M.Sc/BS
MASS
COMMUNICATION

Study Guide

Course Code: 9386

MASS COMMUNICATION

Part - I & Part - II

Department of Mass Communication
Allama Iqbal Open University,
Islamabad

Course Code: 9386

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INTRODUCTION

Mass Communication is comparatively a most dynamic and sensitive discipline which absorbs the overgrowing knowledge and adapts itself according to the changing social, economic and political circumstances. Today we can assert that Mass Communication is the epitome of all social sciences. In recent few years, it has been observed that Mass Communication has been gaining grounds in Pakistan.

Broadcasting, audio-visual non-broadcast media, information storage and retrieval system, symbolic information capability of computers, satellite, cable and telematics etc. have changed altogether the quality of life and universalized the human perceptions towards global development. Technology used in media has not only squeezed the world into a global village but has also created a media environment at homes. Rapid technological changes in Mass Communication bring expanded vast awareness and renewed attention to any field of endeavor.

Mass media have vital role for strengthening democracy. On the one hand they keep people informed about various activities of government and on the other provide a forum to the general public to raise their voice and participate in the state affairs. These menaces to our social life and environment can only be defeated by mass education through mass media. Mass Communication not only persuades but inculcates various ideas aimed at national progress and human development. Every functioning modern state needs functioning media and highly qualified communication experts for political and economic reasons. Media pluralism and the competition between many media units that go with it comprise a highly attractive economic factor.

The organizations which have a publicity setup, generally, do not have the necessary expertise to deal with all aspects of the press. Even the government information personnel, who works for the first time with the media finds it difficult at times to understand and appreciate the complexities of press relations. Similarly, the public relations cells in public and private sectors are, by large, concerned with giving advertisements and bringing out supplements, house journals, brockeres, folders and other publicity material. In order to function really effectively, they require guidance, especially when they have to deal with the press in other spheres. Recognizing the need for professional people a number of universities and other institutions in the country now offer degree or diploma courses in Mass Communication.

This is a full credit course basically produced for the distance learning students in master's of Mass Communication. In order to have better insight of the students, special care has been taken to explain all major areas of the subject in a capsulated way but in the most conveying language, so that students could be oriented to the subject. For further elaborated study, students are supposed to find

relevent knowledge from the suggested readings given at the end of each unit in this study guide.

This course deals with the modern concepts, approaches, models, strategies, process and effects of mass media effects, Communication technologies and the prospects and challenges of Mass communication. The study guide takes account of all the new trends and techniques being taught the world over. The course has been segmented into 18 learning units. Each unit covers summary of the major topics, self-assessment questions and a list of suggested readings.

Dedicated and hard work of my staff members, Mr. Noor Zaman, Mr. Abdul Nabi Brohi, Mr. Naeem Ahmed and Mr. Abdul Hameed were always available to me in the successful production of this study guide. I am also thankful to the faculty members, Mr. Bakht Rawan and Mr. Saqib Riaz for their helping hands.

Hope that the students would find this study guide interesting and informative for pursuing a dynamic and professional career. Good Luck.

Syed Abdul Siraj
Head of Mass Communication Department.

Unit One

CONCEPT AND PROCESS OF COMMUNICATION

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1. OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, the student should be able.

1. To explain the meaning and importance of Communication.

2. To highlight the methods and techniques for designing and processing effective Communication

3. To identify the causes/hurdles in Communication.

2. SUMMARY OF THE MAJOR TOPICS

2.1 DEFINITION AND SCOPE OF COMMUNICATION

The word communiation has originated from a Latin word "Communes" which means something common. Therefore, when we communicate, we are indeed trying to establish commonness of thoughts or feelings with other individuals. In other words, communication is a process of sharing ideas, words and attitudes, with someone. It is a basic human need. As human being we need somebody to help us, talk to us, hear to us. One of the reknowned Greek Philosopher has said that a man who says that he does not need anybody is either god or a beast. The phenomenon of communication is the natural desire of human being to express his/her feelings and ideas to others. The basic purpose of communication is to bring changes in the behaviour of the receiver. The basic purpose of communication is to inform, educate and entertain people. Different scholars have defined communication differently. However, some of the acceptable definitions are :

1. Communication is the process in which the message moves from source to destination.
2. To communicate one's ideas, thoughts or feelings to another person.
3. The process of transmitting means between two individuals.
4. Communication occurs whenever information is passed from one place to another.
5. Communication is the tool that makes society possible and distinguishes it from other societies.
6. The essence of communication is getting the receiver and the sender, and tunes it for a particular purpose.
7. Communication is simply "to make known" or "to pass news and information to and from."
8. "Who says, what, in which channel, to whom, with what effect" Harold lesswel.

   EXPLANATION :
   The who is the speaker, the what, is the message, the whom refers to the receiver, the channel is medium that passes message from source to destination and the effect is the impact on the receiver about the message.
9. Webster's dictionary defines "Communication as a process by which information is exchanged between individuals through a common system of symbols, signs ; or behaviour, also techniques for expressing ideas effectively in a speech or writing.

2.2 PURPOSE OF COMMUNICATION.

The basic purpose of communication is to bring changes in the behaviour of the receiver. We communicate to have some effects on the receiver and to bring a change in the cognitive (thinking), effective (feeling) and behaviour (acting) of

the receiver. Aristotle defined the study of rhetoric (communication) as the search for "all the available means of persuation" The basic purpose of communication is to inform, educate and entertain people.

Communication is the psychological need of the people living in a society. It is as important to human beings as food for their health. A person when quiet is supposed to be engaged, communicating with the nature. A new born baby cannot convey his/her hunger to his/her mother, yet he/she communicates by crying.

2.3 COMMUNICATION PROCESS

Communication in a broader sense is a continuous process and every one in some form is engaged in the process of communication. About 500 years B.C the great Greek philosopher Heracletes said, that "Man cannot step twice in one river" why? because river changes its route with the passage of time likewise, man also undergoes a process of continuous change. Man needs to learn and inform others throughout his life.

