriented advertising; verbal-visual juxtapositions in television advertising; visual metaphor in advertising; color as a tool for visual persuasion; research guided graphic designed packages; architectural expression and brand building; projections of real self versus ideal self in online visual space; and persuasive forms of mobile telephones.

The authors are mostly based in the United States, but the United Kingdom, Canada, Switzerland, the Netherlands, Sweden, and Hungary also are represented.

References follow each paper. Author and subject indexes are appended.

—WEB

Smith, Michael Ray. *The Jesus Newspaper: The Christian Experiment of 1900 and Its Lessons for Today*. Lanham, MD: University Press of America, 2002. Pp. xvii, 169. ISBN 0-7618-222-4 (pb.) $29.00.

From March 13 to 17, 1900, the Rev. Charles M. Sheldon edited the *Topeka Daily Capital* in an experiment to produce a daily newspaper according to explicitly Christian principles. Sheldon, whose 1890s pulpit novels originally popularized the (now newly popular) question, "What would Jesus do?" had proposed just such a newspaper in his 1897 novel, *In His Steps*. In the novel and in the Topeka paper, Sheldon—first through his characters and then in himself—applies the "What would Jesus do?" principle to the daily press. Later generations term the experiment, "The Jesus Newspaper."

In telling the story of that week of newspaper publishing, Smith provides an abundant context: of Sheldon's writing career, of journalism historiography and methods of analysis, of the turn-of-the-century culture that made such a venture possible, and of religious reporting. For his chosen method, Smith relies on rhetorical analysis, particularly Ernest Bormann's "fantasy theme analysis," which examines the ideals that groups express in their writing and speaking. Sheldon, a Congregationalist minister, and his followers agreed on three key themes:

> 1. They embraced the idea of all Christian believers that Christ was deity and each person must have a relationship with Him;
>
> 2. They embraced the idea that the mainstream general-circulation newspaper could be redeemed and be a tool to advance the first [theme];
>
> 3. They embraced theological assumptions of the Social Gospel movement, namely that they could advance Heaven on Earth through public policy reforms using the dominant communication tool of the day, the daily newspaper. (p. 25)

Smith arrives at these themes and illustrates them through a careful study of Sheldon's daily editorials during his editorship. That these editorials were meant

to influence newspaper policy Smith demonstrates by showing how they appeared on the front page, placed next to key news stories.

To better show how these themes emerged in practice, Smith takes the reader through the history of the denominational press, first as characteristic of every paper in the United States and later of papers linked to specific religious groups. He also notes the areas of cultural discomfort manifest through various religious revivals. By the late 19th century these appear in the evangelical opposition to alcohol use, to some forms of entertainment and sports, to social inequity, to working (and publishing papers) on Sunday, and to sensationalism or yellow journalism. At the same time he reminds us that part of Sheldon's creed held that people (particularly those not mature in Christian faith) needed strong guidance—hence his emphasis on the use of the daily newspaper as a tool for Christian living.

Sheldon practiced what we would today call "advocacy journalism," using his story selection and reporting approaches to support his Christian position. However, Sheldon's approach to editing the paper extended beyond the choice of stories; he also carefully vetted advertising, not accepting ads whose claims he could not substantiate or of whose products he disapproved (pp. 130-131).

Smith also recounts how the *Topeka Daily Capital*'s owner, Frederick O. Popenoe challenged Sheldon to put his preaching into practice. While Popenoe's motivations may not be fully known, he certainly did not lose money on the week of Sheldon's editorial experiment. "The efforts of Babize and Houston [a public relations manager and an editor] led to a circulation bonanza. During the week in which Sheldon worked as editor, circulation went from 11,223 newspapers on week days, and 12,298, Sundays, to an average of 362,684 copies each day." Popenoe also increased news stand prices and advertising rates "and eventually made more than $20,000 for the one week of news distribution" (p. 13). For his part, Sheldon donated his share of the profits to charity.

