History & Industry of   Mass Communication

SEMESTER 1

Study Material for Students

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CAREER OPPORTUNITIES IN MEDIA WORLD

Mass communication is institutionalized and source specific. It functions through well-organized professionals and has an ever increasing interlace. Mass media has a global availability and it has converted the whole world in to a global village. A qualified professional can take up a job of educating, entertaining, informing, persuading, interpreting, and guiding. Working in print media offers the opportunities to be a news reporter, news presenter, an editor, a feature writer, a photojournalist, etc. Electronic media offers great opportunities of being a news reporter, news editor, newsreader, programme host, interviewer, cameraman, producer, director, etc.

 Other titles of Mass Communication professionals are script writer, production assistant, technical director, floor manager, lighting director, scenic director, coordinator, creative director, advertiser, media planner, media consultant, public relation officer, counselor, front office executive, event manager and others.

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INTRODUCTION

This book comprise of five units. First unit of this book explains the meaning and significance of mass communication. The unit will explain the importance mass communication by tracing the history of Mass Communication through different Eras. This unit also introduces you to the stages in the Development of Advertising.

Second unit of the book is an introduction to Journalism and thus will discuss the role, censorship and power of the Press. The unit shall also elaborate on the making of the Newspaper and discuss the code and ethics of journalism in detail.

Third unit will try to find out the psychology of Media Audiences. The Public opinion and two-step flow of information are also discussed in this unit.
Fourth unit is models of mass communication. This unit helps you to know each model and understand the relation between mass communication and media audiences.

Fifth unit will discuss and analyze certain media issues like media imperialism, Democratization communication and culture, and others.

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UNIT 3. THE PSYCHOLOGY AND SOCIOLOGY OF MEDIA AUDIENCES

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UNIT 1. INTRODUCTION TO MASS COMMUNICATION

OBJECTIVES

- To understand the meaning of Mass Communication
- To discuss the Eras of history of Mass Communication
- To study the importance 'Globalization'
- To study and trace the stages in history of Advertising

INTRODUCTION

Mass Communication involves communication with the mass audiences and hence the name **Mass Communication**. When we are thinking, it is intra-personal communication, when there is face-to-face conversation between two people it is interpersonal communication, college lecture or speech would be an example of group communication, but there is another level of communication when we read newspapers, magazines, listen to Radio or watch TV. This would be called 'Mass communication' as the message is reached to the masses through different media.

Mass Communication is defined as 'any **mechanical device that multiples messages and takes it to a large number of people simultaneously**'. Face to face conversation is called interpersonal communication, a college lecture or a public speech will be examples of group communication, when we are involved in thinking process, and it is intra-personal communication. In addition to all these types of communication we also indulge in yet another level of communication when we read newspapers, magazines or books, listen to radio or watch TV. As the message is communicated to a very large number of people or to a mass of people, it is called **Mass communication.**

Mass communication is unique and different from interpersonal communication as it is a special kind of communication in which the nature of the audience and the feedback is different from that of interpersonal communication.

Mass communication is the term used to describe the academic study of various means by which individuals and entities relay information to large segments of the population all at once through mass media.

Both mass communication and mass media are generally considered synonymous for the sake of convenience. The media through which messages are being transmitted include radio, TV, newspapers, magazines, films, records, tape recorders, video cassette recorders, internet, etc. and require large organizations and electronic devices to put across the message. Mass communication is a special kind of communication in which the nature of the audience and the feedback is different from that of interpersonal communication.

Mass communication can also be defined as '**a process whereby mass produced messages are transmitted to large, anonymous and heterogeneous masses of receivers'.** By '**mass produced**' we mean putting the content or message of mass communication in a form suitable to be distributed to large masses of people. '**Heterogeneous**' means that the individual members of the mass are from a wide variety of classes of the society. '**Anonymous**' means the individuals in the mass do not know each other. The source or sender of message in mass communication does not know the individual members of the mass. Also the receivers in mass communication are physically separated from each other and share no physical proximity. Finally, the individual members forming a mass are not united. They have no social organization and no customs and traditions, no established sets of rules, no structure or status role and no established leadership.

1.1. GLOBALIZATION

In its literal sense is the process of transformation of local or regional things or phenomena into global ones. It can also be used to describe a process by which the people of the world are unified. Globalization is a set of processes leading to the integration of economic, cultural, political, and social systems across borders. It is the increasing integration of economies and societies around the world, transcending the boundaries of the nation state, particularly through international trade and the flow of capital, ideas and people, the transfer of culture and technology, and the development of transnational regulations. It is the concept used to recognize the continuing integration of local, regional, and national economies which now form a larger economic. Thus, it is a complex series of economic, social, technological, cultural,

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and political changes seen as increasing, integration, and interaction between people and companies in disparate locations.

Today, the **Global Village** is mostly used as a metaphor to describe the Internet and World Wide Web. On the Internet, physical distance is even less of a hindrance to the real-time communicative activities of people, and therefore social spheres are greatly expanded by the openness of the web and the ease at which people can search for online communities and interact with others that share the same interests and concerns. Therefore, this technology fosters the idea of a conglomerate yet unified global community. Due to the enhanced speed of communication online and the ability of people to read about, spread, and react to global news very rapidly, this forces us to become more involved with one another from countries around the world and be more aware of our global responsibilities. Similarly, web-connected computers enable people to link their web sites together. This new reality has implications for forming new sociological structures within the context of culture.

> *Marshall McLuhan came up with the phrase "the global village" as a way to describe the effect of radio in the 1920s in bringing us in faster and more intimate contact with each other that ever before in human experience. Ironically, today one often hears people exclaim that the global village is now "on the point of finally being achieved," or that it is "clearly getting closer to reality," and so forth. He would have said that such remarks are a reliable indicator that that condition has been displaced by some other and more potent one. The reason: by the time that the average person can see something it has ceased to be environmental and become the content of another environment. Something newer has made it visible even as it has itself taken over general control.*

Innovations in communications technology, in addition to driving economic globalization, have also transformed the media world and the spread of information, with important consequences for national as well as global governance. This began with radio broadcasting in the 1940s and has since been extended through television and satellite transmission to give even those in remote places immediate access to sound and images from a wider world. In some countries, new communications systems have even brought people news of domestic events that is not available locally. Direct- dial international telephone and fax services have swelled the trans- border flow of news and other messages. Another important development has been the sharing of information through links between computers around the world.

.Globalization is an umbrella term for a complex series of economic, social, technological, cultural and political changes seen as increasing interdependence, integration and interaction between people and companies in different locations. As

a term 'globalization' has been used as early as 1944 but economists began applying it around 1981. **Theodore Levitt** is usually credited with its coining through the article he wrote in 1983 for the Harvard Business Review entitled "Globalization of Markets". The more encompassing phenomenon has been perceived in the context of sociological study on a worldwide scale.

The term "globalization" is used to refer to the collective changes throughout the world as a process, or else as the cause of turbulent change.

Like the 'information superhighway', 'globalization' is yet another hype term in information technology. It assumes that the phenomenon of the industries is worldwide, that users of information technologies make up the majority of the world's population with no obstacles to access anywhere.

While millions across the world access the Internet, it is often forgotten that these belong to elite educated groups in the richer countries. By no means is access universal, nor it is affordable to the vast majority of the world's population. There is indeed a yawning gap between the information-rich and the information-poor, and this gap is growing, since the costs of access are nowhere getting any easier or cheaper.

According to an estimate, in 1996, 64% of all hosts of internet users in the world were in the United States, 17% were in Western Europe, four percent in Asia, Eastern Europe, Africa and central and South America accounted for around one percent each. At the end of 1996, a search suggested that barely three out of the over 1,400 Internet based electronic newspapers were from the continent of Africa. What is more, most Internet sites and databases are located in the United States, so Internet service providers ISP) such as VSNL in India and ISPs in other countries have to lease links to American backbones. United States 'carriers' charge around $20,000 for 2mbps circuit monthly rental, as against only $3,000 to ISPs in the United States itself.

1.1. ERAS OF MASS OMMUNICATION

The Beginning

Fossils record show that the first development in the evolution of *Homo Sapiens*

Australopithecus africanus
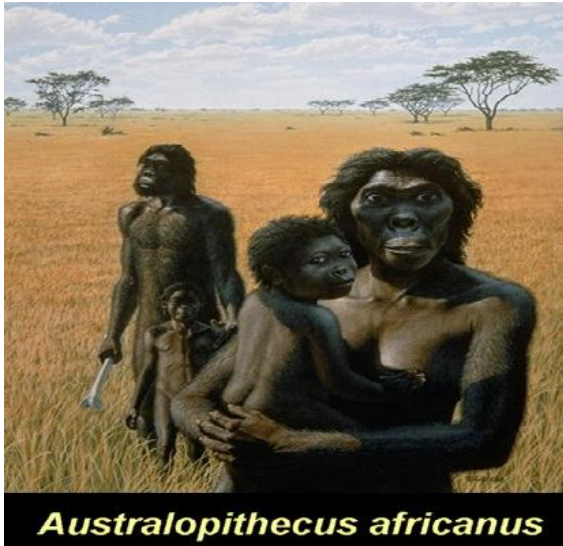
human beings took place about 70 million years back. Then humans were like rats that lived during the period of dinosaurs. Millions of years passed before the first primates or mammals with flexible hands and feet evolved. Then about five to one million years ago evolved an ape like creature called the *Australopithecus Africans*. As the name suggests, this creature lived in Africa. It walked upright, lived in caves and shelters with the family. Then appeared one of our early ancestors *Homo Habilis*. They were more advanced and the first one to discover fire. They lived in bigger groups and started the civilization process.

Then came the *Homo erectus* who developed tools like the two-edged hand axes and other cutting tools. Also they had a higher brain volume. The final development occurred when the Cro-Magnon *Homo sapiens-sapiens* appeared. They lived in caves and other such shelters and used complex tools. Also they were successful hunters and had an elaborate social organization. They learned to preserve food and make clothes. The Cro-Magnon also started carvings and cave-paintings. They domesticated the animals and began the use of metals. They also started agriculture and were identical to contemporary human beings in appearance and brain capacity.

The human evolutionary process became much faster towards the end. Also the process of civilization became faster. This was possible because of their greater ability to communicate. This ability helped the early human beings to invent, borrow solutions from others and most importantly to accumulate knowledge. Scientists from various fields have developed the following chronology of development of human communication

1. **The Era of Signs and Signals**
2. **The Era of Speech and Language**
3. **The Era of Writing**

4. **The Era of Print, and**
5. **The Era of Mass communication**

The Era of Signs and Signals

The earliest human beings communicated like animals. They used noises and body movements for communication. Certain constituted and mutually understood signals and people living together in a small group used signs. These noises included the growls, grunts, and shrieks. They couldn't speak then because of their underdeveloped voice box or larynx. They could only make sounds and not utter words.

The limited range of sounds and signals made communication difficult. Both encoding and decoding was complex. Using these signs and signals; our ancestors could only communicate about simple concepts and ideas. These simple signs and symbols of our ancestors have now evolved into a well-developed system called 'kinesics' or the science of body language. However, in those early days, these signs, signals, and body movements formed a very slow and difficult system and did not allowed lengthy communication. So the communication was slow and simple. Our ancestors also used smoke signals and fire as modes of communication during this period

The term Cro-Magnon refers to one of the main types of early modern humans Homo sapiens of the European Upper Paleolithic. The earliest known remains of Cro-Magnon like humans are dated to 30,000 radiocarbon years. The name is taken from the cave of Crô-Magnon in southwest France, where the first specimen was found.

The Era of Speech and Languages

Cro-Magnon man made beautifully crafted stone tools. Also for the first time they started to carve and paint, thus introducing art to the civilization process. They carved representations of animals and human beings from stone, ivory, bone, etc. they also painted cave walls. Many such paintings have been found in Spain and France. The people of this period also made clothes from leather. They had also developed the art of hardening clay by the use of fire. Above all these, their most important achievement was the cave paintings.

The Cro-Magnon man had a skull structure, tongue, and voice box larynx just like today's man. And with these they could speak. Speech and language seems to have originated about 35,000 to 40,000 ago. Fossil records of Cro-Magnon man show that they live in Neanderthals. Their ancestors also lived in the same place

and were physically well developed and much stronger. They were capable hunters as they had developed effective tools. Though the ancestors were well equipped, they became extinct while the much weaker Cro-Magnon survived, the reason being in their ability to communicate. This ability enabled them to pool their mental resources and plan things. Thus, they could overcome the hardships of life and survive.

The Cro-Magnons used their ability to communicate to grow towards civilization. They domesticated animals. Also about 10,000 years ago, they developed farming. Instead of wandering from place to place, they settled near riverbanks and grew their food in form of cultivation.

While all this was happening, language continued to be developed and polished further. People moving from place to place-learned new languages and spread them. They developed words, numbers, and rules of language, which made the use of language much easier. Most importantly, language development helped in a big way in the changeover of human beings from hunting and wandering way of life to the development of great civilizations. While language was not the sole reason for all these, such changes would not have been possible without language.

The Era of Writing

It took thousands of years for human beings to develop speech and language. After that, it just took few hundred years for writing to be developed. This comparative shorter time span shows that with communication ability, development become much faster. The history of the development of writing includes development from pictorial or pictographic representations to phonetic systems. Pictography represented ideas with the pictures or drawings. The phonetic system uses simple symbols to imply specific sounds.

Pictography

Pictography has expression and communication by means of pictures.

Pictures are representations of objects, scenes, etc. These do not help much in communication if they are not properly understood. Even today we use captions to supplement photos in newspapers and magazines. So in early period, communication with the help of pictorial depictions was difficult as there was no standardized encoding and decoding process. So the first step is the standardization of these pictures. Standardization meant that all the receivers understood these pictures-symbols in the same way. This made communication easier. Many such inscriptions of pictures are found in ancient valleys of Mesopotamia and Egypt. These were crudely drawn pictures painted on walls of buildings. These included the sunrise beginning of a day, bow and arro w for hunting, a wavy line a river).

The Egyptians simplified this system and also developed a more elaborate system. They developed what are now called 'glyphs' or symbolic characters. In the beginning this Egyptians carved these glyphs on stone and later these were drawn or painted. This Egyptian system of picture writing is also called 'hieroglyph' which is somewhat similar to today's Chinese script.

Phonetic Writing

North to the Persian Gulf, lived another tribe, the Sumerians. They acquired the Egyptian hieroglyphic symbols but found it to be difficult. So they developed their own system of symbols. Instead of using 'pictures in realistic details, they developed a system of small, simple and stylizes symbols. They used sharpened sticks to draw these pictures on tablets of soft clay. These symbols are now called 'cuneiform' writing. Most of these symbols have survived as the clay tablets were baked hard. The most important aspect of the Sumerian system was letting each little stylized symbol stand for a particular sound rather than an object or idea.

Cuneiform script is the earliest known writing system in the world. Cuneiform writing emerged in the Sumerian civilization of southern Iraq around the 34th century BC, beginning as a pictographic system of writing. Cuneiform was the most widespread and historically significant writing system in the Ancient Near East. The development of cuneiform writing was an evolution of an earlier Mesopotamian accounting system that had been used for five thousand years before. Clay tokens had been used for some form of record-keeping in Mesopotamia since as early as 8,000 BC. Cuneiform documents were written on clay tablets, by means of a reed stylus. The impressions left by the stylus were wedge shaped, thus giving rise to the name cuneiform. Cuneiform script underwent considerable changes over a period spanning three millennia. In the course of the 3rd millennium BC the script became successively more cursive, and the pictographs developed into conventionalized linear drawings, the number of characters in use also refined from around 1,000 unique characters in the Early Bronze Age to around 400 characters in Late Bronze Age.

The advantage of this system was enormous. Instead of thousands of different symbols, each representing an object or idea was used. Each symbol was assigned a particular sound and these symbols were combined to form words. This was called the phonetic system. Our present system of alphabetical writing, in which each consonant and vowel has its own sound and character, is a much simplified version of the Egyptian system.

The Sumerian system now had only about a hundred symbols instead of the thousands of symbols of the earlier systems. This made literacy easier to acquire as one had to remember only about hundred or so symbols to be able to write.

Alphabetical writing

The next development was Alphabetical writing. This came about 1000years after phonetic writing was developed. People were not satisfied with even the hundred odd symbols so they reduced the symbols to about two dozen. Other development was the simplification of these symbols. Many variations of alphabetical writing were developed around the world. The Greeks by around 500 BC developed the most simplified and standardized form of alphabetical writing. The Greeks also added 'five' vowels to the alphabets. These Greek alphabets were passed on to Rome. The Romans modified and improved it even further. They developed the capital and small letters.

Development of portable media

The pictographic symbols were carved on stone or painted on wall. Same was the case with the Egyptian hieroglyphs. The Sumerian cuneiform writing was 'written' on clay tablets or stone slabs. The biggest advantage with these was that they were 'permanent' to a great extent and could not be easily destroyed. The biggest problem, however, was that of 'portability'. These writings, whether done on walls, stone slabs or clay tablets, could not be transported easily.

To overcome this problem, the Egyptian developed a kind of durable paper from 'papyrus' plants about 2,500 BC. Papyrus was light as compared to stone or clay. Also writing on papyrus was easy using brush and ink. The earlier process of chiseling on stone was laborious and time consuming.

Papermaking was first started on the Nile Delta where papyrus plants were found in plenty. Fresh green stems of papyrus were cut, laid crisscross on each other, and pounded till they formed one single mass. This mass was then pressed and dried to form paper. The Mayan people, who were among the most advanced spiritually and intellectually found, that the inner bard of ficus trees was light in color and much softer. This bark could be pulled out in big sizes-up to six to eight inches wide and 20 feet long. They cut these sheets of bark, beat them to uniform thickness, dried, and prepared paper. The Mayans were so sophisticated in preparing paper and writing that they had been able to develop complete libraries full of books.

Some other civilizations also started making their versions of lighter, easy to write and easily transportable writing material. In India, palm leaves were used for a long time for writing.

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All this led to easier production of written material, which could be read easily. Religious doctrines and scriptures could be easily recorded. Observations of nature and natural calamities, successful treatment of diseases and many such important things could be recorded.

Human mind was now freed from the burdensome task of having to remember entire cultures and reproduce them through memory. The human mind could now concentrate on more productive ventures.

The Era of Print

Printing was one of the greatest human accomplishments in the field of communication after the development of language and writing. The earliest attempt at printing involved preparing printing plates by carving wooden blocks, stone tablets, or metal plates. The text matter and other matter to be printed were transformed into a raised and reverse format. This was done to facilitate transfer of ink from the raised surface. Later it became known as 'relief printing'. All these activities including engraving, inking, and transforming the images on to paper were done by hand. This manual practice was time-consuming, laborious, and prone to errors. Also the end result was not of good quality. More number of copies could not be printed. Also not much works could be done by this method.

By the fifteenth century, many parts of the world had developed technology for producing paper and ink along with a technique for printing manually. The biggest change came in the middle part of the fifteenth century and **Johann Guttenberg**; a goldsmith from Germany was the moving force behind this revolution. He is credited with the two important developments, *movable types*, and *mechanical printing press*.

Guttenberg experimented for years before he came up with square shaped metal castings bearing individual alphabets on them. These alphabets were raised and in reverse. This way originated readymade movable types and all was needed as to arrange the ready-made types in the required sequence.

The other invention of Guttenberg was the mechanical printing press. He was inspired by the juice-making machine, which was being operated by his wife. He developed a machine that had two platforms, a mobile one for the plate of type or image plate and one stationary one for the paper.

Other modifications included a process for inking and finally a mechanism for bringing the two surfaces together for the transfer of images. Using his two inventions, Guttenberg printed an elaborated decorated book, *'42-line Bible'*. It is one of the finest examples of the printer's art ever produced. Sadly, he never got anything out of his 20 years long passionate mission and died in poverty some ten years after inventing what was perhaps the biggest invention after the wheel.