2.4 ELEMENTS OF COMMUNICATION

There are six elements in the process of communication which work as vehicles for sharing information, ideas and attitudes with someone. These elements are : -

1. Source 2. Encoding 3. Message 4. Channel
5. Receiver 6. Decoding

SOURCE :-

Communication starts with the source, a person who speaks, writes or makes facial expressions is called the source. Source can be an individual or group of people or an inanimate like computer, radio, music, book, etc.

ENCODING :-

Message always remains in the mind of the source in the form of an idea, when he gives physical shape to it by transmitting it into words or pictures then it becomes a message. This process is called encoding. In other words, the process of giving physical shape to one's idea is known as encoding or the speaking mechanism of the source is called encoding. Giving names to things, ideas and experiences is also an act of encoding.

MESSAGE :-

The coded idea of the sender is called message. When we write, the written script is our message. Message always transmits from source to destination. An objective of a message is to make understood the receiver as desired by the source.

CHANNEL :-

Channel is a medium or transmitter which carries the message of the sender to the receiver. In case of mass communication, the channel might be radio, TV or

newspaper. The sensing power of an individual is also channel of communication such as taste, smell, hear and see etc.

RECEIVER :-

The recipient of the message is called the receiver. It may be an individual, group of people or an organization.

2.5 TYPES OF COMMUNICATION

There are five types of communication

1. Interapersonal Communication

Communication that takes place within himself or herself is called intrapersonal communication. Conversation with self and planning or thinking about the schedule of your study for an examination etc. are the examples of intrapersonal communication.

2. Interpersonal Communication

It is the process in which communication takes place between two or a small group of persons. Interpersonal communication always takes place into a face to face situation and the communicator and destination are known to each other.

3. Macro Group Communication

This is most effective form of communication, mainly because the feedback is instant in this situation. Speech of a political leader in a big stadium is the best example of macro group communication. It usually takes place through microphone and the element of feedback is workable in this type of communication. For example the receiver (public) can instantly feedback in the shape of applauding to the politician or by hooting his speech.

4. Mass Communication

Mass communication is the one in which the message is sent simultaneously to a greater number of people through a mass medium like radio, T.V or newspaper. The receivers of the Mass Communication are separated, heterogeneous and unknown to each other as well as to the communicator. The process of feedback in this type of communication is mostly slow and delayed.

5. Medio Communication

It is the one which has some characteristics of interpersonal communication and some of mass communication. In Medio communication, the message is transmitted through television, telephone etc.

2.6 HURDLES OF COMMUNICATION

Transmitting a message from one person to another is a tough job because

there is a possibility of misunderstanding. There is very little chance that the reader will understand exactly the same what the writer means.

Reality is too difficult to be described by words. Denial Katz expresses that the real world is more complex, more colourful, more multi dimensional than the pale words or over simplified signs to convey meaning.

There are two types of hurdles of communication :

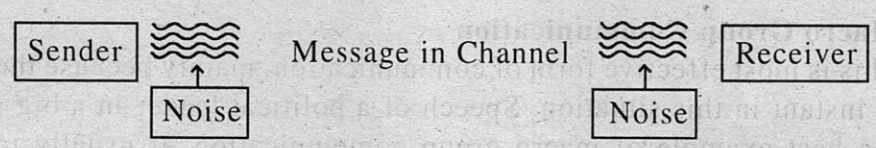
1. Physical hurdles
2. Psychological hurdles.

2.6.1 Physical Hurdles

Physical hurdles is a problem in the way of transmitting a message from its source to destination. You sent a letter to your friend but he did not get it, this is a physical problem ; there is a speech of the president on PTV but you cannot listen it clearly due to some problem in the transmission, we could term this as channel noise.

If somebody closes the door with noise during the course of listening to TV it may also be called a physical hurdle.

When someone speaks slowly and you cannot understand, you are talking to a friend on telephone and there is a noise of horn which can destroy the meaning of the message. All these troubles are in other words called channel noise.



How to overcome channel noise?

The professional communication can overcome channel noise by applying redundancy techniques, i.e. repetition of the main idea of the message. The purpose of this technique is to make sure that the part of the message lost during interruption is communicated again.

2.6.2 Psychological Hurdles.

Psychological hurdles are the kind of hurdles in which the destination receives the message clearly but reacts to the message. This is a great hurdle in the process of communication. Following are the various psychological hurdles.

i. <u>Semantic Noise</u>

This kind of hurdle is the result of using very difficult, jaw breaking and tongue twisting words by the communicator, which are out side the frame of references of audience. Semantic noise can be reduced, if the communicator defines such term and adjusts vocabulary for the interest of the audience.

ii. Field of Experience

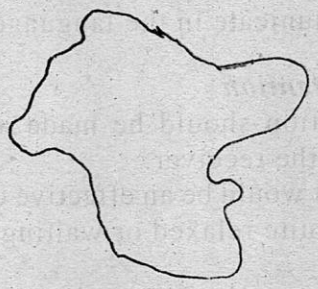
This psychological hurdle accurs when the field of experience is not common to both i.e. communicator and receiver, the communication would not take place. For example, if a scientist wants to communicate the Newton law to the uneducated people, definitely, there won't be any communication. But if the same message is delivered to the science students, the message will be an effective one. Thus field of experience becomes one of the great hurdles if it is not common to both source and destination.

iii. Cognitive Dissonance

Cognitive dissonance is also one of the hurdles in the process of communication. By cognitive dissonance, we mean that when a communicator wants to deliver a message to the audience that smoking is injurious to health. The audience does not accept this proposal, giving arguments that they are smoking since very young age and despite they are quite healthy. This is called cognitive dissonance.

iv. Frame of References

This is yet another hurdle in the process of communication. By frame of reference, we mean that the communicator looks at a thing with his own perception and define it in his/her own words. For example, a communicator looks at the following graph with his own perception; that it is a map, while the different receivers may conceive it as flower, disturb line, leaf, etc.



