Briefings

For this assignment each student, or pair of students, selects a topic on which to prepare a summary (2-4 pages) in written form that gives other students a quick start when they face that topic. These briefings are intended to provide or point to key resources, i.e., key concepts, issues and debates, references, quotes or paraphrases from those references, faculty on campus, relevant courses. To begin preparing their briefings, students view previous versions linked to the course website or meet with me to get initial suggested resources.

Topics

- How not to be misled by what is on the WWW
- The mis/use of quantitative information
- Community based research, in the United States and elsewhere
- Interviewing is not just asking questions and receiving informative answers
- Moving down to or in with the grassroots
- Student activism concerning research
- Participatory action research
  (See also TECHNOLOGY BY THE PEOPLE)
- Whistle blowing can be hazardous for your livelihood and life
- Critical and creative thinking
- Facilitation of Group Process
- Establishing Internet/E-mail Conversations within a Group
- ~~On Narrative and Computers~~
- Grantseeking
- Film and Video Resources in Boston

last update, 31 Aug. 01

How Not to Be Misled Doing Research On the Internet

AUTHOR*ITY

As a virtual publishing arena, the World Wide Web challenges the meaning of the word "authority". The author on the web has the freedom of communicating their ideas without the academic or peer filters that exist in the print world of published literary works. On one hand, this permits greater representation and individualization of ideas. On the other hand, with such freedoms comes the choas of evaluating a literary perspective without any cover flap review or press reputation to judge this virtual text with. One must be a skeptical surfer. The scholarly researcher, such as a Swarthmore student, need not become overwhelmed and [disgustedly] shy away from the web as a resource. Don't let the Internet intimidate you! Fortunately, there are responsible internet users out there that are working to pave retraceable paths for other users to find accurate, current, useful information. Search engines (especially ones with relevancy ratings), Virtual Libraries , and web sites devoted specifically to evaluating other sites exist explicitly to help the researcher to search in the right direction.

THERE ARE THREE THINGS YOU NEED TO BE AWARE OF WHEN DOING RESEARCH ON THE WEB:

1.) Making the Most of your Search

2.) Reliability of the Resource You Find

3.) Proper Citation of the Resource You Use

This research briefing was brought to you by Mariah Peelle, class of '99 on 2/23/98. Acknowledgements go to Meg Spencer, Reference Librarian at Cornell for her "information professional perspective" especially influencing the context of this text. Thanks to Justin Hall, class of '98 for criticism and helping me remember html.

Ways to ensure your search goes the direction you want it to go:

1.) What are you looking for? Decide this before you get online to avoid rambling, distracted, snowballing surfing (while this may be helpful and spontaneous, it has the danger of being wastefully time consuming). What medium will be most useful to you?

A.) Personal (a.k.a vanity) web pages can provide you with helpful dialogue on current issues (especially controversial ones) with a range of individual perspectives. Organization web pages can provide you with useful links, perhaps even direct email contacts to authorities. This medium has the most potential for misleading information. Be sure to think of who the author is (expertise?), who they are connected to (a reputable organization?). Compare their page with others (what biases can you recognize?). Are there better resources out there (i.e. a more specific organization?). Who is the intended audience (the lay person? the expert?).

B.) Periodicals can give you a range in types of articles from substantive news/general interest, popular, sensational, to scholarly.

C.) Besides the tricollege library engine Tripod to conventionally obtain a resource through the library, books can be ordered and even reviewed on the web. Amazon.com is unique with its open forum book reviews. Any lay person can comment on a book, they don't have to be a professional book reviewer.

2.) Let the Information Professionals do the searching for you with web site reviews/rankings pages.

A.) Swarthmore's Librarian categorically selected pages: Internet Reference Resources (we can trust their scholarly judgement). You can also go straight to Exploring the Internet for indexes and full text resources.

B.) Selection by Yahoo!: On Yahoo's home page they have a directory which differs from a search engine in that web pages at large are arranged and searchable categorically. For example, for the topic "Biology" they have anything from anatomy to zoology. You select the category and then search within zoology (for example).

-use '+' to require inclusion of word(s) and a '-' for exclusion of word(s)
-use quotation marks to search a phrase
-truncation symbol is *
-yahoo has a direct link to Alta Vista if you don't find anything.

C.) Search Engines: "Spiders" (i.e. web crawlers) patrolling the web finding sources that match closest to your word being searched. If it is a good search engine it will have a help or frequently asked questions page.

a.) Alta Vista This is the largest search engine so be as specific as possible in your search word. Use the notations to limit your search:
-quotation marks for searching a phrase (i.e. "human cloning").
-use a '+' before the term to require inclusion of word(s) and use a ' ' to exclude words (i.e "ethics + human cloning").
-beware: there is no duplicate detection
-truncation symbol is * ("human clon*)

b.) Hotbot This search engine covers over 54 million URLs.
-provided relevancy rating with the best listed first
-no truncation is available
-can use Boolean logic: select parameters in the box (ALL the words (automatically done), ANY of the words, etc.) or you can select "Boolean phrase" and type in your own Boolean Operators (and, or, not).

c.) Infoseek This is a web directory (for over 50 million URLs) which has been around for a long time and is well respected. The relevancy ratings are based on the number of times your search word is in the source as well as where within the text your word is located. Greater relevancy will be given for the word being in the title.
-use quotations marks to search a phrase to limit the search
-matching ALL the words searched is automatically done

d.) Meta Crawler This "meta-engine" searches several search engines and guides at once including Yahoo!, WebCrawler, InfoSeek, and Alta Vista. The biggest "beware" advice for this one is you will miss a lot of information if you only search on this Meta Crawler.

Now that you have found a site with your search, be a skeptical surfer and ask yourself: how reliable is this resource?

Evaluating the Reliability of the Web Site You Find

1.) The unreliable author: nothing says that the author isn't relying on junk science. After all, it's virtual, nobody knows where you live or what you look like, why not play with people's minds? [this being the justification for promotion of false information]. Take home message: just because it is in print doesn't mean it's for real!

2.) Out of date, static information: check first to see when the page was last updated. If a link leads to a dead end that is usually an indication of neglect. The web has been around for at least five years, and some initial enthusiasts may have dropped their mouse and left the virtual playground with their page still lying around.

Here Are Some Web Sites specifically for evaluating sites:

*The Good, The Bad, and The Ugly: Why it is a good idea to evaluate Web Sources.
*University of Albany's Evaluating Internet Resources provides a nice checklist of what to remember when using internet sources.
*Smith, Alastair G. "Testing the Surf: Criteria for Evaluating Internet Information Resources." The Public-Access Computer Systems Review 8, no. 3 (1997)
* Bibliography on Evaluating Internet Resources

Now once you've found a reliable site, move onto making the Proper Citation of this resource you've found.

Citing The Electronic Resource You've Found

With hourly metamorphosis going on, pages that may be here today may not be here tomorrow. Get all the info you need at once, including the proper citation. Even download a copy. Be sure to check with your professor before using a web resource. For example, my Invertebrate Zoology professor the other day mentioned we could use the web to get ideas for a paper assignment, but we couldn't cite the information because there is no way of knowing whether or not the information on the web is correct.

Here is an example: (note that the last date mentioned is the date that YOU looked at the page)

Sheridan, Rob. (1997, January 5- last update). *The Unofficial Dancing Baby Homepage.* Available: http://www.nwlink.com/~xott/baby.htm [1998, Febuary 16].

Thanks for reading this research briefing, I hope it was helpful! Page Last Updated 3/2/98.

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March 29, 1998
Bio 9: The Social Impact of Science

The Quantitative Misuse/Use of Statistics
"You can prove anything using statistics."
Senator Kit Bond (R-MO) in a speech on the Senate Floor, January, 1994

Statistics play a large role in research, yet it is important to consider many factors which allow researchers to make the conclusions that they do. Numbers and graphs are often impressive to the average laymen who would never critically analyze them, because they do not have the proper tools to do so. We shall provide you with the tools necessary to critically analyze statistics and demonstrate how statistics may be misleading.