Spread of literacy

The beginning of the sixteenth century saw thousands of books being published in great numbers. From religious books to educational books, printing finally led to newspapers. And by the eighteenth century, newspaper had become a powerful tool of communication. The greatest effect of printing was:

1. Expression of knowledge covering a broad range of ideas and feelings
2. Permanence of records
3. Swiftness, and
4. Diffusion of information to all classes of people

The Era of Mass Communication

Printing started a new era of communication as people around the world got to know about developments in other parts of the world. This led to new inventions and discoveries. By mid-nineteenth century, telegraphy was invented. Though it was not a means of mass communication, it was indeed a great initiation, which resulted in the development of radio and television broadcasting technologies. Motion pictures made their way in the end of the 19th century. The 20th century began with cinema becoming accepted as a medium of entertainment. Radio broadcasting began in 1920 and two decades later, in 1940, came the television.

While radio and television were spreading all over the world, new media were being invented. Cable TV, VCR, etc. followed soon. Satellite technology, which was developed much earlier, was used for weather forecast, etc, was now being used for broadcasting. This gave birth to the concept of satellite radio and satellite television. Next came the computers, which were initially used for calculating and

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computing. Soon satellites and computers were brought together to form a network connecting people all over the world. The international network or Internet with its world wide web WWW has finally turned the world into a global village.

1.3. STAGES IN HISTORY OF ADVERTISING

History of Advertising

An advertisement is a public announcement with the purpose not so much to inform but to persuade the public to buy a product, a service or an idea.

In order to understand what the advertising industry is today, it is helpful to appreciate where it has come from.

The origin of advertising as a public announcement is traceable to the town crier and the village drummer. These used their lungs to shout out their own or others' messages. The messages could relate to government proclamation or even to sales of goods on '**market days'**. Then there were signs on shops or drinking houses to indicate the name of the shop owner or of the shop. The highly urbanized cities of Mohenjodaro and Harappa in India must have employed some form of advertising to sell the many types of art and craft items that the ancient civilizations were famous for.

Advertising as a discrete form is generally agreed to have begun with newspapers, in the seventeenth century, which included line or classified advertising. Simple descriptions, plus prices, of products served their purpose until the late nineteenth century, when technological advances meant that illustrations could be added to advertising, and color was also an option.

An early advertising success story is that of Pears Soap**. Thomas Barratt** married into the famous soap making family and realized that they needed to be more aggressive about pushing their products if they were to survive. He launched the series of ads featuring cherubic children, which firmly welded the brand to the values it still holds today. He took images considered as "fine art" and used them to connote his brand's quality, purity i.e. untainted by commercialism and

simplicity cherubic children.   **Thomas Barratt** is often referred to as the **father of modern advertising**.

However, it was not until the emergence of advertising agencies in the latter part of the nineteenth century that advertising became a fully-fledged institution, with its own ways of working, and with its own creative values. These agencies were a response to an increasingly crowded marketplace, where manufacturers were realizing that promotion of their products was vital if they were to survive. They sold themselves as experts in communication to their clients, who were then left to get on with the business of manufacturing.

World War I saw some important advances in advertising as governments on all sides used ads as propaganda. The British used advertising as propaganda to convince its own citizens to fight, and also to persuade the Americans to join. No less a political commentator than Hitler concluded in *Mein Kampf* that Germany lost the war because it lost the propaganda battle. He did not make the same mistake when it was his turn. One of the other consequences of World War I was the increased mechanization of industry - and hence increased costs, which had to be paid for somehow. Hence the desire to **create need** in the consumer, which begins to dominate advertising from the 1920s onward.

Advertising quickly took advantage of the new mass media of the first part of the twentieth century, using cinema, and to a much greater extent, radio, to transmit commercial messages. This was beginning to show signs of working effectively in the 1920s but the Wall St Crash put an end to widespread affluence, and the Great Depression and World War Two meant that it was not really until the 1950s that consumers had enough disposable income to really respond to the need creation message of advertisers.

The 1950s not only brought postwar affluence to the average citizen but whole new glut of material goods for which need had to be created. Not least of these was the television set. In America it quickly became the hottest consumer property - no home could be without one. And where the sets went, the advertisers followed, spilling fantasies about better living through buying across the hearthrug in millions of American homes. The UK and Europe, with government controlled broadcasting, were a decade or so behind America in allowing commercial TV stations to take to the air, and still have tighter controls on sponsorship and the amount of editorial control advertisers can have in a programme. This is the result of some notable scandals in the US, where sponsors interfered in the content and outcome of quiz shows in order to make their product seem, by association, sexier.

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Unhappy with the ethical compromise of the single-sponsor show, NBC executive Sylvester Weaver came up with the idea of selling not whole shows to advertisers, but separate, small blocks of broadcast time. Several different advertisers could buy time within one show, and therefore the content of the show would move out of the control of a single advertiser - rather like a print magazine. This became known as the **magazine concept**, or **participation advertising**, as it allowed a whole variety of advertisers to access the audience of a single TV show. Thus the **'commercial break'** as we know it was born.

Stages of Advertising History

Egyptians used papyrus to make sales messages and wall posters. Commercial messages and political campaign displays have been found in the ruins of Pompeii and ancient Arabia. Lost and found advertising on papyrus was common in Ancient Greece and Ancient Rome. Wall or rock painting for commercial advertising is another manifestation of an ancient advertising form, which is present to this day in many parts of Asia, Africa, and South America. The tradition of wall painting can be traced back to Indian rock art paintings that date back to 4000 BC. History tells us that Out-of-home advertising and billboards are the oldest forms of advertising.

As the towns and cities of the Middle Ages began to grow, and the general populace was unable to read, signs that today would say cobbler, miller, tailor or blacksmith would use an image associated with their trade such as a boot, a suit, a hat, a clock, a diamond, a horse shoe, a candle or even a bag of flour. Fruits and vegetables were sold in the city square from the backs of carts and wagons and their proprietors used street callers town criers to announce their whereabouts for the convenience of the customers.

As education became an apparent need and reading, as well as printing, developed advertising expanded to include handbills. In the 17th century advertisements started to appear in weekly newspapers in England. These early print advertisements were used mainly to promote books and newspapers, which became increasingly affordable with advances in the printing press; and medicines, which were increasingly sought after as disease ravaged Europe. However, false advertising and so-called "quack" advertisements became a problem, which ushered in the regulation of advertising content.

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As the economy expanded during the 19th century, advertising grew alongside. In the United States, the success of this advertising format eventually led to the growth of mail-order advertising.

In June 1836, French newspaper *La Presse* was the first to include paid advertising in its pages, allowing it to lower its price, extend its readership and increase its profitability and the formula was soon copied by all titles. Around 1840, Volney B. Palmer established a predecessor to advertising agencies in Boston. Around the same time, in France, Charles-Louis Havas extended the services of his news agency, Havas to include advertisement brokerage, making it the first French group to organize. At first, agencies were brokers for advertisement space in newspapers. N. W. Ayer & Son was the first full-service agency to assume responsibility for advertising content. N.W. Ayer opened in 1869, and was located in Philadelphia.
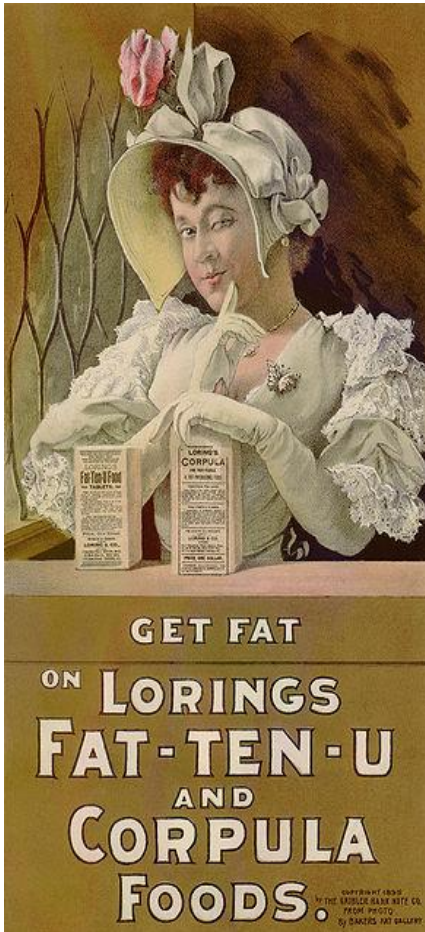
At the turn of the century, there were few career choices for women in business; however, advertising was one of the few. Since women were responsible for most of the purchasing done in their household, advertisers and agencies recognized the value of women's insight during the creative process. In fact, the first American advertising to use a sexual sell was created by a woman – for a soap product. Although tame by today's standards, the advertisement featured a couple with the message "The skin you love to touch".

An 1895 advertisement for a weight gain product

In the early 1920s, the first radio stations were established by radio equipment manufacturers and retailers who offered programs in order to sell more radios to consumers. As time passed, many non-profit organizations followed suit in setting up their own radio stations, and included: schools, clubs and civic groups.

When the practice of sponsoring programs was popularized, each individual radio program was usually sponsored by a single business in exchange for a brief mention of the business' name at the beginning and end of the sponsored shows. However, radio station owners soon realized they could earn more money by selling sponsorship rights in small time allocations to multiple businesses throughout their radio station's broadcasts, rather than selling the sponsorship rights to single businesses per show.

This practice was carried over to television in the late 1940s and early 1950s. A fierce battle was fought between those seeking to commercialize the radio and people who argued that the radio spectrum should be considered a part of the commons – to be used only non-commercially and for the public good. The United Kingdom pursued a public funding model for the BBC, originally a private company, the British Broadcasting Company, but incorporated as a public body by Royal Charter in 1927. In Canada, advocates like Graham Spry were likewise able to persuade the federal government to adopt a public funding model, creating the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation. However, in the United States, the capitalist model prevailed with the passage of the Communications Act of 1934 which created the Federal Communications Commission. To placate the socialists, the U.S. Congress did require commercial broadcasters to operate in the "public interest, convenience, and necessity". Public broadcasting now exists in the United States due to the 1967 Public Broadcasting Act which led to the Public Broadcasting Service and National Public Radio.

In the early 1950s, the DuMont Television Network began the modern practice of selling advertisement time to multiple sponsors. Previously, DuMont had trouble finding sponsors for many of their programs and compensated by selling smaller blocks of advertising time to several businesses. This eventually became the standard for the commercial television industry in the United States. However, it was still a common practice to have single sponsor shows, such as The United States Steel Hour. In some instances the sponsors exercised great control over the content of the show—up to and including having one's advertising agency actually writing the show. The single sponsor model is much less prevalent now, a notable exception being the Hallmark Hall of Fame.

WHEN IN DOUBT—"LOOK IT UP" IN

The

Encyclopaedia Britannica

The Sum of Human Knowledge

29 volumes, 28,150 pages, 44,000,000 words of text. Printed on thin, but strong opaque India paper, each volume but one inch in thickness.

(New 11th Edition) Issued 1910-11 by the
CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY PRESS (England)

| THE BOOK TO ASK QUESTIONS OF | FOR READING OR FOR STUDY |

A print advertisement for the 1913 issue of the Encyclopedia Britannica

The 1960s saw advertising transform into a modern approach in which creativity was allowed to shine, producing unexpected messages that made advertisements more tempting to consumers' eyes. The Volkswagen ad campaign—featuring such headlines as "Think Small" and "Lemon" which were used to describe the appearance of the car)—ushered in the era of modern advertising by promoting a "position" or "unique selling proposition" designed to associate each brand with a specific idea in the reader or viewer's mind. This period of American advertising is called the Creative Revolution and its archetype was William Bernbach who helped create the revolutionary Volkswagen ads among others. Some of the most creative and long-standing American advertising dates to this period.

The late 1980s and early 1990s saw the introduction of cable television and particularly MTV. Pioneering the concept of the music video, MTV ushered in a new type of advertising: the consumer tunes in for the advertising message, rather than it being a by-product or afterthought. As cable and satellite television became increasingly prevalent, specialty channels emerged, including channels entirely devoted to advertising, such as QVC, Home Shopping Network, and Shop TV Canada.

Marketing through the Internet opened new frontiers for advertisers and contributed to the "dot-com" boom of the 1990s. Entire corporations operated solely on advertising revenue, offering everything from coupons to free Internet access. At the turn of the 21st century, a number of websites including the search engine Google, started a change in online advertising by emphasizing contextually

relevant, unobtrusive ads intended to help, rather than inundate, users. This has led to a plethora of similar efforts and an increasing trend of interactive advertising.
The share of advertising spending relative to GDP has changed little across large changes in media. For example, in the US in 1925, the main advertising media were newspapers, magazines, signs on streetcars, and outdoor posters. Advertising spending as a share of GDP was about 2.9 percent. By 1998, television and radio had become major advertising media. Nonetheless, advertising spending as a share of GDP was slightly lower—about 2.4 percent.

A recent advertising innovation is "guerrilla marketing", which involve unusual approaches such as staged encounters in public places, giveaways of products such as cars that are covered with brand messages, and interactive advertising where the viewer can respond to become part of the advertising message. Guerrilla advertising is becoming increasing more popular with a lot of companies. This type of advertising is unpredictable and innovative, which causes consumers to buy the product or idea. This reflects an increasing trend of interactive and "embedded" ads, such as via product placement, having consumers vote through text messages, and various innovations utilizing social network services such as Facebook.

UNIT 2. INTRODUCTION TO JOURNALISM

OBJECTIVES

- To understand the role and importance of Journalism
- To discuss the making of a newspaper
- To study the Press Codes and Ethics
- To learn some code and ethics in Indian Journalism

INTRODUCTION

Journalism is a form of communication based on asking, and answering, the questions Who? What? How? Where? When? Why?

Journalism is anything that contributes in some way in gathering, selection, processing of news and current affairs for the press, radio, television, film, cable, internet, etc.

Journalism is a discipline of collecting, analyzing, verifying, and presenting news regarding current events, trends, issues and people. Those who practice journalism are known as journalists.

Journalism is defined by Denis Mc Quail as 'paid **writing for public media with reference to actual and ongoing events of public relevance'**.

Thus, Journalism can be one of the most exciting jobs around. One goes into work not necessarily knowing what you are going to be doing that day. Journalists get to meet powerful people, interesting people, inspiring people, heroes, villains and celebrities. The chance to know something and to tell the world about it is exciting. One also gets chance to indulge a passion for writing and the opportunity to seek the truth and campaign for justice. And then there's the excitement of seeing your byline in print, watching your report on television, or hearing your words of wisdom on the radio.

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2.1. ROLE, POWER & CENSORSHIP IN PRESS

Role of Journalism

Disseminators of information? Watchdogs? Interpreters of events? Journalists have many roles to play.

Journalism mainly involves practices of print journalism in general, and newspaper in particular, because newspaper journalism remains a good grounding career in television, radio, magazine and online journalism.

The role of press is to be a watchdog and act as a catalytic agent to hasten the process of socially and economic change in the society. Journalism is the voice of the people about corruption, the government, and the use and misuse of power. It should be noted that Journalism too is part of the political process, craves for power, is made up of people with personal ambitions and aversions, preferences and prejudices. As perhaps the largest advertisers, the government supports and strengthens the press. Both the government and the press represent the 'power elites' and therefore reflect their interests. This is why the interests of the poor are rarely on the agenda of public discussions.

The press is so obsessed with politics that even a silly rumor hits the front page. What the Journalism profession urgently needs is creative, **investigative** and development reporting chiefly on non-political themes like unemployment, malnutrition, exploitation of the poor, miscarriage of justice, police atrocities, development schemes and the like. For example, in India, the Bofors pay-offs, the Harshad Mehta securities scam, the 'hawala' payments to top politicians etc are all incidents where follow-up investigations are lacking. Such 'crisis' reporting sells newspapers but does little to bring the guilty to book or to educate the public about the context of corruption.

Credibility is indeed the very life-blood of the press, no matter which government is in power. Journalism is an awesome responsibility, which rests on the shoulders of journalists because in the final analysis they are the custodians of the freedom of press. If they prefer careerism to standing up for their rights, they are letting down their profession. Unfortunately, journalists are inclined to accept many favors from government and therefore, their news stories will ultimately favor that particular government.

New paradigm features

- Journalism, have a role in society to link the individual to the world. The journalists need to give the audience a sense of what it is to be in the place they are reporting and connected to the world.
- Our audience is diverse and complex. So there needs to be a consciousness of diversity: not just in terms of race and gender but also class, rural/urban and youth/aged.
- Journalism must emphasize context; interpretation; research; investigation; complete reporting and analysis.
- The journalists must foreground the storyteller the individual and the media organization.
- They should respect the audiences and engage in dialogue.
- In our use of sources the journalists should move beyond "the authorities". Audiences are also sources. They must remember to foreground and situate who the sources are.
- Ownership: symbolically the audience needs to feel they "own" the medium.
- Ownership: economic -this needs to be diverse and needs participation by all stakeholders in media.
- Control and structures within media organizations – there should be respect for storytellers and storytelling and these should be given status and compensation. From this we drafted the policy statement which reads: "In recognition of our role in society as storytellers; as the link between citizens and the world; we strive to promote:
- Stories, told in a multiplicity of voices that are well researched; conceptualized; analytical; interpretive; in dialogue with, are considered respectful.

Role of Journalism in society

Journalism's role is to act as a mediator or translator between the public and policymaking elites. The journalist became the middleman. When elites spoke, journalists listened and recorded the information, distilled it, and passed it on to the public for their consumption. The reasoning behind this function is that the public is not in a position to deconstruct a growing and complex flurry of information present in modern society, and so an intermediary is needed to filter news for the masses. Lippman put it this way: The public is not smart enough to understand complicated, political issues. Furthermore, the public was too consumed with their daily lives to care about complex public policy. Therefore the public needed

someone to interpret the decisions or concerns of the elite to make the information plain and simple. That was the role of journalists.

Public affects the decision making of the elite with their vote. In the meantime, the elite i.e. politicians, policy makers, bureaucrats, scientists, etc. would keep the business of power running. The journalist's role is to inform the public of what the elites were doing. It was also to act as a watchdog over the elites as the public had the final say with their votes.

On the other hand, it is believed the public was not only capable of understanding the issues created or responded to by the elite; it was in the public forum that decisions should be made after discussion and debate. When issues were thoroughly vetted, then the best ideas would bubble to the surface. Thus, journalists not only have to inform the public, but should report on issues differently than simply passing on information. Journalists should take in the information, and then weigh the consequences of the policies being enacted by the elites on the public. Over time, this function of journalism has been implemented in various degrees, and is more commonly known as "community journalism."

This concept of '*Community Journalism*' is at the center of new developments in journalism. Journalists are able to engage citizens and the experts/elites in the proposition and generation of content. The shared knowledge of many is far superior to a single individual's knowledge and conversation, debate, and dialogue lie at the heart of a democracy.

The Power of Press

The 'power' of the press to bring about social and political change or economical development is extremely limited. In capitalist societies, the press is primarily like any other business or industry. It exists to raise advertising revenue and circulation with the aim of making profits. 'Public service' and 'public interest' are not the main concerns. This is not to suggest that the press does not make attempts to exercise its 'power' in favor of on political or economic ideology over another or of one group or class or caste over another. These attempts, it must be acknowledged, are sometimes successful and at other times disastrous failures.

At most times, however, the attempts are not paid much heed to, unless it affects some group's interests on a radical manner. In the ultimate analysis, the 'power' of the press depends on its credibility among readers, as well as on how the news reported is understood and interpreted. Different groups 'read' the same news item

in varied ways depending on their social background. How news is read is not entirely in the hands of journalists. Indeed, the press often succeeds only in reinforcing widely held beliefs and the status quo rather than bringing about change and development.

There is no doubt that the press keeps us informed about selected events, issues and people. But the public too has a role in 'setting the agenda' of the press. The public has interests, beliefs and expectations that are catered by the press. While the press tells us what to think about, it has little power to change our ideas, beliefs and attitudes even when it attempts to do so. Only when there is a general consensus on an issue among all the elements of the press and the other media, and this consensus fits in with a community's needs, is there is some likelihood of a change being affected. Even in this case, several other factors would have to come to play before and real change can be felt.