Every receiver may have his own perception about this but so different frame of reference creates hurdles in the process of communication.

v. Poor Understanding

The community or the intended destination poor in understanding becomes a great obstacle in the way of communication.

vi. Expression

Sometimes the expression of the communicator becomes a hurdle in the process of communication if it is not in accordance with the situation.

vii. Change in custom and tradition

If the communicator wants to talk about some change in the custom and tradition, definitely his communication will be a failure. For example :- If a communicator wants to introduce Buddhism in the Pakistani society, his ideas may not be accepted by everybody because Pakistan is predominantly a Muslim country.

2.7 EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION

Communication experts have figured out some techniques for effective communication:

2.7.1 Effective Message

The message needs to be designed in such a way that the receiver receives the same what the sender wants to communicate.

It is only possible when :

1. The message is written in the most easiest language.
2. Sentence of the message is short and simple.
3. Avoid jaw breaking and tongue twisting words.
4. The message is designed according to the mental level of targeted receiver or audiences.
5. Select only those words or signs which are common to the field of experience of both the communicator and receiver.

2.7.2 Selection of suitable medium

Medium plays a vital role in making the communication effective. Following are the key points :

1. Select the medium for which the recievers can have an easy access.
2. They can buy it easily.
3. It can communicate in the language of the target destination.

2.7.3 Receiver Attention

Communication should be made at such time that it can gain the attention of the receiver.

Example :- It would be an effective communication when the intended receiver is quite relaxed or waiting for such communication.

2.7.4 Social Value

The message of the communication will be effective if it is composed according to the social values of the given society. For example :- If there is an advertisement about the publicity of vine in a society like Pakistan, people will react to it and thus the communication would be useless. But if the same communication is designed for the British society it will then be an effective communication. So, for an effective communication it is necessary to consider the norms, customs, traditions and religious philosophy of the society.

2.7.5 Communication and Mental Harmony :

The success and failure of communication greatly depends upon the fact that whether it has harmony with the mental level of the receiver

or not. *For example* :
You intend to produce a T.V. programme for the children of 8 years on a religious topic. The format of the programme is table discussion. According to my assessment it will be a failure programme and boring for the children because it is difficult for an 8 years child to get meaning from the discussion.

3. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Q. No.1. What do you know about communication? Elaborate definitions of various experts; needs and importance of communication and how it works differently in different societies.

Q.No.2. Elaborate with examples the various kinds of communication and its effects in various situations.

Q.No.3. What are the essential elements for the process of communication? Explain it with the help of a model.

Q.No.4. What are the criteria for effective communication?

Q.No.5. Explain physical and psychological hurdles of communication and suggest ways of avoiding these barriers.

4. ACTIVITIES

1. Construct your own definition of communication, try to make it a one-sentence of 25 words or less.
2. Build a model for delivering a message from source to destination showing possible interferences for (a) Newspapers (b) Magazines (c) Radio (d) TV
3. Write two sentences of 30 words each. The message of one sentence should be constructed in a way which is understandable and can have an effect accordingly. Whereas the other sentence should be designed in such a way that it does not carry effective communication.

5. SUGGESTED READINGS

1. Michael W. Gamble, Terikwal Gamble "Introducing Mass Communication" New York, Mc Graw-Hill, Inc. 1986
Chapter No. 1
2. Doug Newson and James A. Wollert, "Media Writing" California, Wadsworth publishing company 1985. Chapter No. 2
3. Edwin Emery, Philip H. Ault, Warren K. Agee" Introduction to Mass Communication: New York, Dodd, Mead & Co. 1970 Chapter No. 1 & 2.
4. Black, Whitney "Introduction to Mass Communication" Second edition, Dubuque, Low, Wm.c. Brown publishers 1983. Chapter No. 1

Unit Two

THEORIES OF COMMUNICATION

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1. OBJECTIVES

This Unit would enable the students :

1. To explain some of the basic concepts of communication theory ;

2. To relate theoretical approaches to the existing milius ;

3. To evaluate the important factors that lead to the development of a mass comunication theory and media system in a society.

4. To use theoretical skills in the field of mass communication research and investigation.

2. SUMMARY OF THE MAJOR TOPICS

2.1 THE THEORY OF CONSISTENCYAND SELECTIVE PERCEPTION

Basic Theme :

Consistency. Individuals have a tendancy to expose themselves to messages that are consistant with their existing attitudes norms and beliefs. For selective perception, audience receive messages in accordance with their existing attitudes. Thus, they may ignore, misinterpret or reject those messages which are contrary to their attitudes.

People want their beliefs and judgements about things to be consistent with one another. When beliefs of an individual about things are not consistent, it creates dissonance (inconsistency).

Selective perception. Communication contents that are regarded favourable are more likely to be recalled by a receiver than contents that are regarded unfavourable. People will shape their interpretation about an information to be congruent to their existing attitudes.

In ths study of Festinger about the hazzards of smoking, it was found that the more cigarettes an audience member smoke each day, the less convinced he/ she was that as actual link had been established between smoking and lung cancer.

Two areas are important to understand selective perception :

1) Selective exposure
2) Selective retention

2.1.1 Selective Exposure

Some persons habitually listen to news on BBC rather than Radio Pakistan or read Jang rather than Nawa-e-Waqt. Some people consistently avoid materials they know to be distasteful or which they think would create dissonance.

2.1.2 Selective Retention

Selective retention plays a role in the efforts to change attitudes through an information campaign. People remember what they want to remember.

Professor Martin points out that the theory of consistency and selective perception switched the (Lesswellien Paradigm around). Rather than "Who says WHAT to WHOM" the question of researcher now seems to be "WHO NEEDS to RECEIVE THE MESSAGE FROM WHOM".

The emphasis is on the seeking and avoiding of information rather than urging of opinion change.