The whole experiment generated a great deal of contemporary commentary, with many of the clergy opposed to Sheldon's attempt to apply the "what would Jesus do?" question in such a fashion. While some praised his attempt (and held him in high regard), many (who also held him in high regard) felt the principle too vague to be useful in such a pragmatic enterprise. Smith himself offers a considered judgment:

> In many ways Sheldon's attempt at a Christian daily was noble, but the execution was paternalistic. Sheldon's vision did not allow for mature reactions to life where a person could have a thoughtful response to information beyond the Sheldon directive. Sheldon saw readers as easy to influence after a kind of inoculation approach where a uniform reaction would occur by all who were exposed to the message. . . . His press was too directive, too narrowly focused and lacking in appreciation for the reader's ability to process complicated material. (p. 127)

As one might surmise, Smith's commentary offers a perspective on Sheldon's editorship and on the contemporary debate surround the "what would Jesus do?" approach.

The book contains the full texts of Sheldon's editorials, an index, and a substantial bibliography. Sadly, numerous typographical errors (especially the transposition of dates—1989 for 1899, for example) distract from the text.

—PAS

Smith, Ronald D. *Becoming a Public Relations Writer: A Writing Process Workbook for the Profession* Second Edition. Mahwah, NJ/London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 2003. Pp. xv, 464. ISBN 0-8058-4260-8 (pb.) $44.95.

The target audience of this book consists of students in public relations classes and all others aiming at public relations careers. Smith begins his Preface with the flat statement that "the one skill that employers consistently say they seek among candidates for public relations positions is the ability to write well" (p. xi). He lists "four pillars" on which progress towards becoming an effective public relations writer rests: "yourself, your classmates, your instructor, and this book" (*ibid*.).

The book's 17 chapters, grouped into four sections, plus five appendixes, appear to offer a thorough coverage of the field.

Part One, "Principles of Effective Writing," consists of chapters on "writing," "effective writing," "communication theory and persuasion," and "the writing process." The first chapter begins with some advice any writer can take to heart: "Take pen in hand or hand to keyboard. Simply start writing, and keep writing for a certain period of time" (p. 4). The object is simply to get started, and, hopefully, to begin to get some ideas

down on paper—without stopping to correct grammar or spelling.

Later, in Part One, the advice continues to be down-to-earth: "follow rules and guidelines for proper English" but "avoid grammatical myths" which can unnecessarily restrict creativity, "keep punctuation simple," "use parallel structure," but avoid redundancies, "use adjectives and adverbs sparingly," "create word pictures," "use precise language," "limit technical language," "don't create new words," "limit pretentious language," use "nonbiased language," etc.

The chapter on "the writing process" stresses the need to make decisions about important questions: "Who are my publics? What do they know about my organization or client? What do they think about this? What information will be interesting and useful to them? How can I best reach them? How can I inform and persuade them?" (p. 61).

Part Two, "Public Relations Writing Through Journalistic Media," discusses the nature of news and the public relations writer's relation to it; "news-style writing," working with the media in general and the special character of broadcast media; feature writing; and advocacy and opinion.

Part Three, "Public Relations Writing through Organizational Media," addresses such topics as fliers, brochures, web sites, newsletters, corporate reports, direct-mail appeals, public relations advertising, speeches and interviews.

Part Four, "Pulling It All Together," concerns how to select and combine various public relations tools to accomplish different goals. Chapters focus on "information kits," and "writing for news conferences." The discussion of news conferences includes how to prepare for responses to questions, including embarassing questions.

The text is interspersed throughout with suggested exercises. Appendixes consist of "A Common Sense Stylebook...," "Copy Editing" symbols, a discussion of "careers in public relations," a list of professional public relations organizations, with contact information, and ethical standards as embodied in the codes of ethics of four major national and international public relations organizations.

A classified bibliography, a glossary, and a general index also are included.

—WEB

Tester, Keith. *Compassion, Morality and the Media*. (Issues in Cultural and Media Studies series). Buckingham, UK/Philadelphia: Open University Press, 2001. Pp. viii. 152. ISBN 0-335-20514-3 (hb.) £45.00; 0-335-20513-5 (pb.) £15.99.

The effects upon audiences of the examples of suffering brought before them daily by the mass media may vary widely, as may their effective responses, or lack of response to the needs of the victims. How they vary and why are the questions tries to explore. In his foreword, series editor Stuart Allan links these questions to Raymond Williams' phrase, "the culture of distance," and the author strongly recommends the book, *Distant Suffering: Morality, Media and Politics*, by Luc Boltanski, which is one of few books to deal "with the problem of the suffering and misery of distant others in...a developed and focused way" (p. 1).