The public attitude to the 'internal emergency' imposed by Mrs. Indira Gandhi in India is a case in point. One could argue, however, that it was not so much the press that brought about the downfall of the government as the people's hostility to the crackdown on their fundamental rights. The press, after all, was easily silenced during the emergency. In the post-emergency period, the press only reflected the public's seething anger against the regime.

By and large, then the press rarely initiated a change, innovation and development. Because of its dependence on commercial interests and the dominant groups, it is of necessity conservative and status quoits. The widespread support that the anti-Mandal riots and the 'liberalization' policies of the government have received from the 'national' and the 'regional' press is a reflection of that independence.

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The current news values of Indian journalist are no different from the news values of their counterparts in the west. These are timeliness, immediacy, proximity, oddity, conflict, mystery, suspense, curiosity, and novelty. The new development journalists, however, challenge these elite and immediacy-oriented values and the man-bites-dog approach to news. They believe that the voice of the silent, suffering majority should be heard through the press. Not politics, business, finance, sports should be the staple of news but rather what is of value in terms of equality, social justice and peace.
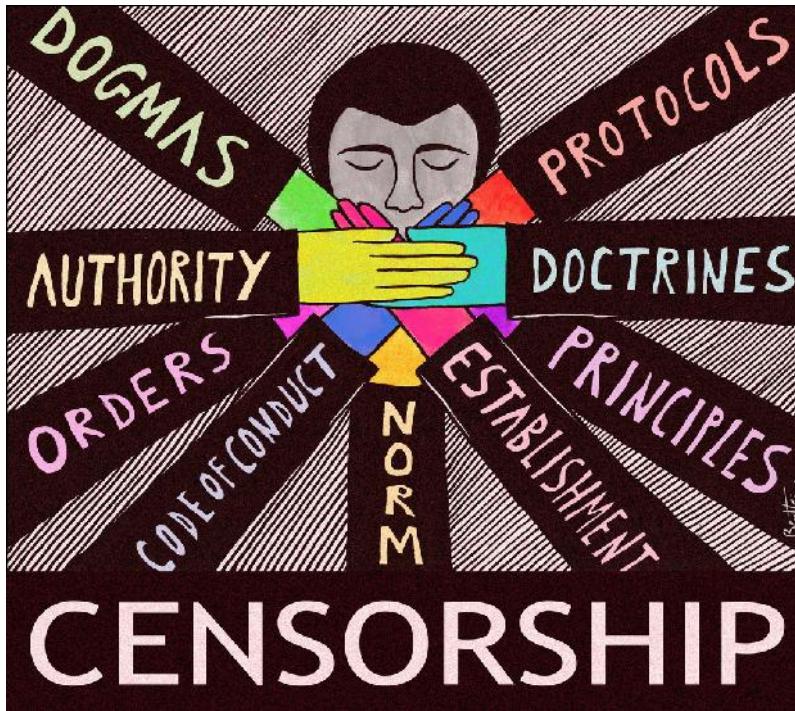
Censorship in the Press

Censorship is the control of speech and other forms of human expression. In many cases, it is exercised by governing bodies. The visible motive of censorship is often to stabilize or improve the society that the government would have control over. It is most commonly applied to acts that occur in public circumstances, and most formally involves the **suppression** of ideas by criminalizing or regulating expression. Furthermore, discussion of censorship often includes less formal means of controlling perceptions by excluding various ideas from mass communication.

Sanitization removal and whitewashing are almost interchangeable terms that refer to a particular form of censorship via omission, which seeks to "clean up" the portrayal of particular issues and/or facts that are already known, but that may be in conflict with the point of view of the censor. Some may consider extreme political correctness to be related, as a socially-imposed type of restriction, which, if taken to extremes, may qualify as self-censorship.

Not everything is fit to print. There is to be regard for at least probable factual accuracy, for danger to innocent lives, for human decencies, and even, if cautiously, for nonpartisan considerations of the national interest. In practice there is disagreement about fitness, risk and dangers in print and broadcast journalism.

Censorship during times of war

Censorship during times of war or civil unrest has a range of objectives -
- suppression of 'information that would be useful to the enemy' - what most people think of as wartime censorship - including information that facilitates identification of military targets or th eir status after attack
- suppression of information that would discourage the domestic population or armed forces and thereby 'give comfort to the enemy', for example information about military losses, incompetence or corruption
- suppression of information that would erode relations with allies, neutral countries/organizations and with 'international opinion'

It has taken different forms, including -
- jamming of enemy or neutral broadcasts and prohibition on import/dissemination of overseas publications
- use of the 'censor's 'blue pencil' to delete content from personal correspondence, news service reports, broadcast scripts and newspaper/journals prior to publication
- seizure of individual issues of newspapers or journals that 'escaped' the blue pencil with punishment or suppression of the publication for repeated breaches

- prohibitions on the broadcast of interviews with or even publication of statements by terrorist leaders
- restrictions on who gets to report news and where they are allowed to go, with for example 'official correspondents', embedded journalists and journalism pools that can only process official communiqués by military minders rather than independently collect information from civilians and troops
- self censorship, whether by individual journalists and editors out of perceptions of national interest, 'responsible reporting', personal interest or merely to preempt tighter regulation or by organizations and their spokespeople

Censorship in time of peace

Nations have used a range of mechanisms for censorship of journalism during peacetime. Zimbabwe's 2003 *Access to Information and Protection of Privacy Act* for example imposes heavy fines and jail terms for "abuse of journalistic privilege" such as publication of "falsehoods" statements th at the Government deems to be untrue). It bars foreigners from working in Zimbabwe as correspondents; journalists, magazines and newspapers must be to be accredited by the government Media & Information Commission. Some nations engage in issue by issue approval and censorship of publications. In 2005 Egyptian censors for example blocked sale of *Cairo* magazine, apparently for a cover photo showing plainclothes security forces preparing to attack pro-democracy demonstrators.

Censorship and the Mutiny in India

The year of what the British historians term 'the Sepoy Mutiny', however, brought back the press restriction in the form of Gagging Act, 1857. Lord Canning argued for them, stating that 'there are times in the existence of every state in which something of the liberties and rights, which it jealously cherishes and scrupulously guards in ordinary seasons must be sacrificed for the public welfare. Such is the state of India at this moment. Such a time has come upon us. The liberty of the press is no exception.'

The mutiny brought the rule of the east India Company to a close, with the crown taking over the 'colony' with the promise of religious toleration and press freedom. The main topics of discussion in the English and Vernacular before and after the mutiny were sati, caste, widow remarriage, polygamy, crime and opposition to the

teaching of English in schools and colleges. Bombay's Gujarati press in particular, excelled in the defence of the Indian way of life. In 1876 the vernacular press act was promulgated.

During the next two decades *The Times of India*, the *Pioneer*, the *Madras Mail*, and the *Amrit Bazaar Patrika* came into existence –all serving the interests of English educated readers. The English press played down the inaugural meeting of the Indian National Congress on December 28, 1885 in Bombay, but it was reported at length by the vernacular papers such as *Kesari* founded by Lokmanya Tilak. The *Amrit Bazaar Patrika* and *Kesari* soon gained a reputation for opposing government attempts to suppress nationalist aspirations. The *Amrit Bazaar Patrika*, for instance, denounced the deposition of the Maharaja of Kashmir, and *Kesari* was foremost in attacking the Age of Consent Bill of 1891, which sought to prohibit the consummation of marriage before a bride completed the age of 12. The *Amrit Bazaar Patrika and Bangabasi of Calcutta endorsed the Kesari's* stand on the ground that the government has no right to interfere with traditional Hindu customs. Tilak charged the government with disrespect for the liberty and privacy of the Indian people and with negligence in providing relief during the countrywide famine in 1896-97, which resulted in the death of over a million people.

Such savage anti-government sentiments could not be allowed free play and so Lord Elgin added sections to the Indian Penal Code to enable the government to deal with promotion of 'disaffection' against the Crown, or of enmity and hatred between different classes. Also prohibited was 'the circulation of any reports with intent to cause mutiny among British troops, intent to cause such fear or alarm among the public as to cause any person to commit an offence against the State, or intent to incite any class or community. The penalties for offences ranged from life imprisonment to short imprisonment or fines.

The man who became the most noteworthy victim of these new laws was none other than Bal Gangadhar Tilak, editor of *Kesari* and its English companion, *Mahratha*. He was arrested, convicted and jailed for six years, but *Kesari* continued to build up its reputation and influence as a national daily, as India woke to the 20th century. Other champions of press freedom who were prosecuted at the same time were Aurobindo Ghose of *Bande Mataram*, B.B.Upadhayaya of *Sandhya,* and others.

In 1910, the Indian Press Act clamped further control on newspapers in the wake of the partition of Bengal and violent attacks by terrorists in Ahamedabad, Ambala and elsewhere. The Act required owners of printing presses to deposit securities of Rs.500 to Rs.2000, which were forfeited if 'objectionable matters' were printed. The

threats of seizure of the printing press, and confiscation of copies sent by post were also included in the Act. The vernacular press suffered rigorous suppression during this period. The government banned 50 works in English and 272 in the vernacular, which included 114 in Marathi, 52 in Urdu and 51 in Bengali.

World War I introduced still more severe press laws, but there were no let-up in nationalist agitations. Annie Besant's New India became the mouthpiece of Home Rule advocates, ably supported by the Bombay Chronicle and other publications. The government reacted swiftly by exiling Annie Besant and imposing new securities on offending publications. The Rowlatt Act of 1919 infuriated Indian opinion, which now came under the leadership of Mahatma Gandhi. His Non-Cooperative Movement took the press by storm. Gandhi was to remain front-page news for years to come. His arrests and imprisonments were covered with relish by the English and the vernacular press, whose readership now was raised dramatically. The Swaraj Party led by C.S.Das, Vallabhbhai Patel and Motilal Nehru, launched its own publications- the *Banglar Katha* in Calcutta, the *Swadesh Mitram* in the south, and *Hindustan Times,* Pratap and *Basumati* in the north.

The Indian Press Ordinance 1930, like the Press Act of 1910, and five other Ordinances gave added power to the government in dealing with acts of terrorism and inflammatory literature. The Swadeshi movement, covered prominently by the press, as in *The Hindu* Madras led to the imprisonment of leaders like Gandhi and Nehru, and the editors like S.A.Brelvi of *Bombay Chronicle*. The Indian Press Act of 1931 raised deposit securities and fines, and gave Magistrates the power to issue summary actions. Several other Acts were made law during the thirties, forcing the closure of many presses and publications.

Meanwhile, the Free Press of India, which began as a news agency, started *The Indian Express* in Madras, *Free Press Journal* in Bombay. The news agency collapsed after it forfeited Rs.20, 000 security under the Indian Press Act, but its publications continued under different owners and the Free Press editors started a new agency called the United Press of India(UPI).

Then came the Quit India Movement, and World War II, and the press in India, including the English language press and that in the Indian Native States played a commendable role in reporting the struggle for freedom fairly. It opposed communal riots and the partition of the country, and when partition did take place in the glorious year of independence, lamented it. Indeed, it could be said that the press played so small part in India's victory to freedom. Free India's Constitution upheld the citizens' right to freedom of speech and expression, which included the freedom

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of the press. While the obnoxious Press Acts were repealed or amended, the Official Secrets Act and Sections of the Indian Code dealing with disaffection, communal hatred and incitement of armed forces to disloyalty were retained.

The Nehru Government passed in October 1951 the Press Objectionable Matters Act, which was reminiscent of earlier press laws enacted by the colonial rulers. The 'objectionable matters' were quite comprehensive. So fierce was the opposition to it that in 1956, it was allowed to lapse and the first Press Commission was formed.

The national and regional press covered the campaigns of the first national elections. Unlike her father, Mrs. Indira Gandhi had never been at ease with the press, 'How much freedom can the press have in a country like India fighting poverty, backwardness, ignorance, disease and superstition?' she asked the first year of her regime. The national dailies grew strident in their attacks on her government, especially on the question of nationalization of banks, privy purses, the Congress split, but joined forces with her during the Bangladesh war of liberation. The attacks reached their climax in the period prior to the emergency, with open accusations of rampant corruption, and demands for her resignation, followed by Allahabad High Court's verdict of her being guilty of corrupt election practices.

2.2. MAKING OF NEWSPAPER

2.2.1. News Reporting

News reports are classified into two broad types:
1. Straight news reports
2. Investigative or interpretative reports

Straight news reports present what has happened in a straightforward, factual and clear manner. They draw no conclusions, nor offer any opinions. There is no attempt to probe deeper than the surface happenings, or they provide elaborate background information, or even to examine claims made. The main sources are: Government officials, elite groups, news agencies, eminent people, businessmen and others.

Both these types of news stories merely present the claims, without in any way trying to question or rebut, or ask why. Investigative reports, on the other hand, would make an effort to go behind the claims and see how valid they are. They report happenings in depth, present fairly all sides of the picture in the context of

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the situation, and generally, put some meaning into the news so that the reader is better able to understand and analyze the event.

Disaster stories e.g. famines and floods get pride of place in the daily press, and these provide many 'human interest' stories. Developments in science, industry and agriculture are increasingly coming to be considered as interesting news, as also the exposure of corruption in high places, the exploitation of the lower classes and workers, and social injustice and inequalities resulting from the social, economic and political structures. Of course, all the news reported is not news of the highest interest to everybody. Politics interest some, sports others, crime still others. However, it is rare that newspapers touch in the information needs and interests of the poorer sections of the society.

2.2.2. Investigative and Interpretative Reporting

'There is no more important contribution that we can make to society than strong, publicly spirited investigative journalism'.

Investigative journalism is a kind of journalism in which reporters deeply investigate a topic of interest, often involving crime, political corruption, or some other scandal.

Investigative and interpretative reporting is not necessarily getting 'scoops' and sensationalizing them but rather 'situation reporting' in place of event or personality reporting. It is indeed a calm, restrained and detached manner of arriving at conclusions. In short interpretive reporting is when a reporter, who is an expert in a particular area, say finance and economics, gives meaning and relevancy for the reader to information he has researched and gathered on a particular topic. This will usually include some relevant history, interviews with experts, interviews with those of opposing views, and an informed opinion about implications and trends.

An investigative report begins with a hunch that there is something more than meets the eye. Many newspapers have carried investigative news reports like the *Indian Express* carried four investigative reports in 1979 about the inside of Tihar jail. Also news magazines like *India Today*, *Outlook, Sunday* and *The Week* have exposed the Bhagalpur blinding, and other police atrocities in many parts of the country.

An investigative journalist may spend a considerable period researching and preparing a report, sometimes months or years, whereas a typical daily or weekly news reporter writes items concerning immediately available news. Most investigative journalism is done by newspapers, wire services and freelance journalists. An investigative journalist's final report may take the form of an exposé.

The investigation will often require an extensive number of interviews and travel; other instances might call for the reporter to make use of activities such as surveillance techniques, tedious analysis of documents, investigations of the performance of any kind of equipment involved in an accident, patent medicine, scientific analysis, social and legal issues, and the like. In short, investigative journalism requires a lot of scrutiny of details, fact-finding, and physical effort. An investigative journalist must have an analytical and incisive mind with strong self-motivation to carry on when all doors are closed, when facts are being covered up or falsified and so on.

Some of the means reporters can use for their fact-finding:
- studying neglected sources, such as archives, phone records, address books, tax records and license records
- anonymous sources
- going undercover

Newspapers and news magazines are turning more and more too investigative and interpretative reporting, as television, radio and the internet have a clear edge over them in giving up-to-the minute development in news around the world. The morning papers of course provide news in much greater detail, but it is all the same yesterday's news, which is in fact stale news. However, TV and radio cannot match the press in in-depth reporting and critical analyses.

Investigative stories have to be done with the active support of the editor; else they may be 'killed' at the last minute. That is because such stories could tread on many toes, especially governmental and business. They often demand months of tedious work, and when finally published can have dramatic effects. An offshoot of investigative reporting is consumer reporting, which exposes the business practices that exploit consumers. Our newspapers have yet to take on big business in a big way. Occasional reports have focused on drug and soft-drink companies, but without much dramatic impact. The findings of consumer organizations and

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Consumer Redressal Courts are rarely given wide publicity and 'complaints' columns in the press so not follow-up the complaints made.

The daily newspaper is the result of a glorious team effort. The members of the team are often a restless lot getting on each other's nerves. But they share the 'values' of the same profession and belong to a team. Reporters, sub-editors, news editors, assistant editors and editors belong to the editorial department of the newspaper. Compositions, makeup men and printers form the printing or mechanical department. Thus, the editorial team is the creative organ of the newspaper.

It is essential to have the facts, but facts also need to be interpreted. Many indications from the world around us confirm the notion that straight news reporting may not always be enough. Interpretative reporting means to dig out and explain the news behind the news. The reporter goes beyond the visible facts of the story.

To balance the use and abuse of news, the media must also be used to fulfill the need for analysis and interpretation, to put facts into perspective, to tell what it all means, to explain to argue, to persuade, to express expert opinion about what happened and to provide a forum for the expression of others' opinion as well.
Interpretative reporters are under no deadline pressure that would force them to write a quick and superficial report of the facts. They can get the hidden facts, explore the ramifications and meanings of the facts, and reveal the "truth about the facts".
The news media are increasingly developing specialists among their reporting staff, people who know as much about their subjects as the experts and in reporting about a complex or controversial matter they can add their own opinion to give their readers fuller understanding of the situation.

2.2.3. Sub-Editor

They are responsible for ensuring that the tone, style and layout of final copy matches the publication's house style and suits the target market. The work involves processing all the copy before it is published to ensure that it is grammatically and factually correct and reads well. Sub-editors also lay out the story on the page, write headings and may be involved with overall page design.
Like other journalism roles, sub-editing is demanding and requires constant attention to detail within a fast-paced working environment. They work closely with reporters, editors, designers, production staff and printers.

- Polishes up the language by removing rough edges from the copy and making it readable
- Fine-tunes the copy to the style of the newspaper
- Simplifies the language to make it reader-friendly
- Tailors story length to space requirements
- Correct factual errors
- Detects fraud or plant –a plant is falsehood in journalistic garment it promote somebody's interest or discredit somebody
- Ensure balance and fairness and objectivity in the stories. In case of controversy, both sides get equal space
- Guard against legal trappings like defamation and copyright violation. The report stories should not defame a person by use of pejorative language.
- Rewrites and restructures stories if necessary. Normally sub editing subbing involves looking for errors in spellings and grammar
- Implement the editorial policy of the newspaper like to maintain good taste, shun sensationalism, etc
- Thus, a sub editor is responsible for every word that gets printed.

The sub-editor's job is much less glamorous than a reporter's but very important. While a reporter is an out-of-doors man with a 'beat' to cover, a sub-editor is a deskman. Again, while a reporter is well known to newspaper readers as his reports frequently carry a 'by-line', a sub-editor hardly ever sees his name in print. He is an obscure figure working back-stage to give a face-lift to the paper, but even reporters, to whose 'copy' he gives spit and polish, making it readable to the average newspaper reader, rarely acknowledge his worth. Work activities vary and can depend on the extent to which production and layout work falls within a subeditor's remit. To be a good sub, you must be an all-rounder: you need to know the law, government and how to put a story together with speed and style.

Other tasks of a sub-editor are:-
- ✓ editing copy, written by reporters or features writers, to remove spelling mistakes and grammatical errors;
- ✓ rewriting material so that it flows or reads better and adheres to the house style of a particular publication;
- ✓ ensuring that a story fits a particular word count by cutting or expanding material as necessary;
- ✓ writing headlines that capture the essence of the story or are clever or amusing;

- ✓ writing stand firsts or 'sells' brief introductions which sum up the story, underneath the headline);
- ✓ liaising with reporters or journalists to clarify facts and details about a story
- ✓ checking facts and stories to ensure they are accurate, adhere to copyright laws, are not libelous or go against the publication's policy;
- ✓ cropping photos and deciding where to use them for best effect;
- ✓ writing picture captions;
- ✓ discussing concerns with editors;
- ✓ proofreading complete pages produced by other sub-editors using the main basic proofing symbols;
- ✓ working to a page plan to ensure that the right stories appear in the correct place on each page;
- ✓ laying out pages and, depending on the nature of the role, playing a part in page design;
- ✓ manipulating on-screen copy using appropriate desktop publishing software, such as Quark Express, In Design and Photoshop;
- ✓ adding last minute news stories;
- ✓ keeping up to date with sector issues, e.g. by reading related publications;
- ✓ adapting all these skills for a publication's website;
- ✓ editing press releases or reports;
- ✓ compiling routine information, such as tables of sports results or financial data.