A National Example of Misuse:

In the 1936 United States Presidential election, a widely read and highly respected magazine conducted a survey poll as to who would win between Governor Alf Landon of Kansas and Franklin D. Roosevelt, the incumbent. To conduct the survey, the pollsters sent out sample ballots to a large number of people who were listed in telephone directories and car registries. Many people in 1936 did not have telephones and/or cars which clearly, automatically eliminated them from the survey. The survey thus discriminated against working class people, since during a Great Depression only an elite could afford such luxuries. Among those that did reply, Alf Landon was the overwhelming favorite. If readers of this magazine would have known something about statistics, they would have been skeptical about the claim that Alf Landon was the easy favorite to win. As we know today, FDR was an easy winner in the 1936 elections, and this represents just one example of how bias in surveys may draw false conclusions.

The Difficulties of a Census

What prohibits researchers from conducting a census when they want information about an entire population? In an ideal world, researchers would be able to contact all the members of a given population and obtain accurate results from all the members of a population. But, there are a number of factors which force researchers to conduct small surveys, as opposed to a broader, larger census. Even the federal government conducts a census only once every ten years. The following is a list or problems with conducting a census:

--populations are often too large, thus making the process too expensive and time consuming
--a relatively small sample may reveal more accurate information about a population (this is true in developing nations where there is a lack of properly educated people that are able to conduct such an experiment
--no census is foolproof since even governments have missed small numbers of the population, which could

result in large numbers of a single group being 'missed' (i.e., the 1980 U.S. census missed an estimated 1.4% of the American population, which included an estimated 5.9% of the Black population)

Types of Sampling

Sampling procedure, much like the anecdote above, could easily be manipulated to obtain certain results or influence certain sectors of the population. This is one area where people need to be most critical in understanding statistical findings, and most careful in conducting personal research.

--*convenience sampling*: in this method researchers choose participants that are easily accessible; this often leads to misleading conclusions about the population and are often biased; researchers use this tactic mischievously to support their hypothesis

--*simple random sampling*: the method is more convenient since it eliminates human choice by allowing random, impersonal chance decide a survey's participants; all units are given equal chance to be included in the sample and include no bias in selecting a sample

A good sample is considered to have low bias and high precision.

Problems of Sampling

There are two types of errors in sampling which could have misleading effects on research.

--*sampling errors*: mistakes caused by the act of taking a sample, thus leading sample results to be different from census results; the more misleading the act of conducting a sample may be, the more the results are skewed

--*nonsampling errors*: mistakes are not necessarily rooted in the survey process, but are rooted in human behavior and would appear even in a census

Four Types of Nonsampling Errors

--missing data- subjects refuse to respond to the surveys or the inability to contact a subject; if these missing peoples response differ from the rest of the population, bias will result
--response errors- subjects may lie about their age or income (i.e., respondents may lie about the amount of alcohol they consume on a weekly basis or the amount of money they spend on illegal substances each week); respondents that do not understand a question may invent an answer rather than admit that they do not understand--
processing errors- errors may be made by those individuals entering the information into a database or by committing common mathematical mistakes--
effect of data collection- the method used to collect the data could influence the results (i.e., if a fat person is interviewing random people about whether more money should be spent to cure obesity)

--timing- surveys conducted concerning economic policy during a depression might have different results than surveys conducted during periods of economic stability
--exact wording of questions- the way a question is phrased could greatly influence the way an individual responds, especially if it is a 'loaded question" (i.e., What you support federal funds for abortion so that millions of unwanted children are not born every year?)
--means of conducting a survey- certain means of conducting a survey could have an influence on the people that respond (i.e., mail surveys, being the least expensive method are practical, but they often receive responses from individuals who vehemently oppose or support an issue; telephone surveys are fast and economical yet do not include those families or individuals that do not have telephones; personal interviews, the least biased of the methods, are expensive and offer contact, yet every respondent does not get the question the same way)

Tables and Graphs: Visual Misrepresentation of Data

Statisticians use a much simpler means to communicate results, besides pages of numbers and results: tables, charts and graphs. When dealing with any type of table, chart or graph, it is very important to understand the source of the information and the definition of the terms being used. (i.e.; if we were reading a table of the largest countries in the world and their economic output, we must know if they define size by geography or population). Individuals need to beware of the mechanisms by which visual representations of data can be adjusted and manipulated in such a way as to draw a false conclusion. The following are a list of a variety of graphing and tabling procedures and ways that they can be manipulated:

frequency tables-- These tables count the number of a certain response in an interview divided by the total number of participants in an interview. For instance if 1500 people were interviewed concerning whether they approved of the President, and 900 said that they approved of the President, 400 stated that they did not approve of the President and 100 had no comment, then we could say that the President's approval rating was 60%. However, some statisticians might ignore the 100 that failed to respond or to comment on the President, thus lifting his approval rating to over 64%. Another large problem with such tables are that statisticians or those conducting the research often round numbers off, and for the sake of simplicity of frequency tables, they often round to the nearest hundred or even thousand, thus creating problems of interpretation.

pie charts-- These charts use a visual 'pie' to represent some statistical concept. A circle is divided by degrees into the number multiplied by 360 to give the exact proportion one part of the pie should be (i.e.; if 28% of the American population uses crack, we would change 28% into a decimal and multiply it by 360 (degrees in a circle) to deduce how many degrees of the 'pie' that this information should occupy out of the whole 'pie', (.28)(360)=100.8; thus the percentages of crack users should occupy just over 100 degrees). However, humans judge length much better than degrees of a circle, and therefore, circle charts can often be misleading or allow false conclusions to be made. Furthermore, pie charts often are convoluted and cluttered and therefore makes it hard to gain a clear visual representation of the data.

dot charts-- These charts present the information using dotted lines with dark endpoints. They are often clear, concise and to the point. They provide the simplest means by which to present information and allow for a clear visual representation. The only manipulation which could occur is if the chart maker is able to misrepresent some information with wrong intervals, thus making some lines appear longer or shorter than they should be.

line graphs-- These graphs use lines to connect the data points between pieces of information. These are perhaps the most utilized form of graphing, yet can easily be manipulated. Be sure to check the scales of both the horizontal and vertical axis to insure that intervals are properly/evenly divided. Beware of breaks in the information provided. Finally, check to make sure that the data is not being presented in a way which might visually represent the opposite of what the information reveals. (i.e., make sure that the information on the x-axis does not belong on the y-axis, or vice versa). (see Moore, p. 183, for an in-depth explanation of this phenomenon)

bar graphs-- These graphs use bars to visually depict two or more variables in comparison. Usually these graphs compare two variables throughout a number of different variables. (In Moore's book, he uses a bar graph of the number of men and women receiving bachelor, master, and doctoral degrees). There are two ways these results can be misrepresentative. First, the reader needs to insure that the bars are the same width, since our eyes respond to area more than they do height. Furthermore, the bars of bar graphs are often shaped into different objects, which can easily overexaggerate any differences between the results.

Conclusion

As noted, there are a variety of ways that researchers can inadvertently (or purposefully) manipulate surveys to ensure that public opinion or their research findings support the idea that they want. It is extremely important that students and the general public understand these mechanisms to insure that the polls distributed to the public are critically analyzed. Not doing so could lead to misinformation and wrong conclusions.

Bibliography

Moore, David S., *Statistics: Concepts and Controversies*. (third edition). W.H. Freeman and Company, New York. 1991.

On-Campus Sources:

For more information about statistics and the misrepresentation of quantitative information contact Professor Gudmund Iversen or Professor Philip Everson in the mathematics and statistics department, or check out the books and syllabi used for the following courses:
Stat. 1: Statistical Thinking
Stat. 2/Soc. Anth. 22: Statistical Methods

Stat. 2C/Soc. Anth. 28: Statistics

Community Based Research
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May 6, 1998

What is community based research?
Research conducted by, for, or with the participation of members of a community. It often involves collaboration of community members who are lay people with experts in academic fields.
(definition adapted from CRN web page)

Web Resources

1. The Community Research Network
This is a loosely structured network to coordinate encourage collaborative efforts and broaden the availability and efficacy of community based research.
The webpage contains several links to organizations and networks facilitating, teaching, and using community based research.
hamp.hampshire.edu/~LOKA/crnintro.html

1 a. This website is a subset of the organization Loka, a non profit research and advocacy organization concerned with the social, political, and environmental repercussion of science and technology.
www.amherst.edu/~loka/outreach/others.htm#comres

The Deputy Director of this organization is Madeleine Scamell, the project coordinator of the Community Research Network. She has, in the past, organized citizen participation in the development of biotechnology. The organization has an email address at which she can be reached.
email: loka@amherst.edu

Loka has published "Doing Community Based Research: a reader" which is available on their website.