2.2 THEORY OF COGNITIVE DISSONANCE

2.2.1 Cognitive Theory :

Media efforts studies have been conducted in various phases and dimensions. How mass media exert their influence and effect upon individuals in a particular social system and create particular behaviour is called the "Cognitive Theory of Mass Communication." Cognitive Theories of human behaviour as Stan L. Albrecht (1980) describes, "stress mental process, such as perception, knowledge, ideas and expectations as the major determinants of behaviour." Thus receiving information, giving to meaning it, organizing it into knowledge and similar mental activities are the important components of cognitive study.

2.2.2 Cognitive Dissonance

A state of discomfort created by two cognitions (two items of knowledge) that are psychologically inconsistent is called cognitive dissonance. For example, one says smoking is injurious to health. The other says, I have been smoking for the last so many years. These two items of knowledge will create "cognitive dissonance as both the cognitions are inconsistent. Dissonance is generated when one starts doing anything against his/her beliefs and attitude.

2.2.3 Cognitive Dissonance Theory

The theory holds that an individual will be motivated to change attitudes when in a state of cognitive dissonance, a condition of psychological discomfort is brought about when two elements are related in such a way that the observer of one element follows the other. Much of the research work on cognitive dissonance has been done by Leon Festengers (1957). This theory attempts to explain what happens when people behave in ways that are contrary to their beliefs or attitude? When two cognitions (states of mind) are inconsistent, i.e. when one thought or cognition contradicts another, a dissonant relationship) is said to exist between the two. According to Festinger, cognitive dissonance usually creates or produces a psychological tension" which can be reduced by changing one way or both to make the cognition less dissonant.

2.3 CULTIVATION THEORY

Cultivation theory is a set of theoretical and methodological assumptions and procedures designed to assess the contributions of television viewing to people's conception of social reality. An influential and sometimes

controversial research approach under CULTURAL INDICATOR research programme was developed by George Gerbner and Larry Gross of Annenberg School of Communication, University of Pennsylvania in 1967.

2.3.1 Conceptual Assumptions.

- The theory assumes that :
  - The messages of a culture are produced and comprehended through complex, shared symbol systems and give rise to the symbolic environment of that culture.
  - Human thought and behaviour derive a large part of their definition and significance, potentials and limitations, association and relationships from this environment.
  - Stories, dramas, myths and images define and help to maintain a culture's dominant assumptions, expections and interpretations of social reality.

Mass media, particularly television produces and transmits messages and images to the common environment in which people live and die, define themselves and others, and develop and maintain beliefs about social reality.

These theoritical assumptions, to Gerbner et al. were basically related to advanced industrial societies that have had television as centeralized mean of communication over the years. TV dramas, commercials, news and other variety of contents bring relatively a coherent world of common images into every home of the U.S. society.

Cultivation theory holds that television images have their own influence of culture and attempts to explain and cultivate values and worldviews into the minds of receivers. Most research work concentrates on co-relationship between amount of television exposure and its consequences. The model asserts that people of certain beliefs and values when exposed to sustained T.V. images and messages, they are more likely cultivated to new set of values and beliefs. At the sametime, T.V. fosters greater homogeneity among diverse socio-cultural groups if they are heavily exposed to televised messages.

The major focus of cultivation study is on television violence as the violent actions have become an important characteristic of T.V. production, and more prevalent on Television than in real life. Precisely, to George Gerbner, media have the potentials to cultivate attitudes and values in a given culture depending on the quantity and continuity of exposure.

Cultivation theory can also be applied to other areas, such as gate-Keeping, agenda setting and defining cultural norms.

NOTE :-

Students are advised to read International Encyclopedia of Communications, (1989), Vol.1, PP. 430-433; and Key Concepts in Communication: by Tim O,Sullivan, et al. (1983), London: the Chaucer Press.

2.3 OSGOOD'S CONGRUITY THEORY

This theory does not involve two persons, although it may involve two sets of information or concepts on which the judgement needs to be made by a single person. If the two are congruent (Similar), there is no problem, if however, they are not congruent, the person will experience pressure to change his or her judgement regarding one of the cases. You have congruence if a person you like approves of a cause or affirms a position with which you are in sympathy. The theory holds that when change in attitude occurs, it always occures in the direction of increased congruity with the prevailling frame of reference. Incongruity exists when the attitude towards the source and object is similar and the assertion is negative or when they are dissimilar and the assertion is positive.

2.4 AUTHORITARIAN THEORY.

The Authoritarian theory of the press can be traced to the very early period of printing. At that time, truth was thought to be a property of those who held power, ie, the rulers. The subjects had no say in decision-making process- had no right to criticise the government agencies. Thus, it was a situation of strict control of the press through licensing system. Censorship was imposed if the rulers thought that information should not reach their public, Therefore, the available press had to work on an advocate of the state.

Today, many nations, though, deny to practice authoritarian principles used for expression but behind the curtain, authoritarian practice is carried out. These practices are used in various forms and techniques. In some countries, particularly in the developing ones, these are used in visible form like "official Secret Act", "National Security Act", etc. And in some instances, control over the press is carried out in form of financial threat.

2.5. LIBERTARIAN THEORY.

The libertarian theory of the press was a strong reaction to the authoritarian concept of press and human life. In the seventeenth century John Milton defended the concept of reason and the moral integrity of human being in distinguishing right from wrong, good from bad, and truth from falsehood. According to him, every man owes the ability to make a decision. Other, philosophers of the same ideas were John Stuart Mill, Thomas Paine, John Erskine,and Thomas Jefferrson. On their philosophical foundation the liberterian theory of press is based.

These philosophers saw as the press's function to inform, to sell, to entertain, to uphold the truth, and to keep check on the government activities.

Press ownership under libertarian system is likely to be private and should be free from defamation, obscenity, impropriety and sedition. Countries practicing the libertarian philosophy are the United States, Great Britain and some other Western European nations.

2.6. SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY THEORY:

The social responsibility theory is, in fact an extension of the libertarian theory. Basically at provides a balance between the libertanian concepts and concepts of social responsibility. It establishes that freedom without responsiblility leads the human society toward a lawless life. Rights and responsiblities are interdependent and necessary for social system. It means that a person has the right to do whatever he /she likes to , but equally he/she is responsible to respect others rights or freedom.