Indeed, a sub-editor is a 'super-editor' for he sits in judgment on a reporter's news story, checking its accuracy, its language, and its intelligibility. It is often due to his alertness that a story is 'killed' and the editor is saved from being hauled up by the police and the courts, or from having to apologize it readers for carrying fake stories, and for errors in names, designations, dates and the like. The credibility of the paper rests in his hands. As one appreciative editor puts it: 'The sub-editor is the private detective, the motorcycle cop escort, nay even the army, navy and marine corps to the newspaper's most treasured possession-the confidence of the reader. He wears neither star nor chevron, and his bosom never bulges with gold medals, nor his pockets with coins, **he is the lifeguard of the newspaper office'**.

2.2.4. Headlines

The sub-editor has other creative duties as well. The most significant on is that of providing headlines and sub headlines to news reports.

A headline grabs the reader's attention, targets him or her by saying something meaningful, and creates some curiosity in the reader. It can make a promise for some big benefit, it can make an offer, it can challenge the reader in some way, it can introduce some really compelling concept or idea, or it can be something newsworthy.

A headline is a '**window**' to the news story. Thus, a heading must fit, must tell the story, must confirm to newspaper's standard, must not just be a label, must be safe and must not commit the paper to an opinion. A good headline is one that in less than a dozen words summarizes what a reporter has said.

The earliest newspapers had no headlines on the front page, which was devoted entirely to advertisements, and the headlines inside did no more than announce the subject of the report. Today, every newspaper has its own style of headlining a story. Some newspaper give straight hard headings, while some other prefer to give exciting and sensational headings. It normally depends on the policy of the newspaper.

It has been found that all daily newspapers in standard size generally prefer to give **straight headlines** and tabloid newspaper throughout the world give **sensational headlines**.

The headline is the first, and perhaps only, impression you make on a prospective reader. Without a headline, the rest of your words may as well not even exist. But a headline can do more than simply grab attention. A great headline can also communicate a full message to its intended audience, and it absolutely must lure the reader into your body text. At its essence, a compelling headline must promise some kind of benefit or reward for the reader, in trade for the valuable time it takes to read more.

The one thing that can make or break a newspaper article is the headline. A good newspaper headline is concise, informative and, at times, entertaining. When you write a newspaper headline, your goal is to hook the reader into reading the article. Writing a headline for your article is easy, if you follow these steps.

- ➢ Reread your article; identify the underlying theme.
- ➢ Express the theme in an active voice using as few words as possible. Active verbs lend immediacy to a story. If a reader sees a headline written in a passive voice, he or she might glance right over it.
- ➢ Keep your headline in present tense.
- ➢ Keep it simple. A headline is a short, direct sentence without extra adjectives or adverbs.
- ➢ Provide enough information in the headline to give the casual reader an impression of the entire story.

Types of Headlines

Banner Headline: A newspaper headline written in large letters across the width of the page. When the heading is given below the nameplate of the newspaper and covers all columns from left to right, it is called **banner headline.** Some may call it streamer, which also covers the entire column but is normally given on the inside page. Sometimes the streamer may leave one column.

Skyline: for very exceptional and exclusive events, the headline of the story is sometimes given over the nameplate of the newspaper. It means that the event is even more important than the authority of the newspaper.

Rectangle: in such headings, all the lines are equal from left to right. Normally, it is of three lines but sometimes it can be of 2 to 4 lines too.

Hanging indentation: right justification the heading with more than two or more lines which are justified on the right side and unjustified on the left are called hanging indentation.

Waist: this is of three lines where the first and the third line cover the column but the centerline is smaller and placed centrally.

Full one/one line: the headline is normally single line heading covering all the columns of the story

Crosser/highlighter: crosser are normally one line headline which is given in the middle of the story. Sometimes in the story, a few important points are highlighted in the middle of the story. They are also included in this category.

Flash: a recent development in the newspaper is to highlight the stories of inside pages on the first page, just below the flag. Flag The Times of India).

Over line: this is also called the eyebrow or strap line. This is normally given over the main heading.

Oval: in such headlines, middle line is longer than the above and below lines. This is normally of three lines.

Multi deck headings: the descending lines get smaller in size, after the main heading

Sub-heading: these are the small subsidiary headings in the body of the story

Symbolic headline: this headline will show the special effects of the story

Left step: here the lines of the headline are justified on the left and unjustified on the right.

Step line: the headline with two or more lines, displayed so as to give an effect of a stair. Ladder)

Inverted pyramid: in this heading, there are three or more than three lines which are centrally set from large to small. In some cases, there could be two lines only, set in such a fashion.

In print, page presentation, images and accompanying text can increase a headline's impact. Words like "**BIG CRASH**" make sense in bold above a photo of car accident. Print headlines have presence and can be great for getting people to notice stories. Here are some characteristics of print headlines:

- **Photos or images lend context.** Printed headlines often have images and supporting text to support them and make the stories relevant to readers. A two-word headline has little chance of making sense without a big photo summing up the story.
- **Text size can help headlines make impact**. When print readers see huge bold text above the fold, they know that the story is likely an important read. Big text will likely draw the read in.
- **Subheads make extra push to readers**. How many times have you read a headline and then moved directly to the subhead? Readers want more contexts. Subheads explain to readers what the story is about when the headline often times only contains a couple words.
- **Print headlines show up in one place**. Print headlines on the front of the newspaper don't show up again on the inside sections. Local news section headlines are not promoted again in the business section. Headlines in printed publications have limited presence.
- **Print headlines don't change**. Once it hits the dead tree, you can't recall the day's papers and change your stories' headlines.

Some Guidelines for Headlines

Four functions of a headline:

- ✓ It gets the reader's attention.
- ✓ It summarizes or tells about the article.
- ✓ It helps organize the news on the page.
- ✓ It indicates the relative importance of a story.

A good headline should be accurate, clear, grammatically correct, strong, active, fresh and immediate. It should catch the reader's attention.

The two most basic rules for headlines:

- ✓ They must be accurate.
- ✓ They must fit the available space.

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For headlines to be accurate the headline writer must understand the article thoroughly before writing the headline; the copy editor who doesn't have a good view of what the article says isn't likely to write a headline that communicates clearly and accurately.

Accuracy tips:

- ✓ Spell check after writing the display type.
- ✓ In particular, double-check any proper names or any numbers.

- **The headline should sell the article to the reader.** Tell readers why they should be interested.

- Every news story headline should have an active Verb. Headlines on feature stories can be more creative. But aim for complete thoughts. Tell the story, but avoid the "clears hurdle" or "man dies" phenomena. Get the most important element first, the least important head element last.

- **Attribute** heads that convey opinion. If the lead needs attribution, chances are the headline will, too. Most times, attribution will go at the end of the headline.

- **Headlines should be accurate in Tone:** Don't put a light headline on a serious story. Be careful not to put a first-day head on a second-day story. Match the tone of the story. Be original and creative, but not trite and cliché. If you do employ word play on an idiom or common phrase, be sure the meter is exactly the same. The headline will ring falsely otherwise. If you use a pun, be honest with yourself. Will it make the reader smile, or groan?

- **Don't repeat the lead in a headline.** Write a better headline than the lead. And don't give away the punch line of a feature story that has a surprise ending.

- **Be aware of any unintended double meanings.** Real-life examples of some headlines that were published: Old man winter sticks icy finger into Virginia. Teens indicted for drowning in lake; FBI ordered to assist Atlanta in child slayings.

- **Avoid Bad Breaks** at the end of lines, such as dangling prepositions or conjunctions.

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- **Avoid weaklings:** Words such as mull, eye, rap, hit, slam, vie, assail, and seen and bid are headline weaklings. Alter your approach to get away from them. Look for a fresh approach.

- **Don't go for the obvious.** On fire-related stories, for example, stay away from verbs such as spark and snuff; on storm stories, stay away from verbs such as spawn, dump, blow, churn. In articles, hurricanes always seem to churn, and tornadoes are always spawned.

2.2.5. Feature Writing

While news reports present brief write-ups on events, issues and people, features present detailed analyses of the same, often in the form of discussions, narratives or critiques. Further, while news reports are written mostly in the inverted pyramid formal structure and style, features follow the structure of essays and discussions, and present a distinct point of view. Staff reporters, stringers or correspondents write news reports, but senior reporters, assistant editors, editors, usually contribute features as also by outside experts who may be academics, free-lancers, researchers and others.

A feature, then, is an essay-like piece written for publication in a newspaper or magazine. News reports dominate in the newspaper, but in magazines features take up most space. 'Cover stories' in magazines are usually written in the form of features, while in newspapers the main or lead story would be written in the form of a news report. Newspapers usually do not carry features on the front page, except perhaps in the 'anchor' position. Features also figure on the editorial page and on the 'op-ed page', as well as in the Sunday/magazine supplements.

The feature story, as the name indicates, has more to do with the development of some interesting feature suggested by the day's news than with the strict presentation of news for its own sake. It is therefore not subject to the same rules that govern the writing of the news story. Indeed, it can hardly be said that the feature story is subject to any rules, except those that apply to composition in general. Individuality in style counts for more in the feature story than in the news story that has no other purpose than to inform. Greater freedom is allowed the writer; he is not required, for one thing, to summarize his story in the lead. On the contrary, he may employ the fictional method of working up to a climax. The main end of all feature writing is to make the story interesting. If the writer succeeds in this, it does not much matter on what plan his story is constructed.

Many feature stories may be classified under what the newspaper man calls human-interest stories. The human-interest story is just what the name implies. It is written not for its immediate value as news, but for its power to affect the reader through his emotions — to make him smile or to arouse his sympathy. Its appeal is directed to the interest that people feel in the intimate doings of other people.

Real human interest cannot be faked. The writer must have seen and understood his story before he can tell it in a way to impress the reader with its truth. Much depends on the manner of the telling. A pathetic story loses its power if it descends to pathos; a humorous story must be some-thing more than mere flippancy. There is special need that the writer chooses his words carefully. Perhaps the best prescription for all kinds of human-interest stories, especially those designed to arouse the reader's sympathy, is to write simply and naturally. False emotion is easily detected.

2.2.5.1. Interviews

Features may sometimes take the form of interviews, or use interviews as important sources of information. Features frequently quote several opinions, which have been collected through interviews. The Sunday papers carry interviews with eminent people in art and literature. These interviews are sometimes presented in a 'question-and-answer' format, without any comments from the writer; at other times, the interviews are presented in the form of a news report or a feature where experts from the interview are highlighted, but the whole interview is not presented verbatim.

Interviews are a major source of information for a journalist. Interviews are conducted over the phone, in person, or at the time of press conferences. Journalists are not expected to offer their own opinions in news reports; they are expected to give the views and opinions of people in power. Common people are asked their views when the issues concern

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them. But common people are rarely 'nominated', whereas eminent people always are. The reasoning behind this is that people with power and position make news while common people do not. This is major 'value' among journalists the world over.

Interviewing in its broad sense is thus at the basis of nearly all newspaper reporting, because nearly all stories deal with persons — their doings and opinions. Even in covering the story which the reporter is fortunate enough to observe, a certain amount of interviewing may still be necessary to make the story complete. If it is a fire story, he probably questions the owner about the loss and the insurance and plans for rebuilding; he interviews various persons to find out the cause of the fire; he talks, perhaps, to persons who have been rescued and their rescuers. These and other facts can be obtained only by asking questions.

Except when a story is dependent on what a person has said, in a speech or a formal interview, it is nearly always desirable that the reporter, as far as possible, should make the story his own. It is poor policy in news writing, as a rule, to put trivial bits of information in the form of direct quotation. The reporter will find that owing to the common failure to observe accurately the accounts given by witnesses of a given occurrence will vary widely. It is the reporter's business to learn all that he can of the story ; to see, in the limited time at his command, as many as possible of the persons concerned in it, and then to present to the reader an intelligible, lucid account in the third person — the kernel of the story without the husks of inconsistency.

The interview may be in itself either a plain news story or a feature story. It may take the form of a considered statement or it may be in-formal in character. Some men give out type- written statements of their views when asked for an interview, while others talk freely, putting the reporter on his honor to be fair and accurate in his quotation. The question of presenting the speaker's remarks most effectively from the news stand-point is then left entirely to the writer's discretion.

An interview rightly written, telling the speaker's meaning in simple, clear English seasoned with phrases that give a hint of his personality is more accurate in this sense than a phonographic record of the conversation. It follows that the speaker's remarks need not be set down in the order in which they were made. Possibly the last thing he said may be put in the lead. Part of the interview may be in indirect quotation, summarizing statements of minor importance. The reporter may introduce explanatory sentences, especially if the interview is long and deals with more than one subject. He may break into the discourse to tell of the speaker's

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gesture at a certain point or to describe a facial expression — anything that will give the reader a vivid and true picture of the man interviewed.

2.3. PRESS CODES AND ETHICS

Codes of ethics for journalists began to be formulated since the early 1920s. Today, more than 60 countries around the world have drawn up and are enforcing such codes. Of course, they vary in form and scope from one country or region to another. In some countries, the codes have been voluntarily drawn up and are imposed by the governments in power. Several states enforce such codes, which speak of such high-minded principles as objectivity, impartiality, truthfulness, and freedom of information.

The McBridge Report states that all journalists have responsibilities to their own convictions, but equally important are their responsibilities to the public. The Report spells out 'journalists' responsibilities:

1. Contractual responsibility is relation to their media and their internal organization
2. A social responsibility entailing obligations towards public opinion and society as a whole
3. Responsibility or liability deriving from the obligation to comply with the law
4. Responsibility towards the international community, relating to respect for human values

Media Ethics

Journalistic codes usually take an account the following concepts:
1. Safeguarding freedom of information
2. Freedom of access to information sources
3. Objectivity, accuracy, truthfulness or the non-misrepresentation of facts
4. Responsibility to the public, and its rights and interests and in relation to national, racial and religious communities, the nation, the state and the maintenance of peace
5. The obligation to refrain from calumny, unfounded accusations, slander, violations of privacy
6. Integrity and independence
7. The right of reply and of correction
8. Respect of professional confidentiality
9. Consideration for the cultural, social or ethnic codes of individual countries

However, 'the scope of professional ethics is much wider that the text of legal codes. For, in attempting to achieve a just balance between freedom and responsibility, the ethical aspects of this dichotomy depend not only on conscious

decisions by a journalist, but also on practices in the media and the general social environment'.

The McBride Report says that the adoption of codes and ethics at national, and in some cases, at the regional level is desirable, provided that such codes are prepared and adopted by the profession itself, without government interference. It recommends that Codes of Ethics aim at the following objectives:

- To protect the consumer readers, listeners, viewers, or the public in general
- To protect and inspire the working journalist, broadcaster or others directly concerned with the gathering, writing, processing and presenting of news and opinions
- To guide editors and others who take full legal responsibility for what is published and broadcast
- To define the responsibilities of proprietors, shareholders and governments who are in a position of absolute control over any particular form of mass media communications activity
- To deal with issues of advertisers and others who buy into the services of the media

A Code of Ethics in Indian Journalism

1. A free press can flourish only in a free society. Communalism is a threat to the fabric of our free society and to the nation's solidarity.
2. The press has a vital role to play in the consummation of the fundamental objectives enshrined in our Constitution, namely, democracy, secularism, national unity, and integrity and the rule of law. It is the duty of the press to help promote unity and cohesion in the hearts and minds of the people, and refrain from publishing material tending to excite communal passions or inflame communal hatred.
3. To this end the press should adhere to the following guidelines in reporting on communal incidents in the country:

a) All editorial comments and other expressions of opinion, whether through articles, letters to the Editor, or in any other form should be restrained and free from scurrilous attacks against leaders or communities, and there should be no incitement to violence.
b Generalized allegations casting doubts and aspersions on the Patriotism and loyalty of any community should be eschewed.

c) Likewise, generalized charges and allegations against any community of unfair discrimination, amounting to inciting communal hatred and distrust, must also be eschewed.

d Whereas truth should not be suppressed, a deliberate slanting of news of communal incidents should be avoided.

e) News of incidents involving loss of life, lawlessness, arson, etc. should be described, reported, and headlined with restraint in strictly objective terms and should not be heavily displayed.

f Items of news calculated to make for peace and harmony and help in the restoration and maintenance of law and order should be given prominence and precedence over other news.

g The greatest caution should be exercised in the selection and publication of pictures, cartoons, poems, etc. so as to avoid arousing communal passions or hatred.

h Names o f communities should not be mentioned nor the terms "majority" and "minority" communities be ordinarily used in the course of reports.

i The source from which casualty figures are obtained should always be indicated.

j No facts or figures should be publi shed without fullest possible verification. However, if the publication of the facts or figures is likely to have the effect of arousing communal passions, those facts and figures may not be given.

2.4. Press Councils Guide to Journalistic Ethics

Press Council of India has been established to 'preserve the freedom of the press and to maintain and improve the standards of newspaper and news agencies'. The council is enjoined to 'build up' a Code of Conduct for newspapers, news agencies and journalists in accordance with high professional standards. In October 1992, the Council published 'an updated succinct of the principles of journalistic ethics. The guide to Journalistic Ethics was further revised and updated in 1995 by **Mr. Justice P.B. Sawant**. Some excerpts from the Guidelines:

1. **Accuracy and fairness**
   The press shall eschew publication of inaccurate, baseless, graceless, misleading or distorted material. All sides of the core issue or subject should be reported. Unjustified rumors and surmises should not be set forth as facts.
2. **Pre-publication verification**
   On receipt of a report or article of public interest and benefit containing imputations or comments against a citizen, the editor should check with due care and attention its factual accuracy - apart from other authentic sources

with the person or the organization concerned to elicit his / her or its version, comments or reaction and publish the same with due amendments in the report where necessary. In the event of lack or absence of response, a footnote to that effect should be appended to the report.

3. **Caution against defamatory   writings**
   A newspaper should not publish anything which is manifestly defamatory or libelous against any individual organization unless after due care and checking, they have sufficient reason to believe that it is true and its publication will be for public good.

4. No personal remarks, which may be considered or construed to be derogatory in nature against a dead person, should be published except in rare cases of public interest, as the dead person cannot possibly contradict or deny those remarks.

5. The press has a duty, discretion and right to serve the public interest by drawing reader's attention to citizens of doubtful antecedents and of questionable character but as responsible journalists they should observe due restraint and caution in hazarding their own opinion or conclusion in branding these persons as 'cheats' or 'killers' etc.

6. **Parameters of the right of the press to comment on the acts and conduct of public   officials**
   So far as the government, local authority and other organs / institutions exercising governmental power are concerned, they cannot maintain a suit for damages for acts and conduct relevant to the discharge of their official duties unless the official establishes that the publication was made with reckless disregard for the truth

7. Publication of news or comments / information on public officials conducting investigations should have a tendency to help the commission of offences or to impede the prevention or detection of offences or prosecution of the guilty. The investigative agency is also under a corresponding obligation not to leak out or disclose such information or indulge in disinformation.

8. Cartoons and caricatures in depicting good humor are to be placed in a special category of news that enjoy more liberal attitude.

9. **Right to privacy**
   The press shall not intrude or invade the privacy of an individual unless outweighed by genuine overriding public interest, not being a prurient or morbid curiosity. So, however, that once a matter becomes a matter of public record, the right to privacy no longer subsists and it becomes a legitimate subject for comment by press and media among others.

10. Caution against identification: While reporting crime involving rape, abduction or kidnap of women / females or sexual assault on children, or raising doubts and questions touching the chastity, personal character and privacy of women, the names, photographs of the victims or other particulars leading to their identity shall not be published.