2. Another helpful site is the Citizens Clearinghouse for Hazardous Waste. This organization works with grassroots community groups on a broad range of environmental issues. It has links to many other organizations and clearinghouses.
www.essential.org/orgs/CCHW.

3. Society for Community Research and Action- this is an interesting organization, since its main goal is to use community based research as a tool to promote positive action. For questions you can e-mail: rlee2@gl.umbc.edu

You can actually become a member of the SCRA through links on their web page
www.apa.org/divisions/div27/

For regional information contact Northeastern Coordinator of SCRA:
Catherine A. Crosby-Currie
Department of Psychology
St. Lawrence University
Cantor, NY 13617

Articles of interest

Leland, Pamela J. 1996. Exploring Challenges to Nonprofit Status: issues of definition and access in community based research. *American Behavioral Scientist* 39 (5): 587-601.

This article deals with questions that are the focus of community based research, and the problems and constraints of community based research involving the nonprofit sector. It specifically looks at the challenges to tax exempt status occuring in Pennsylvania.

Hirabayashi, Lane R. 1995. Back to the Future: Re-framing Community Based Research. *Amerasia Journal* 21 (1): 103-118.

This article deals with the problems of community based research and offers ways to overcome them, specifically in reference to Asian American communities. However, the ideas expressed can be extrapolated to other community based research.

On-Campus Sources

For more information on methods for effective community based research you could take :
Soc. Anth. 21 Research Design
Soc. Anth. 22 Field Methods
Both taught by Profesor Charlton, or contact Prof. Charlton as a faculty informant.
Can be reached through e-mail: jcharlto1@swarthmore.edu

Prof. Milton Machuca and Prof. Miguel Diaz-Barriga are also good sources since they are working on community based research themselves (they are working on videos of culture and traditions in the Latino community of Kennet Square PA).

Interviewing is not just asking questions and receiving informative answers.

Lizzie Linn Casanave and Jenny Robicheau
Research Briefing October 26, 1998

Synopsis
1. Why interview?
2. Types of interviews
3. Steps in interviewing
4. Interviewing Tips
5. Issues
6. Resources

1. Why interview? Interviewing allows us to learn about people, places, and events through other people's experiences. It gives us access to other people's observations. It expands our understanding of other people's perceptions, learnings, feelings, etc. It also gives us peeks into areas that may typically be private.

2. Types of interviews:
* Quantitative or Survey Interviewing: Statistical surveys. Aim is typically to report how many people are in a particular category. Results can be in table form. This is a more close-ended interviewing research method that tests hypothesis. "In designing my study it was my intention to combine the most rigorous, scientifically sound methodology with a deep knowledge of, and sensitivity to, the issues of rape." Diana Russell was referring to the survey form of interviewing in this quote.
* Qualitative Interviewing: Semistructured or unstructured form of interviewing that allows for clarification and discussion. Encourages open-ended questions which explores individual's views and allows the interviewer to create a theory. This style is typically less controlled. This form is often used when the researcher wants detailed descriptions, multiple perspectives, a described process, a holistic description, interpretations or the identity of variables. This type of interview may sacrifice uniformity for broader development.

3. Steps in interviewing
1. Decide research goal: Choose a specific topic or question to be answered.
2. Decide aims of project.
3. Develop framework for project including the breadth of the study.
4. Develop appropriate questions based on study.*
5. Decide type of interviewees: Experts, witnesses, general population.
6. Question: will you tape the interview, transcribe, take notes?
7. Determine contacts.
8. Initial introduction/connection, establish relationship.
9. Arrange for interview keeping in mind where, when, and how long the interview will be?
10. Conduct interview.
11. Analyze data.
*How do we determine what questions to ask? Develop a basic understandings from previous work, study,

writings and experience. Do pilot research. Try to see how others have asked the question. Determine what will give substance to your future report and ask questions based on this goal.

4. Interviewing Tips:
* First, explain the purpose of the interview, going over explanations of your overall goals.
* How to ask the question: Phrase questions in an open way. Don't ask leading questions. Do ask probing and clarifying questions.
* Express interest in the informant's response: be an active listener.
* Provide good feedback: (from The Ohio State University Polimetrics Laboratory for Political and Social Research interviewer training manual via "Essential Interviewing Techniques" by A. Barber.)
Good Feedback:
I see...
That's important to know
OK... now the next question reads
It's important to find out what people think about this
That is useful/helpful information
Thanks, it's important to get your opinion on that
Bad Feedback:
Yes, a lot of people say that
Oh, really?
Gee, that's the first time I've heard that
I don't know anything about that

* Avoid bias: even voice tone can be interpreted as a bias. Be careful not to imply criticism, surprise, approval, etc. A non-judgmental manner will promote a more honest, response.
* You can help the respondent develop their response using the following suggestions which are excerpts from Learning from Strangers: The Art and Method of Qualitative Interview Studies by Robert Weiss.
1. Extending. You might want to know what led to an incident. Questions that ask for this include, "How did that start?" "What led to that?" Or you might want to know the consequences of an incident: "Could you go on with that? What happened next?"
2. Filling in detail. You might want more detail that the respondent has provided. A useful question often is, "Could you walk me through it?" An interviewer who worked with me used to add, "We need you to be as detailed as possible," and that seemed to work for her.
3. Others the respondent consulted. Especially in a study whose concerns include how respondents talked dealt with problems, you may want to ask whom the respondent talked with about an incident and what the respondent said: "Did you talk to anyone about what was going on?" This may produce information about the respondent" view of the incident at the time.
4. Inner Events: You will generally want to obtain information regarding some of the inner events that accompanied the outer events the respondent reports. Inner events include perceptions, what the respondent heard or saw; cognitions, what the respondent thought, believed, or decided; and emotions, how the respondent felt and what strivings and impulses the respondent experienced.

* tips from visit by Joy Charlton, Swarthmore College, March 1998

1. Conceptualization: multiple respondents vs. particular informant (you want to generalize vs. someone who has some particular experiences you want to know about)
2. Start with easy Qs then ask broad Qs that get a person talking, then add probing Qs
3. Preliminaries at the time of the interview
* avoid offices full of distractions -- look for, say, a conference room instead
* JC always tapes interviews so she has an accurate account
* use fresh batteries
* if phone interviewing, watch out for problems with analog vs. digital equipment
* (re)state who you are & what it is you want to know -- be honest, but not very revealing
* (re)state what's promised, e.g., anonymous & confidential
4. During interview
* concentrate every moment
* it's a gift for most people to be listened to
* be flexible, esp. when they say something you didn't expect
* peg things to what they previously said
* don't be afraid of pauses
* use your guide to lessen your anxiety
5. Afterwards
* write up notes straight away before you talk about it -- talking first distorts one's memory

5. Issues:
Confidentiality
Validity
Responsibility
Intrusions
Unresponsiveness

6. Resources:
"Essential Interviewing Techniques" http://www.unc.edu/depts/nnsp/viewtech.htm by Alleen Barber.
The Ethnographic Interview by James P. Spradley
Feminist Methods in Social Research by Shulamit Reinharz.
Learning from Strangers: The Art and Method of Qualitative Interview Studies by Robert Weiss.
Profiles of Social Research: The Scientific Study of Human Interactions by Morton Hunt.
The Research Experience by Patricia Golden.

John Leary and Jenny Harvey (jleary1@swarthmore.edu and jharvey1@swarthmore.edu)
Research Briefing 4/23/98

MOVING DOWN TO OR IN WITH THE GRASSROOTS

What issues face students and outsiders who want to support or collaborate with the public and community members affected by a problem?

A change
to a society
that protects people first
before it protects profits
will not come
because we wish for it to happen
or because we wait for it to happen
It will come only
if we *make* it come.
(Kahn 351)

SYNOPSIS OF RESEARCH BRIEFING:

1. Definition and Purpose of Grassroots
2. Issues and Considerations for Students
3. Methods for Overcoming Obstacles - how to be active
4. Examples of Grassroots Involvement and Organizations

What is Grassroots? Why Use Grassroots?

A way to influence people's opinions or actions, a way to educate people, and a way to empower community members that is community-driven and centered around people and their needs. Like it sounds, the roots of these efforts germinate in the community and sprout out to involve others who share a concern.