Under the concept of social responsibility, media of mass communication are also responsible to respect and regard not only the opinion but also the cultural values, traditions, norms and religious values of their audience.

The major characteristics of this theory are :

1. Providing inforamation, discussion and debate on public affairs ;
2. Instructing and informing the public to make it capable of self-government ;
3. Protecting the right of the individuals against the government through its watch dog function ;
4. Maintaining the economic equilibrium of the system by bringing together buyer, seller, and advertiser ;
5. Providing entertainment ; and
6. remaining independent from outside pressure through its own economic self sufficiency.

2.7 COMMUNIST THEORY

The Communist theory of the press is a modified form of the authoritarian theory. However, whereas according to the authoritarian theory the press resides outside the government, in the communist theory the press and the state are held to be one. The main characteristic of the communist theory is to ensure the success and continuance of the Soviet (former) system and to promote the objectives of the Communist Party.

Soviet Union does not exist anymore, but it does not mean that the communist concept of the press and life is dead from the academics for ever. Students are required to study all major theories of the press.

NOTE :

Students are suggested to study Four Theories of the Press : by Siebert, Theodore Peterson, and Wilbur L. Schramm. (1956), New York : Reprint Freeport, 1973.

2.8 THE HYPODERMIC NEEDLE THEORY OF COMMUNICATION

During the first quarter of the 20th century, there was clash among various European powers for the expansion of their influence abroad. This resulted in the outbreak of the first World War leading to a storm of rumours and propaganda. In that critical situation every govt. was worried about the moral of its public. So, the concerned governments patronised their respective media of mass communication, and used them for extensive propoganda campaign.

The basic assumption of hypodermic needle theory is that Mass Media have a direct, immediate and potential effect on their audience by injecting information into the consciousness of the masses. The audience is seen as impressionable and open to manipulation. This theory ignores the possible effects of "INTERVENING VARIABLES" in the communication process and presents the masses as being unquestioning receivers of media messages.

This theory has been criticised on the ground that it advocates one way flow of communication and all what the media say must be believable to the public.

3. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Q.No.1. What do you know about the theory of Consistency and Selective perception? Explain the theory in light of the study of Festinger.

Q.No.2. Explain the theory of Cognitive Dissonancy in view of perception, knowledge, ideas and expectations. Also give your own example while explaining these elements.

Q.No.3. What are the conceptual assumptions of Cultivation theory. Does it suit to assess T.V. effects on the audiences. Discuss.

Q.No.4. Give a detailed description of the Authoritarian theory.

Q.No.5. Explain the concept of Libertarian theory. Also highlight background of the theory.

Q.No.6. Do you agree that social Responsibility theory upholds the principle of checks and balances operating the media system. Discuss.

Q.No.7. How you understand the Communist theory of the press. Explain its basic assumption.

Q.No.8. Explain the central idea of the Hypodermic Needle theory of communication.

Q.No.9. What do you know about Osgood's Congruity Theory?

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Unit Three-Four

MODELS OF COMMUNICATION

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1. OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you should be able to :

1. Explain the importance of models in the communication process.

2. Demonstrate the function of various models for different communication effects.

3. Identify the components of these models and its relation with different paticular circumstances.

4. Explain why different communication experts designed these models in their research studies.

2. SUMMARY OF THE MAJOR TOPICS

2.1 FUNCTIONS OF COMMUNICATION MODELS

Model is considered as a consciously simplified description in graphic form of a piece of reality - A model seeks to show the main elements of any structure or process and the relationship between these elements. Deutsch (1966) notes the following main advantages of models in the social sciences. Firstly, they have an organizing function by ordering and relating systems to each other and by providing us with images of wholes that we might not otherwise perceive. An aspect of this is that a model gives a general picture of a range of different particular circumstances.

Secondly, they help in explaining, by providing in a simplified way information which would otherwise be complicated or ambiguous. This gives the model a *heuristic function*, since it can guide the student or researcher to key points of a process of system. Thirdly, the model may make it possible to predict outcomes or the course of events. It can at least be a basis for assigning probabilities to various alternative outcomes, and hence for formulating hypotheses in research. Some models claim only to describe the structure of a phenomenon. In this sense, a diagram of the components of a radio set could be described structural. Other models, which we call functional, describe systems in terms of energy forces and their direction, the relations between parts and the influence of one part on another.

2.2 NEWS DIFFUSION : THE J-CURVE MODEL

The J-curve which was used to illustrate and summerize the findings of research is not itself a model but it reflects the outcome of a particular process which can be put into model form.

Greenberg set out to test a proposition, based on the earlier work to the effect that events reported in the news can be classified into three groups, according to the degree of personal diffusion they are likely to receive :

Type I :

Events which are of low general importance, but of great significance to a few. Such events will not get prominent treatment in media, but since knowledge of the events is important to a certain target or reference group, they are likely to be selectively noticed by some of the relevant minority and news of them passed on to others who did not happen to see the first announcement. Ultimately all or most of the relevant group are likely to have some knowledge of the events, but a rather high proportion will have heard through a personal intermediary. An example might be the press publication of national examination results. Where the relevant public consists mainly of friends and relatives of the candidates.