11. **Recording interviews and phone conversation**
The press shall not tape-record anyone's conversation without that person's knowledge or consent, except where the recording is necessary to protect the journalist in a legal action, or for other compelling good reason.

12. The press shall, prior to publication, delete offensive epithets used by an interviewer in conversation with the pressperson.

13. Intrusion through photography into moments of personal grief shall be avoided. However, photography of victims of accidents or natural calamity may be in larger public interest.

14. **Conjecture, comment and fact**
A newspaper should not pass on or elevate conjecture, speculation or comment as a statement of fact. All these categories should be distinctly stated.

15. **Newspapers to eschew suggestive guilt**
Newspapers should eschew suggestive guilt by association. They should not name or identify the family or relatives or associates of a person convicted or accused of a crime, when they are totally innocent and a reference to them is not relevant to the matter reported.

16. **Corrections**
When any factual error or mistake is detected or confirmed, the newspaper should publish the correction promptly with due prominence and with apology or expression of regrets in a case of serious lapse.

17. **Right of reply**
The newspaper should promptly and with due prominence, publish either in full or with due editing, free of cost, at the instance of the person affected or feeling aggrieved / or concerned by the impugned publication, a contradiction / reply / clarification or rejoinder sent to the editor in the form of a letter or note. If the editor doubts the truth or factual accuracy of the contradiction / reply / clarification or rejoinder, he shall be at liberty to add separately at the end a brief editorial comment doubting its veracity, but only when this doubt is reasonably founded on unimpeachable documentary or other evidential material in his / her possession.

18. Freedom of the press involves the readers' right to know all sides of an issue of public interest. An editor, therefore, shall not refuse to publish the reply or rejoinder merely on the ground that in his opinion the story published in

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the newspaper was true. That is an issue to be left to the judgment of the readers.

19. **Letters to editor**

An editor who decides to open his columns for letters on a controversial subject, is not obliged to publish all the letters received in regard to that subject. He is entitled to select and publish only some of them either in entirety or the gist thereof. However, in exercising this discretion, he must make an honest endeavor to ensure that what is published is not one-sided but represents a fair balance between the views for and against with respect to the principal issue in controversy.

20. **Obscenity and vulgarity to be eschewed**

Newspapers / journalists shall not publish anything, which is obscene, vulgar or offensive to public good taste.

21. Newspapers shall not display advertisements which are vulgar or which, through depiction of a woman in nude or lewd posture, provoke lecherous attention of males as if she herself was a commercial commodity for sale.

22. Whether a picture is obscene or not, is to be judged in relation to three tests; namely

i is it vulgar and indecent?

ii Is it a piece of mere pornography?

iii Is its publication meant merely to make money by titillating the sex feelings of adolescents and among whom it is intended to circulate? In other words, does it constitute an unwholesome exploitation for commercial gain? That is to say, whether its publication serves any preponderating social or public purpose, in relation to art, painting, medicine, research or reform of sex.

23. **Violence not to be glorified**

Newspapers / journalists shall avoid presenting acts of violence, armed robberies and terrorist activities in a manner that glorifies the perpetrators' acts, declarations or death in the eyes of the public.

24. **Glorification / encouragement of social evils to be eschewed** Newspapers shall not allow their columns to be misused for writings which have a tendency to encourage or glorify social evils like *sati pratha*.

25. **Covering communal disputes /clashes**

News, views or comments relating to communal or religious disputes / clashes shall be published after proper verification of facts and presented with due caution and restraint in a manner which is conducive to the creation of an atmosphere congenial to communal harmony, amity and peace. Sensational, provocative and alarming headlines are to be avoided. Acts of communal violence or vandalism shall be reported in a manner as may not

undermine the people's confidence in the law and order machinery of the state.

26. **Headings not to be sensational / provocative and must justify the matter printed under them**

In general and particularly in the context of communal disputes or clashes - a. Provocative and sensational headlines are to be avoided; b. Headings must reflect and justify the matter printed under them; c. Headings containing allegations made in statements should either identify the body or the source making it or at least carry quotation marks.

27. **Caste, religion or community references**

In general, the caste identification of a person or a particular class should be avoided, particularly when in the context it conveys a sense or attributes a conduct or practice derogatory to that caste.

28. Newspapers are advised against the use of word 'scheduled caste' or 'harijan' which has been objected to by some persons.

29. An accused or a victim shall not be described by his caste or community when the same does not have anything to do with the offence or the crime and plays no part either in the identification of any accused or proceeding, if there be any.

30. Newspapers should not publish any fictional literature distorting and portraying religious characters in an adverse light, transgressing the norms of literary taste and offending the religious susceptibilities of large sections of society who hold those characters in high esteem, invested with attributes of the virtuous and lofty.

31. Commercial exploitation of the name of prophets, seers or deities is repugnant to journalistic ethics and good taste.

32. **Reporting on natural calamities**

Facts and data relating to spread of epidemics or natural calamities shall be checked up thoroughly from authentic sources and then published with due restraint in a manner bereft of sensationalism, exaggeration, surmises or unverified facts.

33. **Investigative journalism, its norms and parameters**

Investigative reporting has three basic elements. a. It has to be the work of the reporter, not of others he is reporting; b. The subject should be of public importance for the reader to know; c. An attempt is being made to hide the truth from the people.

a) That the investigative reporter should, as a rule, base his story on facts investigated, detected and verified by himself and not on hearsay or on derivative evidence collected by a third party, not checked up from direct, authentic sources by the reporter himself.

Imaginary facts, or ferreting out or conjecturing the non-existent should be scrupulously avoided. Facts, facts and yet more facts are vital and they should be checked and crosschecked whenever possible until the moment the paper goes to press. The newspaper must adopt strict standards of fairness and accuracy of facts. The reporter's approach should be fair, accurate and balanced

34. In all proceedings including the investigation, presentation and publication of the report, the investigative journalist's newspaper should be guided by the paramount principle of criminal jurisprudence, that a person is innocent unless the offence alleged against him is proved beyond doubt by independent, reliable evidence.

35. **Confidence to be respected**

If information is received from a confidential source, the confidence should be respected. The journalist cannot be compelled by the Press Council to disclose such source; but it shall not be regarded as a breach of journalistic ethics if the source is voluntarily disclosed in proceedings before the council by the journalist who considers it necessary to repel effectively a charge against him / her.

36. **Caution in criticizing judicial acts**

Excepting where the court sits 'in-camera' or directs otherwise, it is open to a newspaper to report pending judicial proceedings, in a fair, accurate and reasonable manner. But it shall not publish anything --which, in its direct and immediate effect, creates a substantial risk of obstructing, impeding or prejudicing seriously the due administration of justice; or -- is in the nature of a running commentary or debate, or records the paper's own findings, conjectures, reflection or comments on issues, sub judice and which may amount to arrogation to the newspaper the functions of the court; or -- regarding the personal character of the accused standing trial on a charge of committing a crime.

37. **Newspapers to avoid crass commercialism**

While newspapers are entitled to ensure, improve or strengthen their financial viability by all legitimate means, the press shall not engage in crass commercialism or unseemly cutthroat commercial competition with their rivals in a manner repugnant to high professional standards and good taste.

38. Predatory price wars / trade competition among newspapers, laced with tones disparaging the products of each other, initiated and carried on in print, assume the color of unfair 'trade' practice, repugnant to journalistic ethics. The question as when it assumes such an unethical character is one of the fact depending on the circumstances of each case.

39. **Plagiarism**

Using or passing off the writings or ideas of another as one's own, without crediting the source, is an offence against the ethics of journalism.

40. **Advertisements**

Commercial advertisements are information as much as social, economic or political information. What is more, advertisements shape attitude and ways of life at least as much as other kinds of information and comment. Journalistic propriety demands that advertisements must be clearly distinguishable from editorial matters carried in the newspaper.

41. A newspaper shall not publish anything, which has a tendency to malign wholesale or hurt the religious sentiments of any community or section of society.

42. Newspapers while publishing advertisements shall specify the amount received by them. The rationale behind this is that advertisements should be charged at rates usually chargeable by a newspaper since payment of more than the normal rates would amount to a subsidy to the paper.

43. Publications of dummy advertisements that have neither been paid for, nor authorized by the advertisers, constitute breach of journalistic ethics.

44. The editors should insist on their right to have the final say in the acceptance or rejection of advertisements, especially those which border on or cross the line between decency and obscenity.

45. An editor shall be responsible for all matters, including advertisements published in the newspaper. If responsibility is disclaimed, this shall be explicitly stated beforehand.

UNIT- 3. THE PSYCHOLOGY AND SOCIOLOGY OF MEDIA AUDIENCES

OBJECTIVES

- To understand the psychology of media audiences
- To know the different types of groups in audiences
- To study the importance of public opinion
- To learn two-step flow of information

3.1. INTRODUCTION

Media audience studies is the academic study of media audiences, connected with the academic disciplines of sociology, psychology and media studies. At the most basic level, audiences are vital in communication. It is for the audience that the media are constructing and conveying information, and, if it were not for the audiences, the media would not exist. The exact relationship between the media and their audiences has been the subject of debate since the media were first seriously studied and emphasizes the importance of the audience and of their relationship with the media.

Communication is an inter-disciplinary area of study taking within its compass the disciplines of political science, economics, literature, philosophy, psychology, sociology, linguistics and others. The growth of the press, cinema and radio was dramatic during the pre growth of the press, cinema and radio was dramatic during the pre-World War II years. It was therefore natural that some of the basic questions raised by political scientists, sociologist and psychologists at that time related to questions of attitudes, beliefs and behavior in the new context of media persuasiveness. Meanwhile, researchers such as Wilbur Schramm, Daniel Lerner, and others persisted in imposing their 'modernization' model of development using the mass media. The mass media grew from strength to strength and with breakthrough in electronics and telecommunications came to regulate the whole of society.

MEDIA AUDIENCES

The definition of a **'media audience'** depends on one's perspective of the role of communication in society. If for instance, we look upon communication as a commodity or as merchandise, and media as told for selling that commodity, a

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'media audience' for us would be no better than a potential market for products and services.

On the other hand, if we consider communication to be social good and a public service, a 'media audience' would be a participative and dialogic community, and the media as serving the educational, informational and cultural needs of the community. Further, if communication to us is a tool for persuasion and propaganda to promote certain political, religious or moral views, then a 'media audience' is 'the masses' that need to be indoctrinated.

A 'media audience' is unlike say an audience for a political meeting, a theatrical performance, a street performance, and a lecture. Sociologists like to define an audience as a 'conventionalized crowd' assembled together. A media audience, however, is more than a conventionalized crowd, but rather a collectivity, an aggregate of persons who are readers, listeners, and viewers of different media or their various components. However, this 'collectivity' is not collected together at one place or even at one time. Though in most cases, members of the audience are attending components of one medium or another at the same time, time-shift recording audio and video has made it possible to listen to radio or to watc h television at one's own convenience. Hence what makes a media audience a conventional group is the fact that they are attending to the same components. That audience has come together not in time and space) but in the common act of reading, listening or viewing.

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The composition of the group is predictable in some ways; unpredictable in others. So is the reception of the audience. The quality and nature of the response too is largely unknown. While it is true that a particular component or a medium has 'caused' the audience, the audience too has in a way 'caused' a medium, the influence has influenced the form and substance of the medium, its genres and its components.

Indeed, the various genres and components/programmes are part of, and have often been taken from the socio-cultural experience of the audience. Audiences therefore, 'read' the messages of the media in terms of that experience, they 'negotiate' its various meanings, accepting or rejecting or 're-reading' the open and the latent layers of meanings. Audiences generally do not interact with media messages as a 'mass' but rather as a family, a cultural group, a social class, and a caste or tribal group. The media, therefore, are not out there unrelated to their audiences, but an integral part of the social history and cultural values of the audience.

3.1.1 The Psychology of Audiences

3.1.2. Group by Group

A group is a collection of people who share some common characteristics, and who interact with one another. A social group is 'any number of persons who share a consciousness of membership and of interaction'. Thus we belong to social groups like the family, the community, the caste, the trade union, the professional associations, political parties, student bodies, graduates, teachers and the like. No man is an island; he is a member not of one group to another through one's long life and career. No matter how strong-willed an individual one is, the pressures of groups, shapes to a large extent one's attitudes, beliefs, values and opinions. Groups are a vital social reality from which there is little escape. They, much more than the mass media, are the agents of change as well as of resistance to change. Group-leaders or opinion leaders play an important role in the behavior of the group. It is only the rare individual who defies the group and sets off on his or her own no matter what the consequences. But then he or she goes on to become a member of some other group or groups.

3.1.3. Types of Groups

The group that is most intimate and close is known as the primary group. Such for instance are the family, the peer group or the gang. The three conditions that give rise to primary groups are:

1. A close physical proximity
2. The small size of the group, which makes for face-to-face association and co-operation
3. The lasting nature of the bond or a relationship like that between a husband, wife and children

The secondary or peer group, on the other hand, is characterized by a less close relationship between members. Although secondary groups sometimes provide pleasant human relationships, sociability is ordinarily not their goal. So, while primary groups are relationship oriented, secondary groups are goal-oriented and much less cohesive. Examples of secondary groups are: the college, the school, the various organizations and unions, the army, film and other entertainment societies, and clubs and political parties. Then there are castes, tribes, religious and linguistic communities, and regional groups. These groups, like the primary groups, exercise a strong influence on our thoughts and behavior even determining the prejudices with which we watch mass media programmes.

The influence of a group on the attitude of an individual is generally treated in terms of the concept of 'reference group'. A more specific concept than secondary group, it is a group that an individual takes as a frame of reference fro self-evaluation and attitude formation. Such a group has the function of setting and enforcing standards of conduct and belief. It also serves as a standard against which people compare themselves and others.

But our 'reference group' differs from situation to situation. For instance, when we watch a cricket test match our reference group is the nation we belong to, not usually the religious group we are members of. So also, for the middle-classes the reference group would be the upper class whose riches they aspire to. Consequently, reference groups are not necessarily the groups of which we are members, but rather the groups we long or wish to be members of. It is these groups that provide us the 'frame of reference' in terms of which we respond to communication. This is not to discount the role of primary and secondary groups in our understanding of and response to communication. The term 'interpretative communities' perhaps comes closest to describing the groups that shape and influence our reaction to the messages of the various media.

3.1.4. Mass Audience and their Nature

Exposure to media defines the mass audience. Whenever large numbers of people watch television or read a newspaper, we have the beginnings of an audience. Out of these encounters we create a commodity, we define the reach of media campaigns, or we craft a yardstick that measures the popularity of media offerings. Given the centrality of exposure, the principle concern of practitioners, and a good many theorists, is explaining, predicting, and/or controlling how and when people come into contact with the media. An important rationale for conceiving of the audience as a mass is to make it a more knowable thing. Many researchers have developed mathematical equations or models that allow us to predict audience behavior. These models, do not bind each person to a code of conduct. Rather, they are statements that, in the aggregate, behavior is so predictable as to exhibit these model-like tendencies. This tradition of statistical thinking pays scant attention to any single case.

Although many forms of media attract a mass audience, but the electronic media like Radio and television are the quintessential makers of the mass audience. They are the most pervasive, the most accessible to the public, and, in the view of many, and the most powerful of all media. For these reasons, contemporary research and theory on audiences is biased in the direction of electronic media, especially television.

A 'mass' audience is, thus, a very large audience that is the creation of the modern electronic mass media. It is the result of a new technology that is directed at mass production wide dissemination of communication. The exact size of audience or readership which gives rise to mass communication cannot be specified, but it must be large relative to audiences for other means of communication such as a lecture or play, and large in relation to the number of communicators.

McQuail writes, 'an aggregate of individuals united by a common focus of interest, engaging in an identical form of behavior and open to activation towards common ends, yet the individuals involved are unknown to each other, have only a restricted amount of interaction, do not orient their actions to each other and are only loosely organized or lacking in organization. The composition of the audience is continually shifting; it has no leadership or feelings of identity'.

Such 'very large national mass media audiences' exist in the countries of the developed world, but have yet to take shape in developing countries like India. What we do have, however, are 'local audiences' which are largely urban in

character, and which function as social groups, the small groups within the amorphous larger groups directly influencing the interactions with the mass media.

The 'local audiences' in India have a dynamic of their own. The pulls and pressures of the family, the caste, religion, community, language, and profession are much stronger that any power of the mass media to institute a new way of thinking or a new way of life, except perhaps at a superficial level.

The expectation of great persuasive power, says McQuail, from the new media has been largely misplaces. The fault lies partly in a failure to appreciate that the selection of communication content by whatever means disseminated, and its significance to the audience, with both the governed by existing mechanisms of social control, and partly in a tendency to regard the audience members as isolated and abstracted from his social environment. From the first of these stems a false assumption of discontinuity and novelty of content, and from the second a misleading conception of the vulnerability of the individual to mass persuasion.

The Public and the Public opinion

Public opinion **is the aggregate of individual attitudes or beliefs held by the adult population.**

Public opinion developed as a concept with the rise of a 'public' in the eighteenth century. The English term 'public opinion' dates from the eighteenth century and derives from the French '*l'opinion publique*'. This came about through urbanization and other political and social forces. It became important what people thought as forms of political contention change Public opinion is highly susceptible to elite manipulation.

Herbert Blumer, American sociologist, has proposed a somewhat different conception of the "public," as a form of collective behavior, which is made up of those who are discussing a given public issue at any one time. Given this definition, there are many publics; each of them comes into being when an issue arises and ceases to exist when the issue is resolved. Blumer claims that since people participate in a public to different degrees, public opinion polling cannot measure the public. The "mass," in which people independently make decisions about, for example, which brand of toothpaste to buy, is a form of collective behavior different from the public.

Public opinion can be influenced by public relations and the political media. Additionally, mass media utilizes a wide variety of advertising techniques to get their message out and change the minds of people. A continuously used technique is propaganda. The tide of public opinion becomes more and more crucial during political elections, most importantly elections determining the national executive.

A public is a dispersed group of people interested in and divided about an issue, with a view-to- registering a collective opinion, which is expected to affect the course of action of some group or individual. A public is not one composite group, but a number of interest groups, often working at odds with one another. The large majority of the groups are indifferent, disinterested and detached unless the issue at stake radically affects their way of life. The small groups, therefore, aim at promoting their own causes by mobilizing the public in their favor. The better organized they are, the greater is the pressure they bring to bear on the public, and on the 'public opinion'.

Since public opinion is always shifting, inconsistent and often contradictory, it is said that, 'generally, public opinion is likely to be a bundle of disparate, often conflicting opinions rather that a unanimous judgment offered by the body of citizens for the guidance of the government. Only on rare occasions will it appear as the voice of the people, either because the issue is of transparent simplicity and cuts across sectional interests, or because it touches certain deep-seated emotions of a large majority of the people affected by it.' For example, public opinion in India favored the government's support of liberation struggle of Bangladesh, but opposed the clamping of the 'emergency'.

3.2. The Two Step Flow of Information

The mass media play an important role in the formation of public opinion on various issues. However, the opinion leaders of groups invariably mediate the messages conveyed by the media. As Katz and Lazarsfeld put it, **'ideas seem to flow from radio and print to opinion leaders and from them to the less active sections of the population'**. Village level workers or the *Panchayat* leaders are the opinion leaders in rural areas, and heads of committees and associations, the opinion leaders in the urban areas. It is they who interpret the messages of the media for their groups.

But opinion leaders are usually leaders in one content area, and not in another. For example, in the matter of adopting new agricultural techniques the village level workers may be the leader, while in political affairs, the *Panchayat* head may be the opinion leader. It needs to be noted, that the 'two-step flow' of information does not ensure that the required information reaches the people most in need. Opinion leaders are very selective in the kind of information they pass down to peasants and workers. Indeed, mass media use a group activity involving family, friends and the local community-not an isolated, individual activity.

3.2.1. Mass media and Public opinion

The **mass media** plays a crucial role in forming and reflecting **public opinion**: it communicates the world to individuals, and it reproduces modern society's self-image. Critiques in the early-to-mid twentieth century suggested that the media destroys the individual's capacity to act autonomously - sometimes being ascribed an influence reminiscent of the tele-screens of the dystopian novel *1984*. Later empirical studies, however, suggest a more complex interaction between the media and society, with individuals actively interpreting and evaluating the media and the information it provides. In the twenty-first century, with the rise of the internet, the

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two-way relationship between mass media and public opinion is beginning to change, with the advent of new technologies such as **blogging**.