Tester points out, in the first chapter, "that reports of the suffering of distant others are morally meaningful to audiences in a way that is much more complex and confusing than journalists intend" (pp. 11-12). The mass media have caused audiences to be subject to "compassion fatigue," which "means becoming so used to the spectacle of dreadful events, misery, or suffering that we stop noticing them...being left exhausted and tired by those reports and ceasing to think that anything at all can be done to help" (p. 13).

The author, in Chapter 2, "seeks to use the phrase 'compassion fatigue' as a route into a series of debates about the ethics of journalistic practice and, thereby, of finding a way into the terrain that the rest of the book will examine" (pp. 13-14). Following Pierre Bourdieu, Tester says that the question of moral compassion in journalism is more than one of individual morality but is, rather, a question of "journalistic practice," which arises from the structure of the field of journalism, itself. But the field of practice is in tension between two different logics. "These are the logics of objective reporting and of the market" (p. 34), complicated by "a broader history of moral sensibility which has emphasized a universalized ethic of compassion" (p. 35). The author sees the journalist's compassion fatigue as "the bad faith which emerges out of the opposition in the field of journalistic production when the practices and the goods that it justifies and legitimizes are placed in a situation of competition for scarce resources" (p. 40). On the other hand, it is wrong to generalize. "It is simply not the case that all journalists have reached a state in which they have completely and decisively 'switched off' from feeling any bond of empathy with the suffering of another" (p. 41).

Chapter 3 shifts the focus from the journalist to the audience, "a moral constituency," a description implying social action which must take others into account (p. 46). The audience is inevitably divided by competing moral voices. An "ethical incommensurability" is made inescapable by competing moral claims and narratives, and compassion is unable to resolve the conflict because the compassion itself rises out of the principles that are fundamental to the conflict (p. 69).

In Chapter 4, Tester says that, while the weight of compassion fatigue holds down a lid on the compassion necessary to elicit moral action, that lid must be raised in order to move journalists and their audiences to do something in the real order about the suffering they see in the media. Various ways this might be done are explored, one of which is the "CNN effect," the "impact that 24-hour rolling news services...have upon news coverage," creating a sense of immediacy that can affect policy-makers (p.98). He concludes that the media can lift the lid by stimulating feelings of shame, guilt, love and sorrow, but many factors determine how and how effectively this is done.

Chapter 5 explores the roles and effects of "telethons, investment and gifts" in the stimulation of social moral action through the media.

Chapter 6, "Conclusion," recalls that "this is a book to be used rather than the statement of a position. It is more by way of an invitation to a dialogue than a coherent and unitary thesis which demands to be defended.

A glossary, references, and an index are supplied.

—WEB

Tillmann-Healy, Lisa M. *Between Gay and Straight: Understanding Friendship across Sexual Orientation*. Walnut Creek, CA: AltaMira, 2001. Pp. 245. ISBN 0-7591-0110-8 (hb.) $62.00; 0-7591-0111-6 (pb.) $22.95.

Tillmann-Healy takes her readers on a journey into a community of gay softball players and the social network of their friends and colleagues in Tampa, FL. When her fiancé and later husband, Doug Healy, joins a gay-identified softball league, Tillmann-Healy begins to engage in both friendship and ethnographic fieldwork with the team members and their partners. Over the course of two years, she and Doug become more and more active in the gay community to the point that the majority of their friends are gay men and most of their leisure time is spent with them.

The value of this engaging text is in its unique perspective on friendships across sexual orientation. While other researchers have examined gay communities and, of course, friendship more generally, Tillmann-Healy's account of friendship offers a model of openness to engaging difference not with mere tolerance, but with kindness, enthusiasm, respect, and even joy. At the same time, she acknowledges the erroneous assumptions, awkward moments, and fears she experiences as she and her husband venture into a culture very different from the one they were raised in as small town Midwesterners. As their connections to gay men deepen, Tillmann-Healy and her husband find their relationships to straight colleagues and friends changing, often in uncomfortable ways. The developing friendships impact their own identities and hence their marriage as well. Throughout her narrative, Tillmann-Healy challenges cultural assumptions surrounding gay men, the nature of sexual identity, cross-sex friendship, the relationship between sexual orientation and friendship, and cultural homophobia. Tillmann-Healy's willingness to share and confront her own fears, prejudices, and values makes her a humane and trustworthy guide into what for most readers will be foreign territory.