There are various reasons for taking a grassroots approach when trying to fight for an issue. The most obvious reason is that grassroots is the natural place to begin. Our sources discuss the difference between starting at the top and starting at the bottom. Public administrators and politicians begin at the 'top' when trying to influence change. They are in contact with people who make the decisions concerning policy. Service organizations and student groups start at the 'bottom.' They must gather enough momentum from a population to influence the top portion of the political pyramid. The goal of grassroots is to get people working together "with the spirit of reciprocity" (Lacey, 9). As a student trying to encourage change, it is natural to start with a grassroots approach.

The second reason for using grassroots is to gain understanding by aiding a situation. Gaining understanding involves, first, a general map of the phenomenon including knowledge of people involved, variations of the phenomenon, and conflicts involved. Secondly, understanding involves an "historical-sociological analysis of how the phenomenon has been shaped and maintained" (Lacey 5). Finally, it involves an effort to decipher what future possibilities/outcomes may be; this aspect entails predicting future occurrences from current experiences.

Issues and Problems Students Face
Many problems face students trying to make a difference through grassroots programs. Main issues to be aware of include:

A) Determining Interest: A student must make sure the community is interested in the issue she sees is a problem. She must make sure the goals of the grassroots effort match the real needs of the people it will affect.

B) Measuring Success: How do you know you are making a difference? Some grassroots efforts may be thwarted or may result in some action that receives little notice. Students should find a way to monitor the accomplishments of the organization, and also to keep track of their own contribution.

C) Deciding on Action: What level of involvement should an outsider assume? Grassroots campaigns may actually be counterproductive if violence or destruction of property dirties your group's reputation. How do you decide what's effective and what's embarrassing? Do you do illegal things or play by the rules? How do you avoid doing more harm to a community than good?

D) Combating Apathy and Prejudice: What if you are more interested in an action than the people it most directly affects? Should you pass comment or criticism? What happens when you elicit the responses, "who are you to tell us what is good for us?", or the "white, rich" stereotype?

E) Communication: In the fight concerning welfare, Professor Hugh Lacey points out that two main problems are that: 1) people trying to help are not fully tuned into the needs of the people, and 2) "voices of the poor themselves are largely absent" (Lacey 3). These two issues stem directly from a lack of communication, which can be the most troublesome issue confronting grassroots efforts.

F) Many Problems Face Grassroots Organizations: The student should be aware of the multiple obstacles which impede grassroots progress, such as: funding; time spent getting funding; getting consistent involvement when community members must also survive; powerful opponents with more money, legal standing, and social status; and lack of organization.

Methods and Suggestions
The following points address the above issues:
A) There are two routes to make sure goals match needs:

> 1) first decide on an idea for improving some aspect of living quality, then go find a community that needs that improvement
> 2) first locate a need in the community of your choice (sometimes the communities wills locate you) and then come up with a solution to help them

B) Results may be measured in many ways: sometimes a grassroots organization will only succeed in educating the community and increasing awareness. Sometimes the accomplishment will only be known to the five people in the grassroots group, but if they keep a toxic waste plant from moving in, they are successful. Other more tangible measurements are possible, such as votes or signatures on a petition, or the number of trees planted or number of children with books. A student may measure her personal contribution as a subset of the group's goals or in ways she defines, like the number of smile she generates.

C) As far as individual involvement, students should generally get involved but not lead an effort. Communities need to devise their own groups, but also need allies. A good campaign will be well organized and visionary so it is not foolish. Find or create such campaigns. Part of the trick is determining what skills you have to offer and what creative outlets you enjoy using, and then finding a group that can use you or in which you can flourish. Find a method of reaching people that works for you, whether it be music, gardening, or lobbying.

D) The responses you generate will vary. It is important to recognize that although as college students we are intelligent, we will not be able to grasp everything about a community and its interests right away. But the effort must be made to understand as much about the community as possible. It is most important, according to community organizers, that you "bring your brain". You need to be yourself but learn how to do so respectfully.

E) To overcome communication problems, it is important to understand the community. The community knows best. They know when they're suffering and when they're not, and they know what to ask for. To understand their needs, it is crucial to do on-site work.

F) To be an integral part of a successful program, a student must have all the attributes of a competent leader. He or she must be willing and able to adapt to changes, fix problems, and courageously work toward the final vision He must also:
-enjoy working with people
-listen well to what others have to say
-build trust with constituents through honesty
-be able to clearly express his ideas
-help people believe in themselves through constant encouragement
-allow the group as a whole to take credit for accomplishments
-be self-disciplined and lead by the example of working hard
-not allow himself to be discouraged too often
-have a grasp of his own identity so that he can help others do the same
-constantly ask questions

Student organizations may often be held together by only one or two people, but grassroots campaigns rely on the courage and involvement of many people with leadership qualities.

How to Get Involved

There are two general classifications of contributions a student can offer a community: service and organization. Organizing refers to helping labor workers or a community become empowered on their own. To these ends, students may pursue grassroots action on college, regional, or nation levels.
A) Opportunities on campus: CIVIC, and it forthcoming directory of active groups and volunteer opportunities in the Tri-Co area, Professor Mendel-Reyes' class on "Public Service, Community Organization, and Social Change", Earthlust
B) Regional Groups - CRCQL, American Friends Service Committee, Women's Law Project, Colors, Chester Community Improvement Project, People's Emergency Association, Maternity Care Coalition
C) Notable national groups - United Farm Workers Union, Service Employees' International Union, Campaign to Save the Environment, ACORN, and others.

Sources

Professor Meta Mendel-Reyes, grassroots organizer and activist (mmendel1)
David Reese, student, Empty the Shelters (dreese1)
David Zipper, student activist (dzipper1)
Build magazine - youths involved in grassroots (available in CIVIC office, Parrish Hall)
Professor Hugh Lacey, "Listening to the Evidence: Service Activity and Understanding Social Phenomena" Swarthmore College (hlacey1)
Si Kahn, Organizing: A Guide for Grassroots Leaders, 1982, McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, NY. (McCabe Library)

Suggested Reading

Saul Alinsky, author
Gary Delgatto, author
John Hoerr, author

Student Activism

Amy Harrington (aharrin1@swarthmore.edu)

College students, aware of issues that concern and affect them, are in excellent positions to do political action on a local level. In recent years, both right and left wing groups have recognized the need for focusing attention at college-aged students. As a result, on many campuses, along with the standard groups like Student Council and Young Republicans/Democrats, there is a slew of other politically active clubs. In the absence of structured organizations, college campuses also offer a variety of resources that make them an ideal site for activism. For example, student activism regarding apartheid in South Africa resulted in many campuses divesting from coorprations that supported the South African government.

Being educated on all facets of the issue you are concerned about is important for any type of activism, but it is particularly important for scientific issues. If you are to effect change within a community, you have to be able to explain the issue to people who may or may not have a scientific background. This can be accomplished by writing a piece for the school newspaper, leafletting around campus, setting up an information table in a heavily trafficked area on campus, inviting a speaker, or having a panel discussion. The next step, doing an action like a benefit or demonstration, will not work unless other people feel confident enough in their knowledge of the issue to form an opinion.

1. Find a group of people who agree with the issue you are interested in.

Is there already a student group on campus that works on issues similar to the one you want to work on? Consider bringing the idea to them. It may mean having to give up some of the leadership on the project, but you will have the advantage of the network and resouces which that group has already worked to put together.

Is there a national organization that is trying to start a campus organization dealing with the issue you are interested in? Many national organizations have been putting a lot of time and money into campus campaigns. Working with them would give you national resources, and they may be able to supply the funds for start-up costs. These groups all have campus programs:

Student Pugwash www.spusa.org/pugwash/

-This group is an offshoot of the Pugwash Conferences on Science and World Affairs, shich won the 1995 Nobel Peace Prize. Their mission is to promote socially respnsible application of science and technology.

United States Public Interest Researcg Group www.igc.apc.org/

-Along with consumer rights and activity in politics, USPIRG works n a variety or environmental protection issues. Some of the issues they work on include endangered species preservation and pollution.

Center for Environmental Citizenship www.igc.apc.org/cgv/

-This is a group that is dedicated to environmental issues. They offer internships and summer programs for college students. One of their major programs is called *Blueprint for a Green Campus*, and it contains instructions on how to carry out actions to produce changes on a campus level.

Feminist Majority Foundation www.feminist.org
-This group recently launched a program called *Campus Campaign for Choice*. One of the chief components is reproductive rights and women's health, such as RU486.