The way we see and hear and interpret programmes depends upon the culture, language, religion, caste and other groups we are members of, which provide us the frame of reference for interacting with the mass media. Thus public opinion is formed only indirectly by the mass media, and by information from other sources like rumors, street propaganda and our own interests. Also, it must be noted that mass media are not always engaged in attempts to mould public opinion, but more often than not, in trying to meet public needs and /or to sell consumer goods and services. For commercial broadcasters, the primary aim is to 'deliver' audiences to advertisers.

A strong public opinion does shape the character of the mass media for better or for worse. It is the responsibility of the public to see that the pressures brought to bear on the media are for the better. An indifferent, undiscriminating public will get what it deserves-reporting and programming of indifferent quality.

3.3. Agenda Setting

The hypothesis of this socialization and learning theory is that 'the mass media by paying attention to some issues and overlooking others will affect public opinion, people will tend to know about those things dealt with by the mass media and adopt the order of priority set by media'. Malcolm McCombe and Donald Shaw coined the term 'agenda setting' in 1976. They went on to argue that 'audiences not only learn about public issues and other matters through the media, they also learn how much importance to attach to an issue or topic from the emphasis the mass media places upon it'.

It is true that the media prioritize the news in terms of headlines and placement of stories. But it is equally true that people pay greater attention to stories of personal interest to them and their groups. Indeed, it would be true to say that the media more often than not 'reflect' rather than 'set' the agenda. Individuals, groups, institutions, political parties and governments-all have their own agenda, and they lobby hard to set the media's agenda through press conferences, press releases, press visits, sponsorships, advertisements, gifts and other means.

The major sources of news for the media are influential elites of society, and they usually set the agenda for what the media highlights and underplay. It must be conceded, that there are sections of the media which play a marvelous 'watchdog'

role, truth to sell, there are other sections that play the 'lapdog' role with no concern at all for their audience's information needs.

Theories Relating to Media Audience

The key ideas about media audiences that you should remember are these:
- The media are often experienced by people alone.
- Wherever they are in the world, the audience for a media text is all receiving exactly the same thing.

As you will see from what follows, both of these ideas have been questioned. These points led some early critics of the media to come up with the idea of media audiences as masses. According to many theorists, particularly in the early history of the subject, when we listen to our CDs or sit in the cinema, we become part of a mass audience in many ways like a crowd at a football match or a rock concert but at the same time very different because separated from all the other members of this mass by space and sometimes time.

If you look at the early history of the media, it is fairly easy to see where the idea of a mass audience came from. Within less than a hundred years photography, Film, radio and television were all invented. Each one of them allowed works of art or pieces of entertainment that might once have been restricted to the number of people who could fit into an art gallery or a theatre to be transmitted in exactly the same form to enormous numbers of people in different parts of the world. It can be very easy, living in this media saturated world to forget how strange this might once have seemed. These media quickly became extremely popular and at the same time there was an important difference between them and older forms of entertainment. Whereas in the past, many forms of entertainment were only available to those who could afford them, now suddenly films and radio particularly were available to all. Early media theorists struggled to understand this and found it easiest to compare the media audiences with the kinds of crowds they were used to from the world before the media- they came up with the ideas of the mass audience.

Key Theory 1
There have been a number of theories over the years about how exactly the media work on the mass audience. Perhaps the most simple to understand is the **hypodermic needle** theory. This has been very popular down the years with many people who fear the effects of the media.

According to the theory the media is like a syringe which injects ideas, attitudes and beliefs into the audience who as a powerless mass have little choice but to be influenced- in other words, you watch something violent, you may go and do something violent.

This theory has been particularly popular when people have been considering violence in films. There have been films such as *Straw Dogs* and *The Evil Dead* which have been banned partly because of a belief that they might encourage people to copy the crimes within them but on the other hand no-one has ever really claimed that every-one will be affected by these texts in the same way. Many people have therefore seen the theory as simplistic because it doesn't take any account of people's individuality and yet it is still very popular in society particularly for politicians looking for reasons why society has become more violent which can't be blamed on them.

Key Theory 2
Because of the difficulty of proving the effects of individual media texts on their audience a more refined version of the theory has been created called the **culmination mode**. According to this, while any one media text does not have too much effect, years and years of watching more violence will make you less sensitive to violence, years and years of watching women being mistreated in soaps will make you less bothered about it   in real life.

One difficulty with both of these ways of looking at the media is that they are very difficult to prove either way. Many people have a general sense that the media do affect our behavior and advertisers certainly justify their fees by working on this assumption, but it can be extraordinarily difficult to actually prove how much effect if any a text might have on an audience. In fact researchers have spent enormous amounts of time and effort trying to prove the validity of the culmination theory with no success- this of course does not mean that there is no truth in it as an idea.

Some critics of these kinds of theory have argued that the problem is not just with the idea that the media has such obvious effects, but about the assumptions that mass audience theory makes about the members of the audience. Critics of the idea often claim that it is elitist- in other words that it suggests a value judgment about these masses- that they are easily led and not so perceptive and self- aware as the theorists who are analyzing them.

Key Theory 3

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A theory that springs from this idea is called **the two step flow**. The idea of this is that whatever our experience of the media we will be likely to discuss it with others and if we respect their opinion, the chances are that we will be more likely to be affected by it. The theory calls these people opinion leaders.

The second major idea of the mass audience theory was that the mass were all watching the same text. This suggests that a single film will be the same for every person who watches it. We are all individuals with different views and opinions. Our interpretation of a media text is influenced by our individual world view. In other words one viewer might interpret *Fatal Attraction* as being a sexist film but others have a perfect right to argue an opposite case- they could experience the same text in very different ways.

Key Theory 4

This is probably the most important theory for you to know. According **to uses and gratification theory,** we all have different uses for the media and we make choices over what we want to watch. In other words, when we encounter a media text, it is not just some kind of mindless entertainment- we are expecting to get something from it: some kind of gratification.

But what does this actually mean? What kinds of gratification can we be getting? Researchers have found quite a few, but there are four main ones:

1. *Information*- we want to find out about society and the world- we want to satisfy our curiosity. This would fit the news and documentaries which both give us a sense that we are learning about the world.
2. *Personal Identity*- we may watch the television in order to look for models for our behavior. So, for example, we may identify with characters that we see in a soap. The characters help us to decide what feel about ourselves and if we agree with their actions and they succeed we feel better about ourselves- think of the warm feeling you get when you favourite character triumphs at the end of a programme.
3. *Integration and Social Interaction*- we use the media in order to find out more about the circumstances of other people. Watching a show helps us to empathize and sympathize with the lives of others so that we may even end up thinking of the characters in programme as friends even though we might feel a bit sad admitting it! At the same time television may help us to get on with our real friends as we are able to talk about the media with them.
4. *Entertainment*- sometimes we simply use the media for enjoyment, relaxation or just to fill time.

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You can probably recognize yourself in some of these descriptions and not surprisingly uses and gratification theory has become quite popular amongst media critics. It is important to remember with this theory that it is likely that with any media text you enjoy, you will be getting a number of Gratifications from it and not just one.

However, despite this popularity amongst critics, there have also been criticisms made of some features of the theory. First of all, it ignores the fact that we do not always have complete choice as to what we receive from the media. Think, for example, about your family who may end up having to listen to the same music as you sometimes. Similarly, you don't have that much choice about the posters that you see on your way to college however objectionable you may find some of them.

One of the difficulties of assessing uses and gratifications like this is that people won't often be aware of the real uses of a text in their lives- how many people would admit for example that they watched a certain program because they were lonely even if that were the truth.

Key Theory 5
In a sense, this is an extension of uses and gratifications theory. Once you have come up with the idea that people are using the media in different ways, it is just one stage on to actually look in more detail at how this happens. **Reception analysis** does this and it concentrates on the audience themselves and how they come to a text.

The most important thing about this that you should bear in mind is that reception analysis is based on the idea that no text has one simple meaning. Instead, reception analysis suggests that the audience themselves help to create the meaning of the text. We all decode the texts that we encounter in individual ways which may be a result of our upbringing, the mood that we are in, the place where we are at the time or in fact any combination of these and all kinds of other factors. So viewer 1 may watch a television programme and enjoy every minute of it and viewer 2 may hate the same show. But of course, it goes way beyond just how much we enjoy the text. We will actually create a different meaning for it as well. Reception analysis is all about trying to look at these kinds of differences and to understand them. What reception analysts have found is that factors such as a gender, our place inside society, and the context of the time we are living in can be enormously important when we make the meaning or a   text.

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UNIT4. MODELS OF MASS COMMUNICATION

OBJECTIVES

- To understand the psychology of media audiences
- To know the different types of groups in audiences
- To study the importance of public opinion
- To learn two-step flow of information

INTRODUCTION

To communicate effectively, knowledge of the dynamics underlying the communication process is essential. One way to analyze communication is to present it in the form of a 'model'. A model is nothing but the mechanistic perspective of human communication that effectively tells at a glance how it works.

Several theorists have discussed the communication process in ways that have important implications for those involved in informal education programs such as extension work. Each of the "models" that we review has a point of vital interest. Communication models come in a variety of forms, ranging from catchy summations to diagrams to mathematical formulas.

A model is an abstracted representation of a reality. A good model comes as close to reality as possible and it discusses and explains the reality as clearly as possible. But being an abstraction, a model is not a reality; it only represents the reality of communication for better understanding of the communication process. For example, an architectural model of a house is only a representation of the house giving a fair idea of the number of rooms, layout, etc. but it is not the house 'per se'. Thus a model is a pictorial presentation to show the structure of communication process in which various component elements are linked. Arrows are used to depict the transmission of messages from communicators to receiver.

Models are based on assumption that theorists make as to how communication functions and what affect it has upon individual and society. A variety of models exists all of which strive to explain the different components of communication and the role each plays in the total process.

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4.1. Katz and Lazar field's two-step model

History and Orientation

Paul Lazarsfeld, Bernard Berelson, and Hazel Gaudet in The People's Choice, a 1944 study focused on the process of decision-making during a Presidential election campaign, first introduced the two-step flow of communication hypothesis. These researchers expected to find empirical support for the direct influence of media messages on voting intentions. They were surprised to discover, however, that informal, personal contacts were mentioned far more frequently than exposure to radio or newspaper as sources of influence on voting behavior. Armed with this data, Katz and Lazarsfeld developed the two-step flow theory of mass communication.

Core Assumptions and Statements

This theory asserts that information from the media moves in two distinct stages. First, individuals opinion leaders who pay close attention to the mass media and its messages receive the information. Opinion leaders pass on their own interpretations in addition to the actual media content. The term 'personal influence' was coined to refer to the process intervening between the media's direct message and the audience's ultimate reaction to that message. Opinion leaders are quite influential in getting people to change their attitudes and behaviors and are quite similar to those they influence.

The two-step flow theory has improved our understanding of how the mass media influence decision-making. The theory refined the ability to predict the influence of media messages on audience behavior, and it helped explain why certain media campaigns may have failed to alter audience attitudes and behavior. The two-step flow theory gave way to the multi-step flow theory of mass communication or diffusion of innovation theory.

Conceptual Model
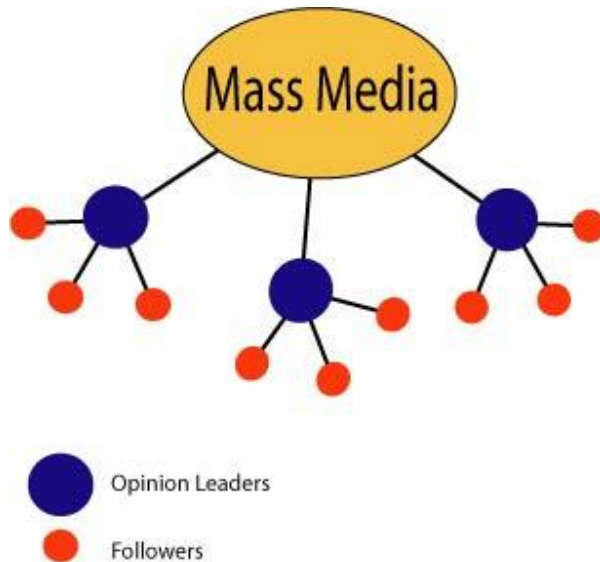
Source: Katz & Lazarsfeld (1955)

Development of the Two-step Flow of Communication theory

As with most theories now applied to Advertising, the Two-step flow of Mass communication was first identified in a field somewhat removed from communications-sociology. In 1948, Paul Lazarsfeld, Bernard Berelson, and Hazel Gaudet published *The People's Choice*, a paper analyzing the voter's decision-making processes during a 1940 presidential election campaign. The study revealed evidence suggesting that the flow of mass communication is less direct than previously supposed. Although the ability of mass media to reach a large audience, and in this case persuade individuals in one direction or another, had been a topic of much research since the 1920's, it was not until the *People's Choice* was published that society really began to understand the dynamics of the media-audience relationship. The study suggested that communication from the mass media first reaches "opinion leaders" who filter the information they gather to their associates, with whom they are influential.

Previous theories assumed that media directly reached the target of the information. For the theorists, the opinion leader theory proved an interesting discovery considering the relationship between media and its target was not the focus of the research, but instead a small aspect of the study.

Lazarsfeld suggested "ideas often flow from radio and print to the opinion leaders and from them to the less active sections of the population." People tend to be much more affected in their decision making process by face-to-face encounters with influential peers than by the mass media. The studies by Lazarsfeld and his associates sparked interest in the exact qualities and characteristics that define the opinion leader. Is an opinion leader influential in all cases, on all topics? Or is the influence of an opinion leader constrained to certain topics? How does an opinion leader come to be influential?

The Opinion Leaders

Who are they? How have they come to be defined?

A study by Robert Merton revealed that opinion leadership is not a general characteristic of a person, but rather limited to specific issues. Individuals, who act as opinion leaders on one issue, may not be considered influential in regard to other issues. A later study directed by Lazarsfeld and Katz further investigated the characteristics of opinion leaders. This study confirmed the earlier assertions that personal influence seems more important in decision making than media. Again, influential individuals seem constrained in their opinion leading to particular topics, non-overlapping among the individuals. The opinion leaders seem evenly distributed between the social, economical, and educational levels within their community, but very similar in these areas to those with whom they had influence.
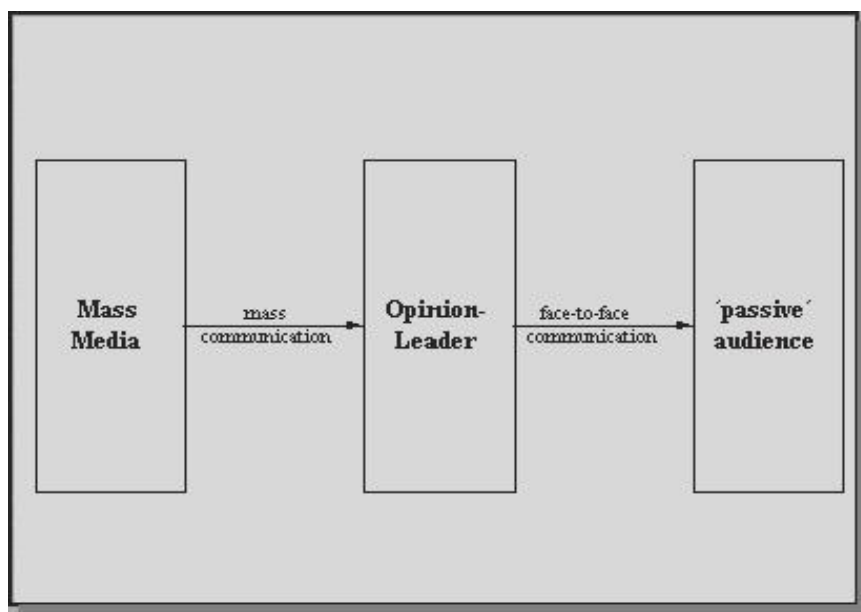
Lazarsfeld did not identify any particular traits amongst opinion leaders that stand out. The traits that characterize each of the opinion leaders in their niche did have things in common, though. For one thing, the opinion leaders were identified as having the strongest interest in their particular niche. They hold positions within their community affording them special competence in their particular niches. Finally, they had/have contact with relevant information supplied from outside their immediate circle. Interestingly enough, Katz and Lazarsfeld observed that the opinion leaders receive a disproportionate amount of their external information from media appropriate to their niche.

Other Studies determined that opinion leaders act "as a source of social pressure toward a particular choice and as a source of social support to reinforce that choice once it has been made. The opinion leaders often develop leadership positions in their social circles. They achieve these positions based on their knowledge of situations outside their circles.

4.2. Ball – Rockreach and DeFleur's Dependency model

History and Orientation

Dependency model was originally proposed by Sandra Ball-Rokreach and Melvin DeFleur 1976. The model of this theory merged ou t of the communication discipline.

Dependency theory integrates several perspectives: first, it combines perspectives from psychology; second, it integrates systems perspectives with elements from more causal approaches. Third, it combines elements of uses and gratifications research with those of media effects. Its primary focus is less on effects and more on why media effects typically are limited. Finally, a conceptualist philosophy is incorporated into the theory, which also features traditional concerns with the content of media messages and their effects on audiences.

Core Assumptions and Statements

This theory states that the more dependent an individual is on the media for having his or her needs fulfilled, the more important the media will be to that person.

Dependency theory proposes an integral relationship among audiences, media and the larger social system. This theory predicts that you depend on media information to meet certain needs and achieve certain goals, like uses-and-

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gratifications theory. But you do not depend on all media equally. Two factors influence the degree of media dependence. First, you will become more dependent on media that meet a number of your needs than on media that provide just a few. The second source of dependency is social stability. When social change and conflict are high, established institutions, beliefs, and practices are challenged, forcing you to reevaluate and make new choices. At such times your reliance on the media for information will increase. At other, more stable times your dependency on media may go way down.

One's needs are not always strictly personal but may be shaped by the culture or by various social conditions. In other words, individuals' needs, motives, and uses of media are contingent on outside factors that may not be in the individuals' control. These outside factors act as constraints on what and how media can be used and on the availability of other non-media alternatives. Furthermore, the more alternatives and individual had for gratifying needs, the less dependent he or she will become on any single medium. The number of functional alternatives, however, is not just a matter of individual choice or even of psychological traits but is limited also by factors such as availability of certain media.

Conceptual Model
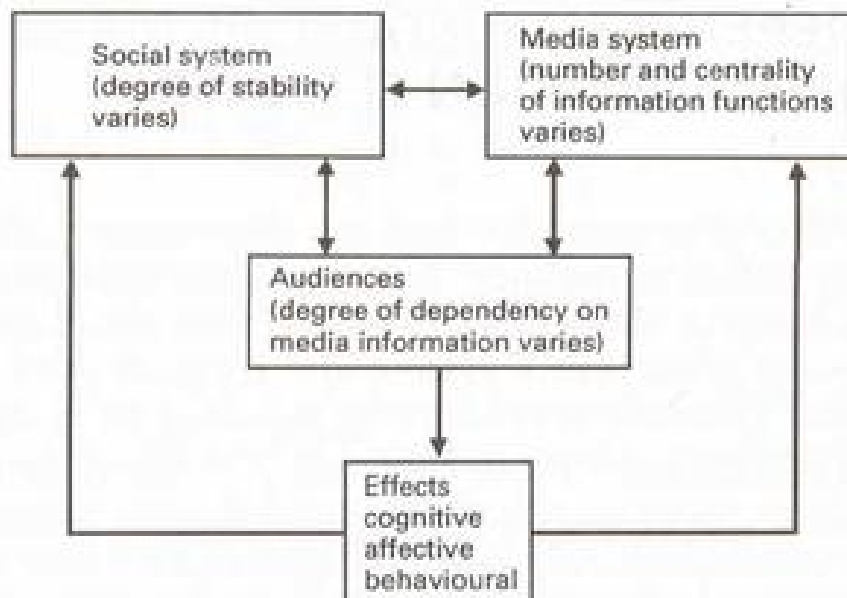
This model is the general idea of the dependency theory.