Between Gay and Straight will be beneficial for scholars and teachers of friendship, gay/lesbian studies, gender studies, and cultural ethnography. Qualitative methods and ethnography instructors will find this a useful text for demonstrating the research process. Tillmann-Healy provides many details of research question formation, gaining access to a research site, data collection, and making decisions about modes of data analysis and representation. Moreover, she engages in reflexive consideration of her own role in her research, wrestling with such ethical issues as being friends with research participants and speaking for others.

The book has a bibliography but no index.

—Laura Ellingson
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Van Ginneken, Jaap. *Collective Behavior and Public Opinion: Rapid Shifts in Opinion and Communication*. Mahwah, NJ/London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 2003. Pp. xv, 301. ISBN 0-8058-4386-8 (hb.) $69.95 (special prepaid price: $34.50).

Feeling "ill at ease with the reductionist climate that prevailed in most relevant fields" pertinent to his

doctoral dissertation on "Crowds, Psychology, and Politics," the author turned to chaos and complexity theory for better answers (pp. ix-xi). The idea "that minor details may cause dramatic shifts in many processes" flies in the face of "prevalent thinking about the 'controllability' (in principle) of almost anything" (p. xi). Van Ginneken viewed the twin field of "mass" psychology and "collective behavior" sociology as one in which "loss of control" had always been important, but the field, itself, had become moribund in recent years. He therefore resolved "to bring the field alive again by thoroughly stirring it, by trying to shift, broaden, and deepen it" (p. xi).

The management of the phenomena of rapid, radical shifts in public opinion "was not as easy as it seemed" to public relations people of the 1980s and 1990s. "This book will try to spell out why this is the case, and propose new approaches to rapid shifts" (p. xii).

He says that the present book can be seen as "three books in one, a trilogy. ...The first book provides 'thick' descriptions of a number of recent, dramatic cases of shifts in public opinion and perception. ...The second book provides an overview of relevant explanations of such phenomena in terms of current psychology and sociology... the third book tries to link this up with new metatheories about rapid shifts" (p. xiii). The "three level storylines" are "braided" into one. "Every chapter begins with a case description, goes on to current analysis of the phenomena in question, and then a tentative link with new theories" (p. xiii).

These chapters are grouped into four sections. The first, "Mind Quakes," presents "some of the main starting points," and its three chapters explicate these with three cases, each following the "three levels of argument: from concrete to abstract" (p. 1). Thus, Chapter 1 looks at a recent controversy about "the true colors of Benetton," sparked by the shocking images used in the clothing company's advertising campaigns that created "a new and compelling brand image." That image was then sustained by its generation of feedback loops and media hypes, there was synergy formation and an emerging pattern...a split image, a dual public—of proponents and opponents—with few people remaining indifferent" (p. 7). This process the author sees as a case of "public opinion as a complex adaptive system."

Chapter 2 uses "the happy Disney family" and its "dark side" developed and ramified through hearsay, gossip and rumor, as an example of "the continuous mutation of informal messages" (pp. 25f.). The hunger for news, illustrated by non-coverage of the Ethiopian famine of the 1980s which evolved into "emphatic coverage," is presented as an example of "circular reaction in media hypes," in Chapter 3 (pp. 47f.).

Part Two, on "emerging collective behavior," uses the French nuclear tests of the late 1990s as a case of "the formation of synergy in crowds"; the anti-fur campaign shows the emergence of patterns in opinion currents"; and Greenpeace is a case of "the self-organization of social movemnets" (p. 125f.).

Part Three similarly deals with "shifting public moods," shown by the evolving context of fashions and fads" (ch. 7); "critical thresholds in fear and panic" exemplified by "the mad cow madness" (ch. 8); and "attractors in outrage and protest" that emerged in the confrontation between Greenpeace activity and the Shell Petroleum Company over the Brent Spar—an obsolete oil storage vessel in the North Sea.