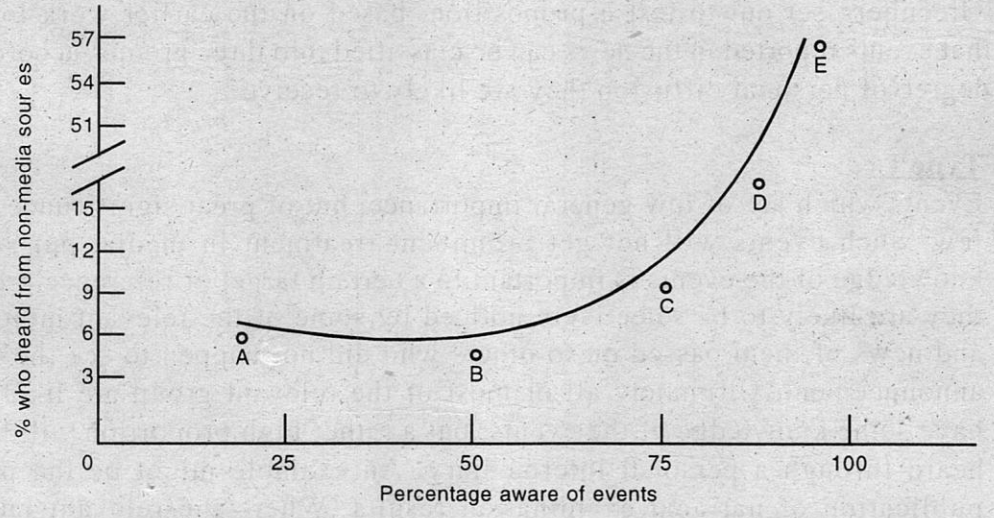
Type II:

Events which are agreed to be of general public importance (the normal main news stories of the day), which get a fair degree of prominence in the media and are noticed directly by a majority or large minority of the general public. Such stories are not likely to be passed on as information from person to person (although they might be discussed), partly because they can be assumed to be known, partly because they are not usually sufficiently dramatic or immediate to merit personal volunteering of the fact to some other person. Such events might include the settlement of a major strike, a planned rise in train fares, a large bank robbery, a terrorist outrage somewhere else in the world etc.

Type III:

Events of extreme urgency, importance and high dramatic qulaity which are sure eventually to come to the attention of almost everyone and which get very high and rapid media attention. The classic case is the Kennedy assassination itself. Paradoxically, however, despite the enromous media attention, we can expect the proportion of those eventually having the information who heard it first from another person will actually be a good deal higher than in the previous category of main news stories. The significance of the event mobilizes both interpersonal and media communication channels.

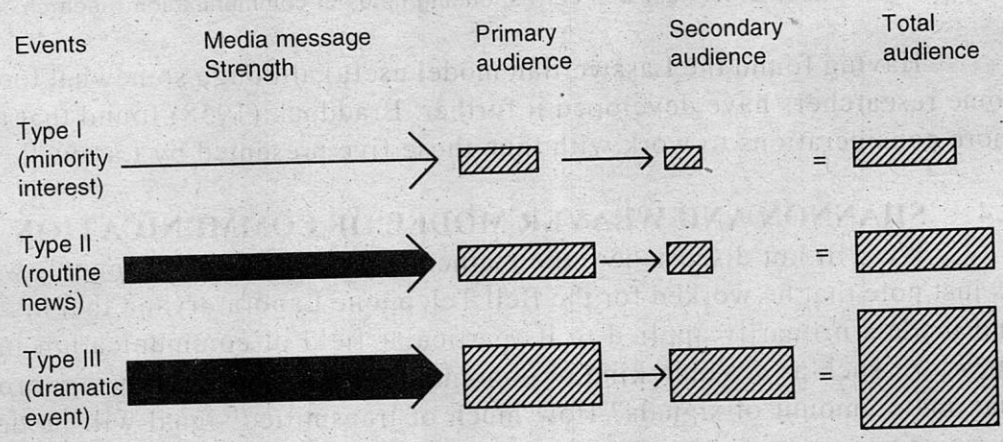
The J-curve illustrated below is a summary of the results obtained by Greenberg when he investigated the first sources of knowledge of 18 different news events, which ranged in degree of eventual total diffusion from 14 to 100 percent. When the propertion of people ultimately aware of these events was plotted against the proportion who heard about them first from interpersonal sources, it was possible to group them into five categories (labelled A-E). The resulting curve took on a j-shape in accordance with the propostion outlined below.



J-curve of news diffusion; there is a curvilinear relationship between the proportion aware of an event and the proportion who heard from a non-media source (after Greenberg 1964).

Although the three types of events described above and represented in the summary research findings (A is in type I, B,C and D are in type II, E is type III) were in ascending order of actual diffusion as plotted along the horizontal axis, the proportion who heard from personal sources (vertical axis) does not increase progressively and is not related in a linear way. The proportion hearing from personal sources is rather low for events of low total awareness, very low for most events of medium awareness and then very high (50% +) for events of maximum awareness.

Personal influence, diffusion and effects of mass communication on individuals



Diffusion model underlying the J. curve, showing the relationship between types of even and primary, secondary total audiences.

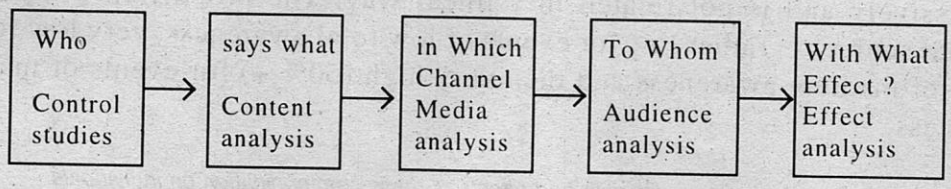
The model shows for different types of events, the relative share of total audience attributable to personal contact. Type I refers to news items of low general importance but which are very relevant to a special minority. Type II are average general news stories. Type III refers to events of very high significance. The total audience reached increases progressively, but the relative share of the secondary (personal contact) audience in the total audience does not. It is higher for type I than for type II and highest of all for type III.

2.3 THE LASSWELL MODEL OF COMMUNICATION

The American political scientist Horald D. Lasswell began an article in 1948 with perhaps the most famous single phrase in communication research: A convenient way to describe an act of communication is to answer the following questions :

who
says what
in which channel
To whom,
with what Effect

This simple formula has been used in several ways, mostly to organize and to give structure to discussions about communication (of Riley and Riley 1959). Lasswell himself uses it to point out distinct types of communication research. To each question he has attached a particular type of analysis as is visualized below :



The lasswell formula with corresponding fields of communication research.