Do you feel as though starting your own organization would be the best idea? Find a group of people who want to work on the issue with you and be a part of the core group. Advertise your first meeting. Put fliers up in dorms and high-trafficked areas. Ask groups with similar philosophies as yours to advertise your group to their members. Once you have membership, make sure that you get recognized by the school as a campus rganization so you can be eligible for funding.

2. Define goal.
Brainstorm. What do you hope to accomplish? Who do you want to reach? What is doable given your budget, time constraints, number of people willing to work on the project?

Education Campaigns
-These are types of events designed to raise awareness about an issue. Invite a speaker, have a film showing, organize a panel discussion, write a letter to the editor of your school newspaper.

Benefits
-These events raise money for a group or cause. Concerts, like Rock for Choicetm, are usually good fundraisers. Dinners, parties, and other forms of entertainment can also be successful.

Actions
-Do something to effect change. Do a letter writing campaign. Organize an informational picket or rally, like Take Back the Night.

3. Do your research.
Find out history anbd currents events related to the issue you are working on.

Know your campus. What is the political climate? What groups have power within the community? Where are monetary resources located?

4. Divide up the work and delegate.

	Logistics	Finance	Publicity

9-10 weeks	-Secure a space fr the event.- Begin looking for speakers, perfomers, etc. depending on the nature of the event.	-Look for groups who may want to co-sponsor the event with you, and help you find money.	-Start designing posters.- If you are selling tickets, plan those.
7-8 weeks	-Investigate what equiptment will be necessary. (sound, lighting, stage, signs)	-Ask groups for donations to curtail the amount of money you need to put out.	-Order professional posters.
5-6 weeks	-Identify possible volunteers who can help out the day of the event.	-Look for other surces of funding. (academic departments, dean's office, president's office, local businesses)	-Publicity shuld begin. Put up fliers and posters around campus.
3-4 weeks	-Work with the person in charge of finance to make sure you will have enough money for everything you are planning.	-Define a realistic budget, given the donations you have received.	-Write editorials for you school and local newspaper.- Secure a jounalist to do a story on the event.
2 weeks	-Train volunteers on their general tasks.	-If you are selling tickets for the event, begin selling advance tickets.	-Ask the radio station to do a public service announcement.- Continue putting fliers up.
1 week	-Do a walk-through of the site with your volunteers. Try to trouble-shoot.	-Double check equipment rental details.	-Create a large banner and hang it in a high traffic area.

2-3 days	-Purchase refreshments if you are planning on providing or selling them.	-Keep track of receipts. Warn people to hold onto them when they purchase items for the event.	-Visibility should peak the day before the event.
The day of the event	-Walk through the schedule with the volunteers.	-Help set up equipment.	-Decorate the space with fliers and posters.
After the event	-Debrief with you group. What worked and what didn't?-Have a thank-you party for volunteers.	-Pay off remaining bills.	-Write thank-you notes to those who offered time and resources.- Do a follow-up story with your campus newspaper.

PARTICIPATORY ACTION RESEARCH
Catherine Yoon (cyoon1@swarthmore.edu)

Participatory action research (PAR) is not a research method, but it is a different approach to research and to learning. This type of research integrates intellectual work (actual research) with activist work. For science, this entails researching a scientific issue and actually being active in its solutions. This approach provides the educator (the research) in the field with an objective, systematic technique of solving problems and finding solutions that are in many ways far superior to just appealing to authority or relying on someone's personal experience. Action research allows one to develop a deeper understand and knowledge of an issue while acting upon it at the same time. This is an approach in which those in academia can play and active and involved role in society.

PAR is comprised of the following components:

1) It is participatory; meaning that everyone in every stage is active. The researcher does not only research but is also active in finding solutions and fixing them. The informants or subjects do not only provide information. They play active roles in the research and do not always remain passive participants. They are the ones who usually decided what problems are to be addressed. The projects are initiated by the community and researches are invited in. the research is controlled by the community as well as the researchers.

2) It tends to be cyclic-similar steps tend to occur while in the research and action process

3) It is qualitative, not quantitative- knowledge is not created in volumes but is just simply created. Knowledge is not created for the sake of knowledge alone.

4) It is defined by a need for action- there is no need for this type of approach if there is no issue to be addressed. The reseach is done by people who are concerned. The action gives purpose to the research as well as offering a way to measure the usefullness of the research for the cause.

PAR is made up of the following steps:
identification, prioritization, planning and design, implementation, data collection, reporting, and dissemination.

Step 1. Identify and Prioritize Issues
Ask questions of necessity, relevance, and significance in order to determine the issues.

Step 2. Develop and Design Research Plan
Intregrate technical research skills with the knowledge and information of the informants/subjects in order to design a reseach plan.

Step 3. Validate Feasibility and Appropriateness

Verify that the research design remains focued on the identified issues. Determine if data collection techniques are appropriate and if research is appropriate culturally as well as scientifically.

Step 4. Analysis And Reporting
There cannot be any compromise of non-objective and/or biased resuls when analyzing. Also, scientific rigor must be maintained. The results must be conved didactically.

Step 5. Synthesis and Dissemination
All research and data must be synthesized in order to be disseminated. Dissemination mechanisms consist of publications, conferences, symposiums, newsletters among others.

However, PAR is not always perfect and there are obstacles:

1) Participation is not always easy. The very definition of what a community entails can lead to problems. Also, full community participation is difficult to organize. Non-researchers have other demands on their time and energy.

2) Taking action can also be precarious. Action could potentially push people in the community away from dealing with the issue at hand. While action has the power to bring people together, it can also divide a community. Community organizing is also time consuming and can effect the amoun to time that is spent actually researching and devising action plans.

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Whistleblowing (first draft)
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In some circles the term "whistleblower" is a dirty word. If you want to blow the whistle on someone or something, be prepared to pay the consequences. It takes a strong person to resist the pressures that come as a result of blowing the whistle. The side effects of whistleblowing come whether a person is trying to stop sexual harassment or stop a doctor who is unfit to take care of patents.

Whistleblowing often leads to the end of one's job, especially in nursing (*The effects of interpersonal closeness and issue seriousness on blowing the whistle*, By King, Granville III, Journal of Business Communication, October 1997.) If the person is not terminated directly by their employer, their jobs are generally made as miserable as possible. Often peers will stop talking to the person who is trying to blow the whistle making that person's job almost impossible to do or just plain unenjoyable. There are several question a person must answer for themselves before they decide to blow the whistle;

* Whose problem is this, anyway?
* Must I do anything about it?
* Is it my fault?
* Who am I to judge?
* Have I got the facts straight?
* Should I ignore the situation? tolerate it?
* What do I get out of this?
* Is it worth the trouble?
* Is anything to be gained?
* What will it cost me? (Curtin, Leah L. *Damage control and the whistleblower* , Nursing Management, May 1993)

There are laws that are designed to protect whistle blowers, however most consider the federal law to be inadequate because it basically says that whistle blowers have the right to sue a company that harassed them and not much more. These laws do give people the opportunity to try and protect themselves against harassment. A common tact of companies to get rid of "trouble makers" is to create charges against whistle blowers. Charges can be anything from poor performance to sexual harassment.

Resources
1) alt.whistleblowing and it's FAQ (although activity in this group seems pretty low and I was unable to get my hands on a copy of the FAQ)

2)Whistle Blowing, http://www.disgruntled.com/blowing.html. This sight is basically a collection of first hand anecdotes about whistle blowing and other work related issues.
3)Information About Blowing The Whistle, http://www.pogo.org/pogo5.html. A sight by POGO (Project On Government Oversight) which provides help for people who are whistle blowers.

4)BLOWING THE WHISTLE: How to Protect Yourself and Win. A video that shows successful methods of whistle blowing. (http://www.videoproject.org/videoproject/BlowingtheWhistle.html)

5)Government Accountability Project:Whistleblower Support, http://www.accessone.com/gap/index.htm. A very good sight that is out there to support whistle blowers and provide resources for them.

The closest thing I found to a FAQ on whistleblowing is the following information found on an attorney's web sight;

"Whistle-blowing" is when an employee tells on an employer who is breaking the law. Employees who blow the whistle on their employers are protected by law. If they are fired or otherwise retaliated against for whistle-blowing, they can sue.

What Is Whistle-Blowing?

To actually whistle-blow, the employee must tell of the illegal act to someone outside the company. It must be a government or law-enforcement agency.