Part Four, "Conclusions," has two chapters that follow the earlier, three-level pattern: "phase transitions in crazes and crashes," as in the case of the Asian financial "meltdown" of 1997-1998 (see Chapter 10); and "prediction, planning, and fundamental uncertainty" shown by the Chernobyl nuclear disaster of 1986 (Chapter 11).

The final chapter, "Epilogue: Issues Management," recapitulates the book's central argument that the reinterpretation of phenomena in terms of complex adaptive systems frequently offers a more accurate interpretation of dynamic, evolving systems than do theories based on assumptions of "measurability, predictability, and controllability." In many cases, "the only certainty is uncertainty" and "organization and communication experts may have to give up the illusion that they can always 'steer' the course of events" (p. 273).

Extensive references and both author and subject indexes are provided.

—WEB

Zdzislaw, Grzegorz Grzegorski. *Ja, dziecko i TV; Poradnik dla Rodzicow i wychowawcow* [I, Child, and Television: A Guide for Parents and Educators] Ksiegarnia Sw. Wojciecha, Poland: Uniwersytet im. A Mickiewicza — Wydzial Teologiczny, 2000. (DiKW Sp. z o.o. Plac Wolnoci 1 60-967 Poznan, Poland; e-mail: marketing@ksw.com.pl) Pp. 114. ISBN 83-86360-48-8 (pb.) 11.00 PLN (US$2.75)

This guide—intended for parents, teachers, and others who advise and mentor children—attempts to summarize the influential role of the media on children's personalities.

The author shows many ways in which television is an important source of information and knowledge about the world. But he also gives an idea about the danger of mass media especially in the relation to the young children and teenagers who are persistently preoccupied with it without adults' monitoring. Grzegorski provides information how television and other mass media create a new social situation where there is a fine line between reality and fiction and the tremendous impact it has on children's development.

Grzeorski relates that children, at 7-9 years old, cannot distinguish the difference between reality and fantasy on television. They accept each program's contents as the absolute truth and often imitate a character's behavior in a play with peers. Older children, 10-12 years old, search for role models as the effect of their developing personality. The fully aware and active way of viewing television programs starts to develop at the age of 16-18.

Recognizing children's needs and the role that media play in their lives is the major responsibility of all parents, teachers, and everyone who cares about future of young people.

What should be done? How to minimize the destructive effect of the television on children? The author emphasizes the necessity of establishing dialogue between parents and a child and mostly encourages parents and all care givers to

- monitor the amount of time their children watch films and shows
- view the TV programs together with their children and talk about them
- discuss the main characters in the presented movie; his/her motive of behavior, his/her personality, and represented value content
- ask the child what he/she has heard and what questions he/she may have.

Grzegorski's presentation in this brief but articulate book consists of four parts:

Part I of this book presents an overview about the main ideas about television in relation with a child with a special focus on influential effects. In this part the author also describes the role of television from the Christian point of view. By mass media, people "see the Earth as the biggest spectacle, where they discover footsteps of Savior and Creator—the place of contact of God with a human" (p.14).

Part II concentrates around topics related with active communication among parents and their children. The author stresses that children, whose parents watch television programs together, discuss, and engage in reflection, gain more positive experiences and knowledge compared with the children who watch television by themselves or with little parental assistance.

Part III discusses how to establish an open relation with a child and how to communicate effectively with a special focus on the child's age, maturity and developmental level. The author gives here some criteria of analyzing and evaluating radio and television programs, movies, and magazines.

Part IV presents simple, true dialogue between parents and children, the ways others communicate. Grzegorski includes real stories and notes from the journal of a mother of three children—Lucji Waniek.

A general index is provided.

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Journals Received

Communication Research Trends receives many communication journals, including *Alternativas (Revista del Centro de Información Producción y Tecnologia Educativa), Canadian Journal of Communication, Comunicar: Revista Cientifica Iberoamericana de Comunicación y Educación, Comunicarte, Edav: educazione audiovisiva, Escribaía: Comunicación, Cultura, Región, Interacción: Revista de Comunicación Educativa, Media and Gender Monitor, Media Development, Media Perspektiven, Tecnología y comunicación educativas*, and *Telemedium: The Journal of Media Literacy.*

For brief summaries of their contents and of current research, please see the *Trends* website at *http://cscc.scu.edu/trends*.