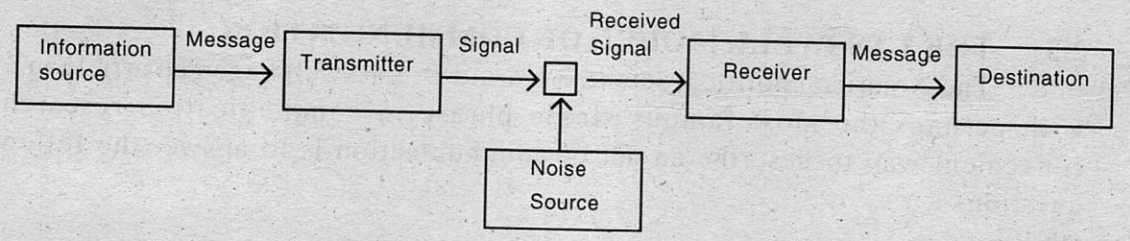
Having found the Lasswellian model useful although somewhat too simple, some researchers have developed it further. Braddock (1958) found that there are more considerations to work with than those five presented by Lasswell.

2.4 SHANNON AND WEAVER MODEL OF COMMUNICATION

We will not discuss here the mathematical aspects of Shannon's work. Let us just note that he worked for the Bell Telephone Laboratoryand that his theories and models primarily applied to its particular field of communication involving questions such as : Which kind of communication channel can bring through the maximum amount of signals? How much of transmitted signal will be destroyed by noise underway from transmitter to receiver ?

These are questions mostly dealt with within the field of information theory. Nevertheless the graphical model made by Shannon and his co-worker Warren Weaver (1949) has been used analogically by behavioural and linguistic scientists. Technological problems differ of course from human ones, but it is easy to find the traces of the Shannon-Weaver model in a number of later models or human communication.

Communication is here described as a linear, one way process. The model states five functions to be performed and notes one disfunctional factor, noise. Graphically, it may be presented as in Fig. 2.2.1.



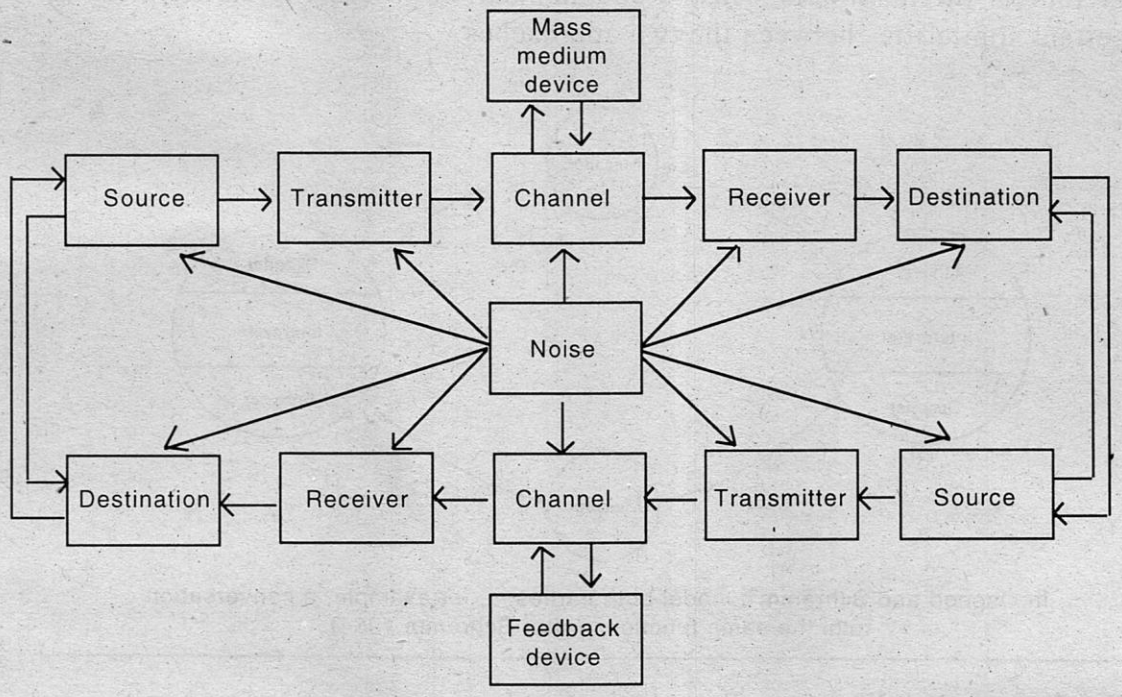
Shannon and Weaver's 'mathematical model' describes communication as a linear, one-way process (after Shannon and Weaver 1949).

First in the process is the information source producing a message or a chain of messages to be communicated.

In the next step the message is formed into signals by transmitter. The signals should be adopted to the channel leading to the receiver. The function of the receiver is the opposite of that of the transmitter. The receiver reconstructs the message from the signal. The received message then reaches the destination. The signal is vulnerable in so far as it may be disturbed by noise interference which may occur, for example, when there are many signals in the same channel at the same time. This may result in a difference between transmitted and received signals, which in its turn may mean that the message produced by the source and that reconstructed by the receiver and having reached the destination do not have the same meaning. The inability on the part of communicators to realize that sent and received messages are not always identical, is a common reason why communication fails.

2.5 DE FLEUR'S MODEL OF COMMUNICATION

De Fluer (1966) developed the Shannon and Weaver model further in a discussion about the correspondence between the meaning of the produced and the received message. He notes that in communication process, meaning is



De Fleur's development of the Shannon and Weaver model, allowing for feedback (after De Fleur 1970).