If the employee just complains to someone inside the company, that is not whistleblowing, and the employee is not protected by the whistleblower laws. However, the employee may be protected under other laws. For example, it is illegal to fire someone for complaining of sexual harassment or discrimination.

Does the Employer Have to Have Broken the Law?

It is not necessary that the employer actually broke the law. The employee could be whistleblowing on something that isn't illegal in the first place. The employee is still protected from retaliation or termination.

However, the employee must believe that he or she is reporting a violation of the law, and the employee's belief must be reasonable.

How is the Employee Protected?

If the employee has reported the allegedly illegal activity to a government or law enforcement agency, he or she is protected. The employer cannot retaliate against the employee. The employer cannot fire the employee for the whistleblowing. The employer cannot mistreat the employee for whistleblowing.

This does not mean that after whistleblowing, the employee cannot be fired for any reason The employer can continue to treat the employee like any other employee. But the employer cannot treat the employee differently because of the whistleblowing.

Obviously, if the employee whistleblows on Monday and is fired on Tuesday, it suggests that the employee was retaliated against for making the report. (Whistle blowing, http://discriminationattorney.com/whistle.html)

Facilitation of Group Process

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November 10, 1998

Contents

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1. Groups defined and described

Group definition: Two or more individuals in face-to-face interaction, each aware of his or her membership in the group, each aware of the others who belong in the group, and each aware of their positive interdependence as they strive to achieve mutual goals.

Stages of Group Development

1. Forming-members become oriented towards each other
2. Storming-members confront their various differences; management of conflict is the focus of attention
3. Norming-group develops consensus regarding a role structure and a set of group norms
4. Performing-group works as a unit to achieve group goals
5. Adjourning-the group disbands

Types of groups

Pseudo--group of members who have been assigned to work together who have not interest in doing so.
Traditional--a group whose members agree to work together, but see little benefit in doing so.
Effective--a group whose members commit themselves to the common purpose of maximizing their own and each other's success.
High Performance--meets all the criteria for being an effective group and outperforms expectations.

Qualities of an effective group

* Strong mutual goal
* Positive interdependence
* Promotive interaction
* Strong membership
* Strong Mutual identity
* Positive relationships

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2. Facilitation described

Flow of group facilitation

1. Entry--Clarify expectations; assess culture, values, issues; contract with group;
2. Setting the climate--establish roles and expectations; develop norms, create mission, vision and objectives

3. Doing the work--achieving the objectives of the group

Basic procedures for structuring discussion groups:
1. Specify objectives
2. Select appropriate group size
3. Assign participants to groups
4. Arrange room
5. Distribute materials
6. Assign roles
7. Explain the cooperative goal structure and the task
8. Observe and monitor behavior of group members
9. Intervene to teach needed group skills
10. Evaluate quality and quantity of group productivity

Skills of facilitation
* set learning goals and expectations
* conduct activities based on the group's stage
* bring out group members ideas, not your own.
* direct conversation with strategic questioning

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3. Micro example. Facilitation of peer support, social change groups described.

Social Change Groups tend to involve:
1) Deconstruction of the social context. Making the connections between our personal experiences and our political realities.
2) Taking action to shape our social context. Creating alternatives to those realities we find unacceptable.
3) Facilitation rooted in distributed authority and distributed responsibility. Helping people help themselves.
4) Using peer support and respectful collaboration to develop community.

Empowerment: (as defined by Julian Weissglass) the process of supporting people 1) to construct new meanings and 2) to exercise their freedom to choose new ways of responding to the world

For those of us who want to imagine beyond traditional or dominant, social frameworks it is important to be able to participate in communities where we can share support for our ideas. Integral to any social change group is the ability to deconstruct how social and discursive practices circumscribe what we can say, do and become within an historical moment. These groups try to develop alternative approaches for understanding and responding to the world, and in doing so perhaps change it.

Facilitating authority building
Distributed responsibility and distributed authority. In groups working from the distributed responsibility/authority model, facilitators act as advocates not experts. They focus on helping members help themselves. Facilitators provide support and, when asked, share their own experiences. In this context, group members are encouraged to define and initiate the changes that they want to make in their lives and their communities.

Many of us have been trained to understand authority as other-centered, as located in an institution, discipline, scholar, or teacher. Yet life requires that we not only possess the ability to articulate our desires, needs, and goals but also the ability to define the strategies needed to meet those goals.

Facilitating Assessment and evaluation
One way to facilitate authority building is to facilitate a process of self-assessment and evaluation. The process of assessing our own needs and goals is an opportunity to take possession of our development. When we are encouraged to decide what we want to learn and how we want to challenge ourselves, we have the opportunity to develop a directorial stance toward our own lives. And when we learn to how make our own choices, we become less dependent upon external authority figures.

Peer Support
The process of sharing experiences and working on solutions as a group can prove empowering in several ways. In our society, many people feel alienated from traditional forms of community. This can result in feelings of isolation. However, when people come together to share their experiences and thoughts, they begin to break the isolation upon which various forms of oppression depend. Furthermore, through peer support people can act as resources for each other. When we receive and also give support, we begin to learn what we have to give.

Facilitating Constructive Response
Group sharing tends to work best if a facilitator ensures that response remains grounded, specific, and sensitive. A grounded response doesn't pretend to speak from some universal or external criteria of judgment. When we make ownership of our responses explicit, it is easier for others to decide whether our responses are of use to them. Furthermore, general responses are not as useful as specific ones. 'You're idea is great!,' is fine but best when followed by a deeper analysis that helps a person understand why the idea is great, and why it elicited such a positive response.

Facilitating Collaboration
Working collaboratively can be an extremely generative means of building community and also confidence. Sometimes when we are learning something new, we feel more willing to take risks if we're not alone in the process. Below are some guidelines for facilitating respectful collaboration.

A. Be willing to try on other people's ideas, content or process.
B. It's okay to disagree. It's never acceptable to shame, blame or attack.
C. Self-focus. Try to remain present to your responses, emotions, etc.
D. Practice both/and thinking verses either/or thinking.
E. Take responsibility for your own learning process. You are both learner and teacher.
F. Confidentiality surrounding personal sharing is integral to safe group process.

Facilitating heterogeneous groups
Robust s change groups tend to be inclusive and heterogeneous. In a society based on competition and hierarchy, people of different social locations are often pitted against each other to fight for access to scarce resources. Yet solidarity between people of various social locations is important if any particular population

wants to create lasting social change. To develop truly heterogeneous communities, facilitators need to be able to acknowledge (versus ignore) difference while also being able to acknowledge the connections between different members. Below are some guidelines for facilitating group process which value respectful reciprocity within difference.

A. Be willing to rethink 'universal' truths.
B. Acknowledging differences is as important as acknowledging connections. Try not to collapse or over-simplify boundaries in the interest of quick we's.
C. Understand the multiplicity of social locations-the complexity of oppressor and oppressed in each of us.
D. Beware of appropriating the good and ignoring the struggle within another person's social location-don't be a culture vulture.
E. Don't be too quick to fit others into your framework (cookie-cutter epistemology).
F. Don't ignore the complex world and tradition from which others speak.
G. Amnesty and Forgiveness: Ignorance is forgivable if we are willing to redress it.

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Endnotes

1. This list was taken from the Episcopal Divinity School's guidelines for groups-"on becoming more comfortable with difference" (E.D.S., Cambridge, MA). The list has been altered slightly for the purposes of our briefing.

2. This list was taken from Professor Kwok Pui Lan's lecture on Cross Cultural Hermeneutics, at the Episcopal Divinity School. Once again, the list has been altered slightly

Establishing Internet/E-mail Conversations within a Group, such as a Class

Keith Donaldson (domfam@mediaone.net) 16 November 1998

As more and more schools connect to the "Information Superhighway," a question repeatedly asked by those with a stake in education is "How can students benefit from being on-line?" One benefit is undoubtedly the new option for communicating via the Internet -- Electronic mail (e-mail). This new form of communication may enrich the traditional learning communities established in schools via "online communities." Sending electronic mail, pictures and data files, either to the next class or to a school across the globe, has widened the opportunity to build learning communities. The widespread use of e-mail has created a broad range of educational possibilities for students and educators and has also put a new spin on some familiar activities. But the challenge is to cultivate and maintain these communities. It is through interaction that community develops.