Explanation

This theory states that the more dependent an individual is on the media for having his or her needs fulfilled, the more important the media will be to that person.

This theory is based on the Uses and Gratifications Theory and ties into the Agenda Setting Theory. Uses and Gratifications identify how people use and become dependent upon the media. People use the media for many reasons. Information, entertainment, and para-social relationships are just a few of them. The Dependency Theory says the more a person becomes dependent on the media to fulfill these needs, the media will become more important to that individual. The media will also have much more influence and power over that individual. If someone is so dependent on the media for information, and the media is that person's only source for information, then it is easy to set the agenda. The individual will fall victim to Agenda Setting.

Critique:

Media Dependency Theory predicts a correlation between media dependence and importance and influence of the media, but each person uses the media in different ways. Also, the media affects each person in different ways. It has explanatory power, but more of predictive power because it predicts how dependency on the media correlates with importance of the media to a certain person. So we can say that media dependency model is:

- Relatively simple to understand.
- It has explanatory power, but more of predictive power because it predicts how dependency on the media correlates with importance of the media to a certain person.
- It can be proven false. If a person is not dependent on the media, media will not be of great importance to that individual.
- It is internally consistent, with meta-theoretical assumptions on the same side.
- It is a springboard to further research, especially so, since it came from other theories.
- It helps to organize and relate other media effect theories.

4.3. Model of Agenda setting and effects

"Here may lie the most important effect of mass communication, its ability to mentally order and organize our world for us. In short, the mass media may not be successful in telling us what to think, but they are stunningly successful in telling us what to   think about."—Shaw & McCombs, 1977

Agenda setting is a type of public opinion research focused, not on persuasion and attitude change, but on the salience or prominence) of issues on the agendas of media, public or policy-makers. McCombs & Shaw's agenda-setting hypothesis 1972 contends that the mass media's pervasiveness, along with the passivity of audiences, lends it a tremendous power to shape opinion; also, that the media's agenda is disproportionate to objective measures, or real-world indicators, of various social problems.

History and Orientation

Agenda setting describes a very powerful influence of the media – the ability to tell us what issues are important. As far back as 1922, the newspaper columnist Walter Lippman was concerned that the media had the power to present images to the public. McCombs and Shaw investigated presidential campaigns in 1968, 1972 and 1976. In the research done in they focused on two elements: awareness and information. Investigating the agenda-setting function of the mass media, they attempted to assess the relationship between what voters in one community said were important issues and the actual content of the media messages used during the campaign. McCombs and Shaw concluded that the mass media exerted a significant influence on what voters considered to be the major issues of the campaign.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Agenda setting is the creation of public awareness and concern of salient issues by the news media. Two basis assumptions underlie most research on agenda-setting: 1 the press and the media do not reflect reality; they filter and shape it; 2 media concentration on a few issues and subjects leads the public to perceive those issues as more important than other issues.

One of the most critical aspects in the concept of an agenda-setting role of mass communication is the time frame for this phenomenon. In addition, different media have different agenda-setting potential. Agenda-setting theory seems quite

appropriate to help us understand the pervasive role of the media for example on political communication systems.

Bernard Cohen 1963 stated: "The press may not be successful much of the time in telling people what to think, but it is stunningly successful in telling its readers what to think about."

Conceptual Model
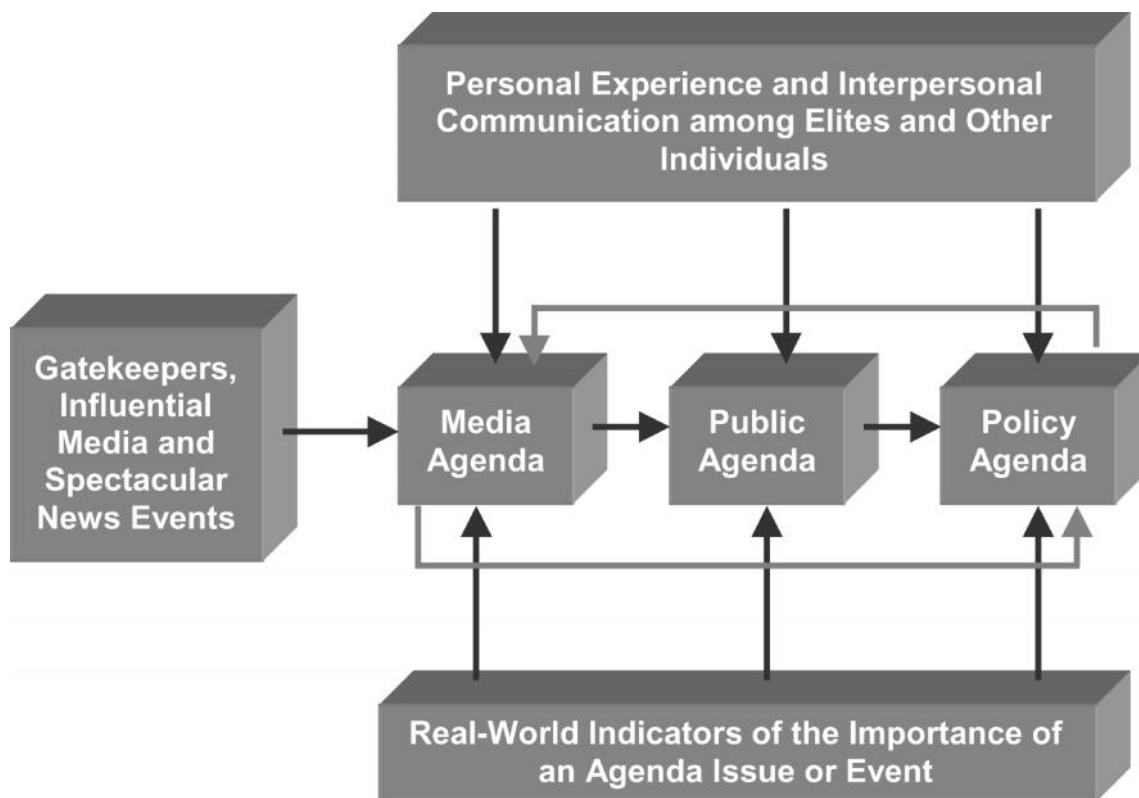
According to the **agenda-setting theory**, mass media set the agenda for public opinion by highlighting certain issues. Studying the way political campaigns were covered in the media, Shaw and McCombs found the main effect of news media to be agenda-setting, telling people not what to think, but what to think about. Agenda setting is usually referred to as a function of mass media and not a theory. The theory explains the correspondence between the rate at which media cover a story and the extent that people think that this story is important. This correspondence has repeatedly been shown to occur.

Agenda-setting is believed to occur because the press must be selective in reporting the news. News outlets act as *gatekeepers* of information and make choices about what to report and what not. What the public know and care at any given time is mostly a product of media-gate keeping.

Mass Communication Agenda Theory through Powerful Effects Models

Early mass media research about the setting of a mediated agenda focused on where the agenda was coming from and how it was formed. Concurrently, Lazarsfeld and Merton 1948 suggested the media was controlled by big business and powerful organizations, with the implication that these businesses and organizations actually set the agenda for the media. The Hutchins Report coupled with Lazarsfeld and Merton seem to suggest that early mass media agenda research centered around who has the power to set the agenda and what does that power mean.

The attempts to find answers to these questions formulated the "middle" of mass communication agenda theory formation. Katz and Lazarsfeld 1955 introduced the two-step flow model of communication during this period of time. They postulated that issues were first brought up by the mass media and then opinion leaders in society took in these messages and disseminated the information directly to the publics.

Katz and Lazarsfeld, and several other theorists, believed that the media held a great deal of power over the public and that by the mass media creating an agenda the public would follow it without question. This seemed to be a starting point for the vague beginning of questions concerning mass media and the public. However, Katz and Lazarsfeld seem focused on a theory of media dominance over the public.

The period of the strong effects models of mass mediated agendas was short lived. Klapper 1960 succinctly analyzed that in several studies by Lazarsfeld and Stanton a strong media effects model did not work because the public was not as simpleminded as they first theorized. In these studies it was found that interpersonal relationships, personal experience, and other issues mediated the reception of the mass media agenda.

4.4. Model of Gate-keeping by White, Gatung and Rouge

This model is based on the assumption that messages in mass communication pass through different checkpoints called 'gatekeeper' before they are actually received by audience. The 'gatekeeper' concept is essentially a term applied to in mass media and is often associated with the news. Gate keeping means that the information has to flow along certain channels, which contain gatekeepers who will permit the information to flow or stop.

The process of decision-making depends upon the policies, likes, and dislikes of the organization. It decides whether the information will be allowed to enter and continue in the channel. The audience, therefore, receives the reporter's and editor's version of the day's event and not necessarily what may be the reality. Thus, interposed between the sender and the audience are the editors whether in print journalism, TV or radio who as gatekeepers, determine what the public reads, listens to or watches. Therefore, the audience's exposure to an event's reality is in the gatekeeper's hands.

This model is quite realistic in the modern media scenario, particularly the news media. The only drawback being that it applies only on the mass media and fails to take account of the relationship between the mass media and the other systems through which we fit into society like family, work, friendships, school, church, trade unions and all other formal and informal networks of relationship. Normally, one is not as dependent upon the media as this model implies.

Gate keeping Model
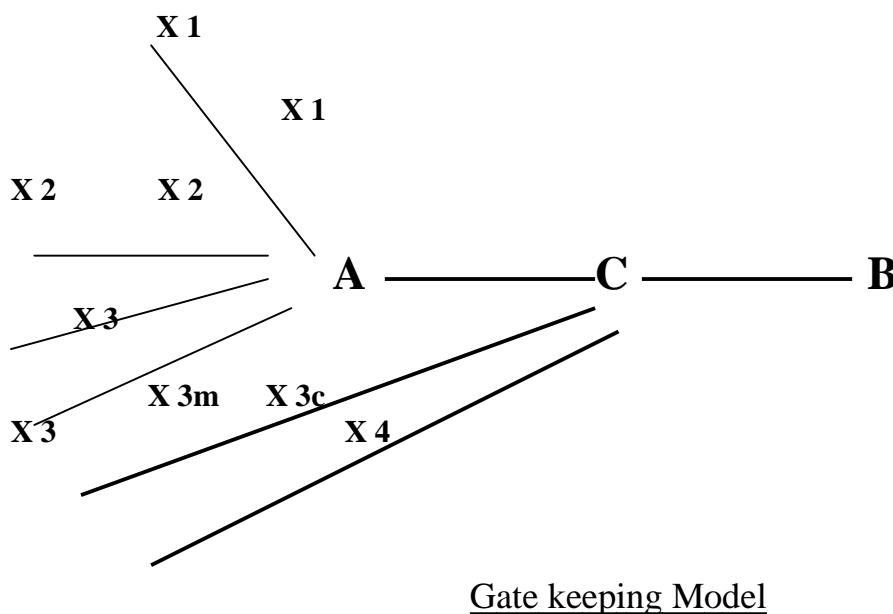
A here, is sender who receives messages from many sources X1, X2, X3, X4,…X and according to his perception of event writes a report and sends it to gatekeeper **C** who performs the editorial-communicating function; that is the process of deciding what and how to communicate. **C**, therefore, keeping the specific audience in mind, may emphasize or deemphasize a certain point in the message to strike a balance and then sends it to the audience **B**.

History and Orientation

Kurt Lewin was apparently the first one to use the term "gate keeping," which he used to describe a wife or mother as the person who decides which foods end up on the family's dinner table. The gatekeeper is the person who decides what shall pass through each gate section, of which, in any process, there are several. Although he applied it originally to the food chain, he then added that the gating process could include a news item winding through communication channels in a group. This is the point from which most gatekeeper studies in communication are launched. **White 1961** was the person who seized upon Lewin's comments and turned it solidly toward journalism in 1950.

In the 1970s McCombs and Shaw took a different direction when they looked at the effects of gatekeepers' decisions. They found the audience learns how much importance to attach to a news item from the emphasis the media place on it. McCombs and Shaw pointed out that the gate-keeping concept is related to the newer concept, agenda-setting. The gatekeeper concept is now 50 years old and has slipped into the language of many disciplines, including gate keeping in organizations.

Core Assumptions and Statements

The gatekeeper decides which information will go forward, and which will not. In other words a gatekeeper in a social system decides which of a certain commodity – materials, goods, and information – may enter the system. Important to realize is that gatekeepers are able to control the public's knowledge of the actual events by letting some stories pass through the system but keeping others out. Gatekeepers can also be seen as institutions or organizations.
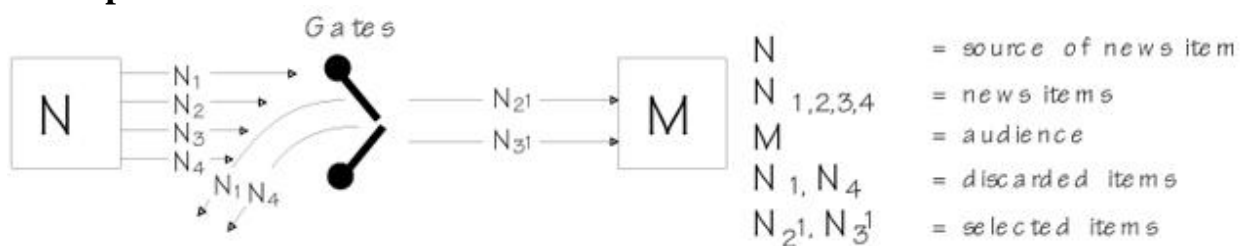
In a political system there are gatekeepers, individuals or institutions, which control access to positions of power and regulate the flow of information and

political influence. Gatekeepers exist in many jobs, and their choices hold the potential to color mental pictures that are subsequently created in people's understanding of what is happening in the world around them. Media gate keeping showed that decision-making is based on principles of news values, organizational routines, input structure and common sense. Gate keeping is vital in communication planning and almost all communication-planning roles include some aspect of gate keeping.

The gatekeeper's choices are a complex web of influences, preferences, motives and common values. Gate keeping is inevitable and in some circumstances it can be useful. Gate keeping can also be dangerous, since it can lead to an abuse of power by deciding what information to discard and what to let pass. Nevertheless, gate keeping is often a routine, guided by some set of standard questions.

Conceptual Model

N	= source of news item
$N_{1,2,3,4}$	= news items
M	= audience
N_1, N_4	= discarded items
N_2', N_3'	= selected items

Source: White 1964

Favorite Methods

Interviews, surveys, network analysis.

Scope and Application

This theory is related to the mass media and organizations. In the mass media the focus is on the organizational structure of newsrooms and events. Gate keeping is also an important in organizations, since employees and management are using ways of influence.

UNIT 5. ISSUES IN COMMUNICATION

OBJECTIVES

- To understand the various issues in communication
- To know the significance of Media Imperialism
- To study the importance of New world of communication by McBridge
- To get an idea of Democratization communication and culture.

MEDIA ISSUES

5.1. New World of communication order recommended by Mcbride

During the 1970s, the growth of transnational corporations and international telecommunications led to the increasing influence on the world's media by Western mostly US) businesses, the predominance of Western cultural products and news perspectives, and a growing commercialization of both the economics and messages of mass media. **The governments of many developing nations saw this globalization as a threat to their political, economic, and cultural sovereignty**. Government representatives in the **Non Aligned Movement and UNESCO** drafted statements calling for a New World Information and Communication Order NWICO. The main   thrust was a call for greater **'freedom of opinion, expression and information'** and that 'access by the public to information should be guaranteed by the diversity of the sources and means of information available to it, thus enabling each individual to check the accuracy of facts and to appraise events objectively.' It also stated that it was **'necessary to correct the inequalities in the flow of information to and from developing countries.'**

In 1980, Nobel Peace Prize winner**, Sean McBride** assembled a group that issued what was called the **McBride Report**. It, too, criticized the growing commercialization of the media and its increasing control by powerful elites. But McBride also emphasized that governments of developing countries needed to take an active role in developing an internal communications infrastructure.

At the same time, the Report urged that national communications policies should be developed through a process of 'broad public participation' aimed at increasing local empowerment and enhancing democratic rights. McBride also understood

that success would require technology advance and he specifically encouraged the use of low powered radio as a counter to imported mass media.

The call for a NWICO was supported by an awkward coalition of Non Aligned governments, independent activists, and the Soviet bloc which correctly saw its critique of Western-based transnational corporations as an attempt to reduce US influence around the   world.

In the US, with the Cold War still raging, and with conservatives increasingly pushing to ignore multi-national forums such as the UN and UNESCO in favor of US -dominated bilateral agreements, the US attacked NWICO as a threat to freedom. Equating freedom with the private pursuit of profit in an open market, the **US stated that government ownership of media would lead to 'censorship and control of information flow.**' It threatened to, and then did, withdraw from UNESCO in protest.

In fact, many Third World governments did exercise monopoly control over their national communication systems. They justified this by the poverty of their countries, which made government one of the few entities with the capital needed to create national systems, and by the vital role of communications in the difficult task of creating unified nations out of the ruins of colonialism. Furthermore, state ownership of telecommunications often provided a desperately needed source of revenue.

 On the other hand, many governments used their monopoly status as a lever for corruption and patronage. Worse, state controlled media were often little more than propaganda arms of the ruling elite in its effort to protect its privileges and prevent democratic upsurge. **In these situations, privatization of the media was legitimately seen as a strategy for diversity of perspectives, more engaging content, and democratic influence**.

Still, the US outrage was highly hypocritical. Behind the liberal rhetoric was the reality that its basic thrust was to move control of the developing world's media from local elites to transnational boards of directors, while opening the floodgates to Western content and programming. Nonetheless, **the US attack intimidated the UN**. By the end of the 1980s, **the UN withdrew all official support for the NWICO** which seemed to be buried al ong with the Soviet Bloc and the Non Aligned Movement by the US -led, post-Cold War, **'New World Order'** that the Persian Gulf War was supposed to have inaugurated in 1990.

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Birth of the PCC

Now operating on their own, democratic activists and progressive media professionals began to slowly regroup. Several additional **McBride Roundtables** were held and issued statements. The World Association for Christian Communication WACC) organized several gatherings in southern nations, which also issued statements. The Centre for Communication and Human Rights The Netherlands, the Third World Network Malaysia), and the AMARC World Association of Community Radio Broadcasters Peru/Canada) developed a document, called **The People's Communication Charter PCC.** In March of 1996 an international gathering in St. Louis, Missouri, founded the Cultural Environment Movement CEM) and adopted the **PCC** as its platform.

The PCC has subsequently been endorsed by several dozen additional organizations in the USA and abroad. The preamble to the PCC reads:

1.Communication is basic to the life of all individuals and their communities.

2. All people are entitled to participate in communication, and in making decisions about communication within and between societies.

3. The majority of the world's peoples lack minimal technological resources for survival and communication. Over half of them have not yet made a single telephone call.

4. Commercialization of media and concentration of media ownership erode the public sphere and fail to provide for cultural and information needs, including the plurality of opinions and the diversity of cultural expressions and   languages necessary for democracy

5. Massive and pervasive media violence polarized societies, exacerbates conflicts, and cultivates fear and mistrust, making people vulnerable and dependent.

6. Stereotypical portrayals misrepresent all of us and stigmatize those who are the most vulnerable.

Learning from the failure of the NWICO campaign, the PCC seeks to incorporate the key lessons and move forward. First, its backers recognize the eventual necessity of negotiations among 'official' and therefore often bureaucratic) Non - Governmental Organizations NGOs followed by inter -governmental meetings

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and ministerial agreements. But, like the campaign against land mines, PCC supporters first seek to build support through international networks of grass roots organizations and coalitions.

Media is usually seen instrumentally, as something that has positive or negative impact on a group's ability to accomplish its primary goals. Therefore, building a coalition big enough to successfully demand media reform is partly dependent upon working with other movements to help them think through the media access implications of their own campaigns.