The Internet offers a range of proven and reliable options for on-line communication. Messages can be sent privately to an individual, distributed to lists of individuals (via listservs), or posted to a "bulletin board" or newsgroups for public viewing. Each of these options in turn can be configured to provide useful avenues of support and different arenas for communication between and among participants. Billions of e-mail messages are sent across the Internet every year. This is due to its speed and broadcasting ability, it is fundamentally different from paper-based communications. However, in order to foster effective conversation it is important to complement on-line structures with supports that help build on-line communities where reflective conversation can take place and meaningful relationships can grow. The turnaround time can be so fast, e-mail is more conversational than traditional paper communications.

General Resources

Help with Internet E-mail and Mailing Lists - http://www.city.grande-prairie.ab.ca/h_email.htm
INTERNET ELECTRONIC MAIL - http://www.sciam.com:80/1998/0398issue/0398working.html
E-Mail Glossary - http://everythingemail.net/glossary.html

Beyond the Browser: learn the basics of mailing lists, newsgroups, and the old-school but still relevant technologies FTP and Telnet. Get you up and running with chat, MUDs, and virtual communities. - http://www.cnet.com/Content/Features/Howto/Beyond/

E-Communication in the Class

Classroom CONNECT - http://www2.classroom.net

The K - 12 educators' practical guide to using the internet and commercial online services... including G.R.A.D.E.S. The Global Resources and Directory of Educational Sites designed to provide high quality, very focused searches specifically for K - 12 educators.

Distance Ed - http://pages.prodigy.com/PAUM88A/

Newsgroup FAQ Frequently asked questions from alt.education.distance.

Net Day - http://www.netday.org/

MiamiMOO - http://miamimoo.mcs.muohio.edu/

MiamiMOO is an interdisciplinary project that links a text-based virtual reality, a MOO, with the World-Wide Web. Students and instructors "build" virtual worlds and objects within the MOO that are viewable through the Web. These in turn may contain links to graphics, sound, and video. The MOO is thus navigable either with a traditional text-only interface, or with a web browser such as Netscape.

Asynchronous Learning Networks Web - http://www.aln.org

dedicated to the promulgation, organization, and creation of knowledge about asynchronous learning networks (ALNs).

a•syn•chro•nous (A•sing'kru•nus), —adj. 1. not occurring at the same time. 2. (of a computer or other electrical machine) having each operation started only after the preceding operation is completed. 3. Computers, Telecommunications.of or pertaining to operation without the use of fixed time intervals (opposed to synchronous)

Global Educator's Guide to the Internet - http://www.educ.uvic.ca/faculty/triecken/

A guide for educators wishing to utilize the Internet to enhance global education themes in the elementary and middle level classroom.

Internet Primer for Teachers - http://www.geocities.com/Athens/4610/

introduction to basic questions about the internet.

WWW Tools for Instructors - http://edutools.cityu.edu.hk/wwwtools/

A collection of materials relating to how tools on the World Wide Web can improve the productivity and effectiveness of instructors.

The Character of Conversation

Computer-Mediated Communication in the Classroom: Asset or Liability? Derek R.Lane - http://www.uky.edu/~drlane/techno/cmcasset.htm

ABSTRACT: The purpose of this paper is to supplement the round table discussion regarding the use of computer-mediated communication in the classroom. Computer-mediated communication is defined, current research is presented and pragmatic issues of computer-mediated communication in the classroom are addressed. Benefits and disadvantages of the new technology are discussed and participants are encouraged to share perspectives and insights regarding the implications for extending the boundaries of the classroom through computer-mediated communication.

Function and Impact of Nonverbal Communication in a Computer Mediated Communication Context: An Investigation of Defining Issues - http://www.uky.edu/~drlane/techno/nvcmc.htm

ABSTRACT: The purpose of this paper is to examine nonverbal communication within the specific context of computer-mediated communication (CMC) and thereby illustrate the four defining issues by which nonverbal communication is differentiated from nonverbal behavior. Three major sections delineate the framework of this paper. The first section describes the theoretical and empirical bases of nonverbal communication which address the four defining issues: (a) intent and awareness, (b) issues of meaning, (c) sharedness, and (d) codification which distinguish nonverbal communication from nonverbal behavior. The second section will describe computer-mediated communication (CMC) as a metatheoretical framework for understanding a specific conceptualization (message orientation) of nonverbal communication. The final section will illustrate how nonverbal communication can been studied in a computer-mediated communication context.

Harriet R. Griffin
Briefing- 11/8/99
The Basics of Grantseeking

All of the resources cited in the bibliography provide information on the basics of grantseeking. Andy Robinson^{1}s book, Grassroots Grants-An Activist^{1}s Guide to Grantwriting, gives particularly good advice on acquiring social service grants.

Developing Relationships
Experts on grantseeking seem to agree that if you want to raise money through grant proposals, one of the most important things you can do is to establish and maintain strong, ^{3}peer-to-peer relationships with the decision-makers^{2} (Robinson, 56). Building a quality relationship becomes the biggest challenge. Although power inequities exist in the grantseeker- grantmaker relationship, grantmakers generally appreciate being treated as equals. They value being part of an on-going dialogue with real people who want their input about many issues. Grantmakers lend support to people they come to know; they provide funds to those they see as having the ability and drive to successfully pursue and complete innovative projects.

Grantseekers for projects for important social causes must acknowledge and address the need to secure funding. Anne Firth Murray of the Global Fund for Women says that ^{3}we need to begin to feel empowered to gain access to those resources for our causes^{2} (Robinson, 1). Grantseekers must be professional. Thorough and accurate preparation should be coupled with courtesy and respect. Grantwriters should be both project developers and critics. Their goal is for grantmakers to see your causes as their causes. John Powers of the Educational Foundation of America uses the following five criteria to evaluate a proposal:
*Is the issue important to me?
* Does this project have realistic and effective goals and approach?
*Is the timing appropriate (urgent and important)?
*Is this the best group to undertake this issue and project?
*Given limited resources, does this group really need our money? (Robinson, 15)

Advocacy for the project should continue long after the proposal is submitted. Grantseekers, along with colleagues and others with influence, need to continue to communicate that the project will be completed by individuals who are competent, knowledgeable, and easy-going. There must be evidence of a commitment to move ahead on the project, whether or not the grant is awarded; however, it should always be inferred that the grant is crucial to the advancement of the project.

Writing a Proposal
Grantwriters should be careful to follow application guidelines. Careful consideration should be given to words and layout. A clear and concise proposal is one that avoids unnecessary jargon and is easy to read in 12-point or larger type. Employing a variety of techniques, such as italics and bullets, helps to keep the reader^{1}s attention.
Stories in the voices of people who will benefit from the program are effective and appropriate additions to a social action proposal.

Basic components of a grant proposal include:
*Cover page and executive summary
*Organizational history
*Problem statement
*Program goals and objectives
*Strategy and implementation
*Timeline
*Evaluation
*Personnel
*Budgets
*Attachments
*Cover letter

Cover page and executive summary comprise the first page. The cover page includes the title of the project, submission date, beginning and ending dates for the project, total project budget, amount requested, and contact persons and phone numbers. The executive summary describes the need and the proposed ways to address the need.
Organizational history tells something about the group and why it is uniquely prepared to do the proposed project.
Problem Statement explains the problem in such a way as to show how your particular group would be successful in constructing the best possible solutions. The problem is clearly defined, creates empathy for real people, and is broken down into specific issues and reasonable strategies.
Program goals restate the need in terms of long-range benefits of the project and objectives list measurable outcomes of the proposed project.
Strategy and implementation describes how you are going to carry out the plan to create change. It gives a detailed explanation of the methods to be used.
Timeline indicates when your objectives will be met. It is sometimes helpful to state workable deadlines within the timeline.
Evaluation shows the success or failure of the program in measurable terms. Grantmakers should see the impact of their funding; grantwriters should use what they have learned to promote other projects.
Personnel gives short biographies or resumes of main project staff.
Budgets should itemize expenses, show monies on hand, and project expected revenues. It should include the amount requested from the particular grantmaker.
Attachments include other items such as an IRS tax-exemption letter, a list of board members, a current newsletter, or letters of support. Only those items requested should be included with a proposal.
Cover letter is the first thing the grantmaker sees. It connects grantmaker to grantseeker. This letter reminds the reader of any previous communication, states the amount of money requested, describes the mission of the organization and why the project is important, and offers to provide additional information. It should never include information not given somewhere else in the proposal.