The Discussion Continues

While cloaked in the language of universal rights, the PCC is essentially a call for additional discussion and action rather than a definitive text. One such event took place at the **'Democratizing Global Communications'** conference sponsored by the Havens Center at the University of Wisconsin, Madison in September 1997. It brought together representatives of several PCC-endorsing organizations along with people from the Media and Democracy Conference, the **McBride Roundtable**, and others.

 In addition to making suggestions for future revisions of the PCC text, the PCC principles were summarized and extended into five points:

1 No public or private power, domestic or international, should be allowed to dominate the information or communication systems of any state, nation, community, or social group.
2 Methods of implementing human rights of information, expression, and communication cannot be treated as a trade barrier under international law or treaty such as the World Trade Organization.
3 Peoples everywhere have a human right to expect that their information and media systems promote a democratic public-opinion formation process; to further this aim:
a) Commercial speech can be treated differently than political, civic and cultural speech in law, regulation, and policy.
b People have a right to 'fair use' of privately 'owned' intellectual property.
4 People have a human right to expect that their media, information, and communication systems serve educational needs, especially of children.
5 People have a human right to expect their media, information, and communication systems to serve the needs of cultural self-determination. This includes the right to own, produce, and benefit from cultural expression.

Every method of communication, from old hand-fed printing presses to today's digital satellites, has inherent characteristics that fundamentally influence its potential use. It is the interaction of power and technology that shapes the ways communication systems are actually developed, the uses to which they are put, and the people who are able to use them.

The digital and data based telecommunication systems with which CPSR primarily concerns itself are an increasingly important part of our national, and global, information and communication infrastructure. This system, too, is experiencing rapid commercialization and concentration. At the same time, its origin in the free-exchange-of-information world of scientific and academic research has led to functional capabilities that give it a unique potential for democratic discourse.

5.2 MEDIA IMPERIALISM

Media Imperialism is a critical theory regarding the perceived effects of globalization on the world's media. It is closely tied to the similar theory of cultural imperialism. **Imperialism** is a policy of extending control or authority over foreign entities as a means of acquisition and/or maintenance of empires. This is either through direct territorial conquest or settlement, or through indirect methods of exerting control on the politics and/or economy of these other entities. The term is often used to describe the policy of a nation's dominance over distant lands, regardless of whether the nation considers itself part of the empire.

As multinational media conglomerates grow larger and more powerful many believe that it will become increasingly difficult for small, local media outlets to survive. A new type of imperialism will thus occur, making many nations subsidiary to the media products of some of the most powerful countries or companies. Significant writers and thinkers in this area include Ben Bagdikian, Noam Chomsky, Edward S. Herman and Robert McChesney.

The United States' corporate media coverage of events has been seen to limit the freedom of the press. Integrity can be lost among media giants. This combined with the control and flow of information reduces the fairness and accuracy of news stories. American news networks like CNN also often have large international staffs, and produce specialized regional programming for many nations.

Media Imperialism is not always an international occurrence, however. When a single company or corporation controls all the media in a country, this too is a form of Media Imperialism. Nations such as Italy and Canada are often accused of

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possessing an Imperial media structure, based on the fact that much of their media is controlled by one corporation or owner.

A media source which ignores and/or censors important issues and events severely damages freedom of information. Many modern tabloids, twenty-four hour news channels and other mainstream media sources have increasingly been criticized for not conforming to general standards of journalistic integrity.

Democratization communication and culture

Hard Conditions for Democratic Communication

Free media can create a particular type of a representative public sphere which is not much more than a stage on which personal power parades its glory.

The second hard condition to be met lies with the decision-making power over the means of mass communication which normally but not in all cases is connected with the ownership of the different mass media units. This connection, however, is neither direct nor unequivocal. Widespread misunderstanding dominates the discussion.

There are roughly four models of decision-making power connected with the two principal forms of ownership.

  a. Public ownership combined with public control over the relevant decisions concerning the performance of the respective media unit
  b. Public ownership combined with government control.
  c. Private ownership with decision making at the owners' discretion.

d. Private ownership with decision making in a legal framework or a strong cultural tradition concerning professional rights for journalists, quality standards and the like.

Obviously, some combination of models A and D is required to meet the second hard condition for a public discourse of democratic quality. Many countries today represent one or other type of blend between the different models. In India e.g. there is free press and up till now a government controlled TV. In Germany, you find both public-ally and privately controlled TV and Radio plus private print-media under certain public restrictions for private control. I do not want to discuss the various models in theory and practice here. My own preference however is

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clear: public control for the bulk of TV and Radio units plus a strong legal and cultural framework to protect the professional freedom of journalists in private print media and broadcast units.

Soft conditions for democratic communication

Even when such a useful model is effective, still certain crucial soft conditions have to be fulfilled for a media system to meet the challenges of democratic communication and democratic culture. As they are often neglected in public discussion, they are intrinsically related to the basic structures and functional laws of mass media performance as such and not to the forms of ownership and control alone.

Some crucial ones are mentioned here:

1. Mass media are intrinsically asymmetrical. The access to their functions is very unequal. Some social and political actors do have direct access, others have at least indirect, sometimes even powerful, and access and some social actors have no access whatever.

2. Mass media do have the power to set, to build and to shape the political agenda of a polity. Whether political issues at stake in the real political arena and the daily life of society are represented or not in the picture of political life as construed by the media are highly dependent on the media actors who in this respect function as very effective gatekeepers.

3. The agenda structuring function also lies with the media actors as it is up to their discretion whether certain issues rank high or low, are dealt with extensively or in a volatile manner only.

4. But what in the long run may be even more relevant in its effects for building political culture is the way in which the media shape the portrait of the processes and the logic of politics in the political area which is enshrined in the reports they give and in the news they construe.

Let us locate the function of' the mass media system as such in the framework of the entire society. What is the functional role the media system has to perform for the society? It is the social function of the political system to produce legitimately binding decisions for the whole society; it is the function of the media system to draw the attention of the largest possible part of the society for common issues and

by way of that to contribute to the self-perception and integration of a given society.

In order to perform this particular function the media system, of course, cannot follow the same rules of selection, processing and presenting the relevant information as e.g. the educational system or the scientific system. The underlying basic law of the media system is to deal with information in such ways as to maximize attention, however under certain restrictive conditions such as correctness of information, respecting personal, public and private rights and abiding by basic ethical, moral and political standards.

Within the very wide framework constituted by these factors and criteria, media units and media actors are free to construe their picture of political life which under no conditions every can be just the one and only truthful copy of reality. It is invariably a particular construction of reality competing with many other such constructions. Such adequate media constructions are necessarily built through a process of intensive selection and artful presentation. **Professionally, in journalism above all, it means competence in the handling of the twin sets of rules of selection and presentation in an appropriate manner.**

To say it before everything else:

A journalist who desires to audio-educate people just to enlighten, without catching their attention in curiosity, would almost automatically obstruct his very intention to the same degree to which he would abstain from implementing the rules of selection and presentation which are meant to attract attention and which characterize journalistic professionalism.

But in their turn it is also these very same rules, which will hamper his efforts for enlightenment if used excessively and without severe controls regarding issues and contexts. **Media work means: to attract, to amuse, to entertain and to inform, to explain and may be even to enlighten. Media work is an effort to create accountable forms of synthesis between all these factors.**

The immanent tensions between the rules and criteria of successful media presentation of political life entail that the media are amongst the most crucial factors to the building of a political culture or impede it from emerging and growing.

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Traps and Fallacies

What if both the hard conditions for free media are met with some dangerous traps for inappropriate performance of media actors along the lines of the soft conditions which is looming large? In some of the most advanced media democracies of the world of today these traps have successfully caught large parts of media performance and, by way of that, impaired their political Culture.

The most frequent ones are mentioned below:

There is above all the fallacy of over-personalization, particularly with respect to political celebrities and incumbents. The fallacy is committed when politics is depicted mainly as an activity of some most prominent political actors. Whatever these actors do is reported as   politics.

This fallacy suggests itself. Because, at the same time it pleases the mighty and the most prominent figures of the society and caters to the need of large parts of the audience to indulge in a simple, entertaining and fascinating spectacle.

In quite a superficial manner, it seems to serve the interests of both sides of the respective media: its consumers because they get a well digestible meal and the mighty which eventually can exercise control over the media and its personnel. However, even in a most autocratic system, politics is always much more than what some of its star actors perform. The dominance of this fallacy in a media system leads to the creation of the representative feudalistic, pre -democratic) type of public sphere- fascinating power parades.

There is also another fallacy closely connected with the first one, the fallacy of just transporting stage-managed symbolical politics to the audience without making clear what it is by its very nature. Politics invariably has two internally linked dimensions: the instrumental function of problem resolution through policies: for instance, a new school in a village. And, also, it always has the symbolical function of expressing certain meanings and giving sense to an action in a wider socio-political context; for instance, the prime minister coming to that village in order to inaugurate that newly-built school at a public function.

However in the world of today, particularly under the influence of mass media TV,   we observe an increasing propensity of political leaders to disconnect the symbolical dimension from the instrumental dimension in most artfully state-managed ways, in many cases, smartly scripted with a well advised view to the

media and their rules of functioning. In our case, the prime minister going to that village, richly garlanded, entering a most inappropriate old school and playing, actor-like, the role of a politician highly interested in the progress of the educational systems without delivering anything real.

At least 80 per cent of the media reported activities of Ronald Reagan nave been performed along these lines. In many cases, the placebo character of such symbolical actions is not at all obvious. It is the obligation of quality media not only to mirror the surface of such on-stage activities but also to make transparent their context and background so that its clients get the full and the real information.

To the degree in which this fallacy is committed and the stage of the media politics proper will be replaced by a misleading spectacle, which is highly disconnected from the realities of the country.

There is the fallacy of following the agenda of the incumbents instead of that of the society. Media actors of necessity are gatekeepers. It is only for them to take the decisions about their own agenda: what will be in their paper or broadcast and what not. Which issues, persons, problems, ideas, interests, organizations and groups matter and deserve broad attention, and urgency or prominence and which don't. Even in very free and professional media systems, there is always a strong propensity of the media to focus on the incumbent, their performance, and the issues they forward, the problems they take serious, and the groups and interest they refer to.

The more modern political communication is shaped and materialized through mass media, the more it becomes true that reality is only what they show it to be. What is not in the media is not real. To a high degree, therefore, the agenda setting power of' the media is a political decision making power because it defines what can become a matter of political concern and what not.

Subsequently, it is one of the most crucial challenges for the media in a democratic society to build its agenda- the line of interest, problems ideas, hopes amid experiences of the people and the civil society even when they are not delivered and presented in an artful manner on glorious public stages so that the media can swallow and digest them comfortably. The media, which follow the agenda of the power structure, will mainly serve as an echo of the interests and intentions of the powerful.

There is the fallacy of depicting politics in an apolitical manner. In a rather exaggerated but interesting way, this fallacy has been analyzed and castigated by the US media ecologist Neil Postman. According to him, under the predominance of TV-adapted political information strategies, we are about to amuse ourselves to death. That means the life and the processes of politics in the mass media of today, more often than not, is depicted along the lines of drama, amusement, personality clashes, personal charisma, etc. to such a degree that it creates an absolutely distorted picture of what is really going on in politics and leads large portions of the public astray.

Politics in its very substance is a time consuming process in which a broad variety of actors pursue interests and value-based policies using particular resources, refer to public ideals for legitimization, acting in a given institutional and cultural framework. It is invariably not an instant matter but a long term process, with goal attainment or failure through conflict, compromise or consensus and more often than not a mixture of all of them.

These factors and their particular patterns of interaction must become visible and discernable in the media's picture of the political world if it wants to meet its democratic responsibilities.

It is the objective of professionalism in journalistic work, at first, to select, to condense, recompose and, secondly, to arrange, stage and give attractive presentational form to political events and topics. This is no easy art, because the twin traps of either de politicizing by misusing extensively media forms of presentation or by alienating the audience through instruction methods are always lurking nearby.

Responsibilities

The temptation of going the easy ways of either pseudo political entertainment or pseudo communicative political instruction is increased and sometimes overwhelming when one or more or the following three conditions prevail in the contest of journalistic work:

1. Lack of professional training and, consequently, of appropriate journalistic skills,
2. Pressure from above or outside,
3. Extreme shortage of time to be thorough going.

This is why all those responsible for journalistic work, the individual journalists, the journalists' federations, those in charge of the education and training programs for young journalists and those who exercise power over their working conditions, are made use of favorable conditions for the mass media to grow.

Because of their wide reach, mass media can contribute immensely to public information and political culture. In a society where literacy rate is still low, it is nonetheless not only radio and TV which provide the rank and file with information and models of understanding and meaning but the print media as well. Researchers say, each single person in a village that can read a newspaper will spread the news and the schemes of interpretation in a multi-step flow to the rest of the population, provided that the print media are such that at least one of the villagers would be able to read and like it.

Media, which obey, will contribute most substantially to the political culture of democracy both by educating them and by enlightening the rank and file.

Media which are trapped by the usual fallacies of politics by the way they depict it and build their agenda, thus will probably abandon their responsibility blaming everything on the deterioration of' the political culture of their polity.

The hard conditions for democratic media communication are necessary but only when the soft factors are also catered for. Thus all 'the sufficient conditions for an appropriate democratic communication are fulfilled. Only then mass media will contribute to the building and development of a democratic political culture that deserves its name.

And, this is why the responsibility of the actors of the media system is so extremely great.

SUMMARY

Mass communication is the term used to describe the academic study of various means by which individuals and entities relay information to large segments of the population all at once through mass media.

Fossils record show that the first development in the evolution of *Homo Sapiens* human beings took place about 70 million years back.

Scientists from various fields have developed the following chronology of development of human communication:

1. The Era of Signs and Signals
2. The Era of Speech and Language
3. The Era of Writing
4. The Era of Print, and
5. The Era of Mass communication

It took thousands of years for human beings to develop speech and language. After that, it just took few hundred years for writing to be developed.

The origin of advertising as a public announcement is traceable to the town crier and the village drummer. These used their lungs to shout out their own or others' messages.

Like the 'information superhighway', **'globalization'** is yet another hype term in information technology. It assumes that the phenomenon of the industries is worldwide, that users of information technologies make up the majority of the world's population with no obstacles to access anywhere.

The governments of many developing nations saw this globalization as a threat to their political, economic, and cultural sovereignty. Government representatives in the Non Aligned Movement and UNESCO drafted statements calling for a New World Information and Communication Order NWICO.
Journalism mainly involves practices of print journalism in general, and newspaper in particular, because newspaper journalism remains a good grounding career in television, radio, magazine and online journalism.

The 'power' of the press to bring about social and political change or economical development is extremely limited. In capitalist societies, the press is primarily like any other business or industry. It exists to raise advertising revenue and circulation with the aim of making profits.

Investigative journalism is a kind of journalism in which reporters deeply investigate a topic of interest, often involving crime, political corruption, or some other scandal.

A headline is a '**window**' to the news story. Thus, a heading must fit, must tell the story, must confirm to newspaper's standard, must not just be a label, must be safe and must not commit the paper to an opinion. A good headline is one that in less than a dozen words summarizes what a reporter has said.

Press Council of India has been established to 'preserve the freedom of the press and to maintain and improve the standards of newspaper and news agencies'. The council is enjoined to 'build up' a Code of Conduct for newspapers, news agencies and journalists in accordance with high professional standards.

Sociologists like to define an **audience** as a 'conventionalized crowd' assembled together. A media audience, however, is more than a conventionalized crowd, but rather a collectivity, an aggregate of persons who are readers, listeners, and viewers of different media or their various components. A public is a dispersed group of people interested in and divided about an issue, with a view-to- registering a collective opinion, which is expected to affect the course of action of some group or individual. The mass media plays a crucial role in forming and reflecting public opinion. However, the opinion leaders of groups invariably mediate the messages conveyed by the media.

A model is an abstracted representation of a reality. A good model comes as close to reality as possible and it discusses and explains the reality as clearly as possible. But being an abstraction, a model is not a reality; it only represents the reality of communication for better understanding of the communication process.

Lazarsfeld suggested "ideas often flow from radio and print to the opinion leaders and from them to the less active sections of the population." **The opinion leaders** seem evenly distributed between the social, economical, and educational levels within their community, but very similar in these areas to those with whom they had influence.

Dependency model was originally proposed by Sandra Ball-Rokreach and Melvin DeFleur 1976. The model of this theory merged out of the communication discipline. Dependency theory integrates several perspectives: first, it combines perspectives from psychology; second, it integrates systems perspectives with elements from more causal approaches. Third, it combines elements of uses and gratifications research with those of media effects.

Agenda setting is the creation of public awareness and concern of salient issues by the news media. Two basis assumptions underlie most research on agenda-setting: 1 the press and the media do not reflect reality; they filter and shape it; 2 media concentration on a few issues and subjects leads the public to perceive those issues as more important than other issues.

Media gate keeping showed that decision-making is based on principles of news values, organizational routines, input structure and common sense. Gate keeping is vital in communication planning and almost all communication-planning roles include some aspect of gate keeping.

Media Imperialism is a critical theory regarding the perceived effects of globalization on the world's media. It is closely tied to the similar theory of cultural imperialism. It is the social function of the political system to produce legitimately binding decisions for the whole society; it is the function of the media system to draw the attention of the largest possible part of the society for common issues and by way of that to contribute to the self-perception and integration of a given society.

QUESTIONS FOR PRACTICE

1. What is the importance of Mass Communication? Trace the different Eras in the history of Communication.
2. How had the different Eras in Communication contributed in the development of Communication?
3. Write a short note on 'Globalization'.
4. Write a brief account of the History of Advertising.
5. Discuss the role, power and censorship of the Press.
6. What role does the Sub-Editor play in making of a Newspaper? Also discuss the importance of Headlines in the Newspaper.
7. Write short notes on: a) Investigative Reporting, b Feature Writing and Interviews.
8. Discuss the Code of Ethics in Journalism profession.
9. Write at least 10 guidelines laid down by the Press Councils guide to Journalistic Ethics in India.
10. What is meant by 'Media Audiences? Discuss the psychology of today's media audiences.
11. How are different types of groups formed in the media audiences? Explain the nature of the media audiences.
12. Is Mass Media influenced by the Public's Opinion or the Public Opinion by the Mass Media? Discuss.
13. Write short notes of a Two -step flow of information b Agenda Setting
14. Explain the Kiatz and Lazarfield's two-step model.
15. Discuss in detail the Model of Agenda setting and effects.
16. Write notes on: a Ball – Rockreach and Defier's dependency model b Model of Gate-keeping by White, Gatung and Rouge.

17. Discuss 'new world of communication by McBridge'.
18. Write a note of 'Media Imperialism'.
19. Explain the issue of 'Democratization communication and culture'.
20. Define mass communication
21. What is an inverted pyramid in news format?
22. What are the features of a banner headline?
23. Discuss the two-step model of mass communication
24. How does a feature differ from a news story?
25. Define media audiences
26. What are the various types of groups in mass audiences?
27. Define media imperialism.
28. What is meant by agenda setting?
29. Enumerate the stages in the history of adverting.
30. Differentiate between investigative and interpretive reporting.
31. What are the functions of a sub editor?
32. What is a lead in a news story?
33. Define gate-keeping.
34. What do you understand by censorship of press? What kind role and power does the press enjoy in India?
35. What are journalistic ethics? Mention the press council's guide for ethics in journalism.
36. Discuss the model of agenda setting and its effects
37. Discuss the issues in the new world communication order recommended by
38. Explain the stages in the history of advertising
39. Globalization as an outcome of mass communication. Comment
40. Discuss white's model of gate keeping.
41. How does the dependency theory by Ball-Rokeach and DeFleur propose an integral relationship among media, audience and larger social system? Explain.
42. Write a note on democratization and communication
43. What role does mass media play in mounding public opinion?
44. Discuss the step that go into making a newspaper

SUGGESTED READING
1. Mass Communication & Development Dr. Baldev Raj Gupta
2. Mass Communication in India Keval J Kumar
3. Mass Communication & Journalism in India D S Mehta
4. The Journalist 's Handbook - M.V. Kamath