Bibliography

Bauer, David. The How-To Grants Manual. Series on Higher Education, Phoenix, Arizona: Oryx Press, 1995.
Bauer gives good general information on grants.

Geever, Jane and McNeil, Patricia. The Foundation Center¹s Guide to Proposal Writing. The Foundation Center, 1997.
Advice on preparation of master proposal before approaching funders.

Golden, Susan. Secrets of Successful Grantsmanship: a guerrilla guide to raising money. Jossey-Bass Nonprofit Sector Series, San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass, 1997.
This book presents guidelines for preparing grants and gives examples of grants.

Miner, Lynn. Proposal Planning and Writing. Phoenix, Arizona: Oryx Press, 1998.
Miner provides a step-by-step approach to writing proposals.

Robinson, Andy. Grassroots Grants-An Activist¹s Guide to Proposal Writing. Oakland, CA: Chardon Press, 1996.
This book provides a wealth of information for acquiring social service grants.

Watkins, Christopher, ed. ³The Grant Advisor² monthly newsletter. Linden, Virginia.
This newsletter gives ideas for developing, evaluating, and budgeting for successful proposals. It includes a list of common problems to be avoided when writing proposals.

Resources on the Internet (from Robinson, Andy. Grassroots Grants listed above)

http://fdncenter.org The Foundation Center
http://www.cof.org The Council on Foundations
http://www.foundations.org Foundations On-line
http://www.nsfre.org National Society of Fund Raising Executives
http://www.nptimes.com The NonProfit Times
http://www.clark.net/pub/pwalker/ Nonprofit Resources Catalogue
http://www.igc.org Institute for Global Communication
http://www.webactive.com Web Active
http://www.nonprofits.org Internet NonProfit Center

Preface: The production of a videofilm faces many challenges (and often more than other artistic forms of expression). One of the most important is finding low-cost technical resources. A few institutions in Boston are committed to helping independents by facilitating affordable access to production and location equipment. Furthermore, these institutions provide education in the domain of film and video. I want to introduce the apparently three most important organizations in this context.

Film/Video Resources in Boston

Briefing by Michael Ruf
12/22/2000
CCT698 - Practicum

1. Boston Film/Video Foundation

BMVF is a non-profit membership organization for independent film & video in Boston.

a) Address:
1126 Boylston Street (next T-Stop: Copley Place, Green Line)
Boston, MA 02215
phone 617-536-1540
fax 617-536-3576
e-mail info@bfvf.org
Homepage: http://www.bfvf.org

b) Membership
The basic membership costs anually [[section]]50.

c) Equipment
It offers eqipment in two ways:
(1) Low-cost in-house editing facilities: Digital non-linear and 16mm editing equipment at subsidized rates.
(2) Cooperative discount arrangements with local vendors. Equipment members (equipment membership costs annualy $100) have access to commercial vendors for location equipment at a savings of 20 - 40% (Note: For non-commercial projects).

BF/VF's members can furthermore apply for a sponsorship to fund their projects.

d) Education:
BF/VF offers workshops, courses, classes and labs in the field of film, video and digital media arts education. Topics are for example: film/video editing, documentary film/video making, film/video production, directing/acting, scriptwriting, cinematographer/lighting directing.

To illustrate the structure of these classes, I show the description of one of them:
,,Extended Computer-Based Editing with Final Cut Pro
This class, designed for those students who need more time on the FCP, allows students to explore and practice what they have learned in class, at home, and at work. Also includes six additional hours of lab time. Prerequisites: Basic knowledge of Macintosh computer interface or film editing, or completion of Intro to Editing or Computer Based Editing with Final Cut Pro. Limit: 5 * 4 sections. Section A: Saturday, January 27, Sunday, January 28, 10 am - 4 pm, Mondays, January 22, 29 and Tuesdays, January 23, 30, 6-9pm. Section B: Monday, February 26 -- Thursday, March 1, 6 - 9 pm, Saturday, March 3rd, and Sunday, March 4, 10 am - 4 pm Section C: Saturdays, March 10 & 17 and Sundays, March 11 & 18, 10am-4pm. Section D: Saturday, May 19, Sunday, May 20, 10 am - 4 pm, Monday, May 21 - Thursday, May 24, 6 - 9 pm Tuition: $660/ members, $710/nonmembers (NU 2)."

The catalogue can be directly downloaded: http://www.bfvf.org/education/catalog.pdf

e) Statement of a B.U. faculty
"BF/VF is the oldest, most respected local home for aspiringfilmmakers - it's the place you go when you're just starting out, the place to find peer support once you've become a `somebody', and finally, it's the place to which you give back when your day is over. There is no more devoted, more passionately involved filmmaking center in our area..."
Mary Jane Doherty, Film Production Faculty, Boston University

2. Cambridge Community Television

,,CCTV provides a public forum for Cambridge residents to participate in both local and global interactions using electronic media. CCTV offers video production workshops, access to equipment, and channel time on three community cable TV channels, plus access to computer hardware, software, training, and the Internet."

a) Address
675 Massachusetts Avenue (next T is Central Square, red line)
Cambridge, MA 02139
phone: 617-661-6900
fax: 617-661-6927 Fax
email: feedback@cctvcambridge.org
http://www.cctvcambridge.org

b) Membership
There are different possibilities how much one has to pay:

Video	Computer	Combined	
$40	$40	$60	Access Member - Basic Rate
Discounted Options:			
$25	[[section]]25	$35	Discounted Access: Must volunteer in office for 4 hours.
$90	$90	&150	Family Membership
$15	$15	$15	Elder & Youth Members 65 and over, or 17 and under

c) Education
,,CCTV offers a wide range of introductory, intermediate, and advanced courses in video production for television. Our intent in these workshops is to give you a solid background in basic video production and then set you loose to create your own programming for CCTV's channels."
,,All introductory video courses are offered free of charge to members; intermediate and advanced courses typically cost between $15-$30 per course."
Courses are offered in three fielss: studio, remore, and edit.
For example, studio courses are devided in ,,beginning studio," ,,intermediate studio," and ,,advanced studio." The intermediate studio course, for instance, is described as follows:
,,Intermediate Studio

Three 3-hour sessions, plus one shoot - $45; Prerequisites: Beginning Studio workshop In-depth look at the equipment and techniques used for Studio lighting, Studio audio, technical directing, using the Grass Valley switcher, and creating titles using the Laird Character Generator. For now, these topics will be treated in separate sessions, enabling those who have completed some to enroll in just those they haven't taken yet; contact John Donovan for details. Students who complete this course and participate in a subsequent Studio shoot will be certified as Studio Lighting and Audio Engineers, Technical Directors, and CG Operators."

The complete course schedule can be also be found in the internet:
www.cctvcambridge.org/html/involved/train/vidschedule.html

3. Somerville Community Access Television

a) Address
90 Union Square
Somerville, MA 02143
phone: 617-628-8826
fax: 617-628-1811
email: info@access-scat.org
http://www.access-scat.org

„The primary goal of Somerville Community Access Television (SCAT) is to facilitate the free expression of diverse ideas on Somerville's Channel 3 and other appropriate media in accordance with the First Amendment right of free speech.
SCAT does this by providing production facilities, technical assistance, and training to any Somerville, MA individual, group, organization interested in producing non-commercial programming."

b) Membership
„Equipment Member":
Individual fee: $40/ year
Senior (65+) or Youth (under 16): $20/ year
A member enjoy free use of the studio and production facilities

c) Equipment

SCAT equipment use is FREE to all members for all non-commercial projects. (See membership info for details). Non-members or members working on commercial
projects may rent SCAT's equipment at the following rates:

```
Production
SVHS Camcorder Package       1 hour                       $10
                             Half day                     $40
                             Full day                     $80
Post-Production
Analog editing (version A)   1 hour                       [[section]]15
(version B)                  1 hour                       $25
```

d) Education
The Basic Production classes are free to SCAT members.
The courses regularly offered are:

(1) Orientation, (2) Basic Studio Production, (3) Studio directing, (4) Basic Portable Production, (5) Intermediate Portable Production, (6) Advanced Portable Production.

The ,,Studio Directing" course, for instance is described as follows:
,,Prepare yourself to lead a crew and work with talent in a studio production. Learn the aspects of overseeing a show, and the commands to direct the crew. Understand the thinking behind the selection of shots. Master the techniques to minimize on-air mistakes and the tricks to fix them when they do happen. For the second class, you will direct your first shoot mentored one-on-one by the instructor."