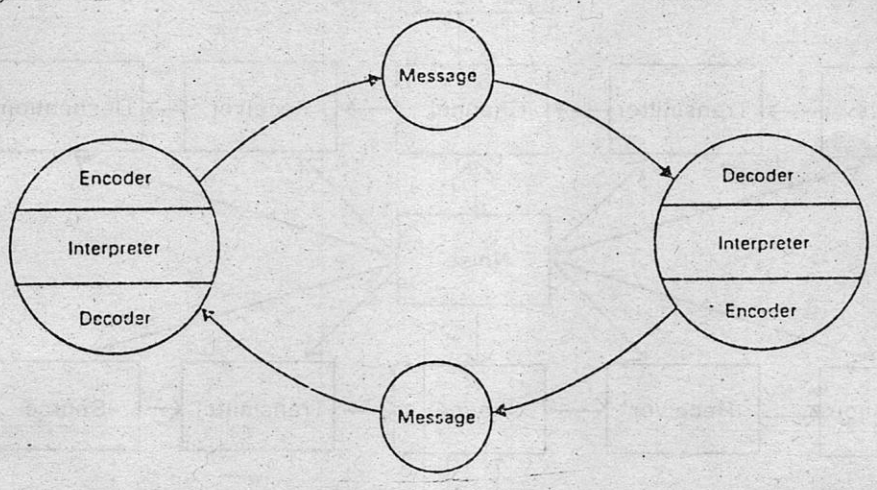
transformed into message and describes how the transmitter transforms message into information which then passes through a channel (for example a mass medium). The receiver decodes the information as a message which in its turn is transformed at the destination into meaning. If there is a correspondence between the two meanings the result is communication. But as De Fluer says, this correspondence is seldom perfect.

De Fleur adds another set of components to the original Shannon and Weaver model to show how the source gets its feedback which gives the source a possibility of adapting more effectively its way of communicating to the destination. This increases the possibility of achieving correspondence between the meanings (isomorphism).

Shannon and Weaver's model is thus supplemented in an important way. Their model has been criticized for its linearity and lack of feedback. These features are accounted for in De Fleur's version although it may be noted that in the case of mass communication, the sources (communicators) only get limited or indirect feedback from the audience.

2-6 THE OSGOOD AND SCHRAMM CIRCULAR MODEL

This model was presented by Wilbur Schramm (1954) and originated with C.E. Osgood. If the Shannon model could be described as linear, we may say that the Osgood-Schramm model is highly circular. Another difference lies in that whereas Shannon's interest is a primarily directed to the channels mediating between the sender and receiver. Schramm and Osgood devote their discussion to the behaviour of the main actors in the communication process. Even so, there are important similarities between the two approaches.



In Osgood and Schramm's model both parties in, for example, a conversation fulfil the same functions (after Schramm 1954).

Shannon and Weaver make a distinction between source and transmitter and between receiver and destination. In other words, two functions are fulfilled at the transmitting end of the process and two at the receiving end. In the Schramm-Osgood case almost the same functions are performed even if they do not talk about transmitters an receivers.

They describe the acting parties as equals performing identical functions namely encoding, decoding and interpreting. Roughly the encoding function is similar to the transmitting and the decoding to the receiving. Schramm and Osgood's

interpreting function is fulfilled in Shannon and Weaver's model by the source and the destination.

COMMENTS :

The traditional linear communication model clearly fixes and separates the roles of sender and receiver and it has from time to time been criticized for doing so. In a comment, Schramm (1954) remarks that :

> "In fact it is misleading to think of the communication process as starting somewhere and ending somewhere. It is really endless. We are little switchboard centers handling and rerouting the great endless current of information?"

The emergence of this approach meant a clear break with the traditional linear one-way picture of communication. The model is especially useful in describing interpresonal communication but is less suitable for cases without, or with little feedback.

In the model, we can see how Schramm modifies this model to make it adequate for describing mass communication.

A possible point of criticism of this model would lie in the argument that the model conveys a feeling of equality in communication. Very often comunication is on the contrary, fairly unbalanced as far as communication resources, power and time given to communicate are concerned.

2.7 DANCE'S HELICAL MODEL

Dance's Helical model of communication is more recent, compared to the two models earlier presented in this unit and it is presented here solely because it may be seen as an interesting development of the Osgood and Schramm circular model.

In a discussion about linear versus circular communication models, Dance (1967) notes that today most people would regard the circular approach as that most adequate for describing the communication process. But it has its shortcomings as well. It suggests that communication comes back full circle to exactly the same point from which it started. This part of the circular analogy is manifestly erroneous. The Helix provides understanding in some cases where the circule fails. It directs one's attention to the fact that the communication process moves forward and that what is communicated now will influence the structure and content of communication coming later on.

The communication process, like all social processes, contains elements, relations and environments that are continuously changing. The Helix model describes how different aspects of the process change over time. In a conversation, for example, the cognitive field is constantly widening for the parties or actors

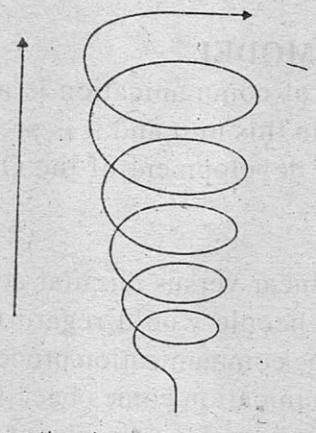
involved. The actors get continuously more and more information about the actual topic, about others point of view, knowledge etc. Dance's Helical model showing the dynamic nature of the communication process (after Dance 1967).

The helix takes on different shapes in different situations and for different individuals. For some the helix tends to widen very much because of prior knowledge of the topic, whereas for others, with little basic knowledge, the helix expands moderately. The model may be used to illustrate information gaps and the thesis that knowledge tends to create more knowledge. It may also illustrate communication situations such as the one where a lecturer in a series of lectures on the same subject assumes that his audience becomes successively better informed, which enables him in every new lecturer to take this for granted and to structure his presentation accordingly.

COMMENTS :

Dance's model is of course not a tool for detailed analysis. Its worth lies in that it remains us of the dynamic nature of communication, something that is otherwise too easily forgotten.

It would not go too far to say that the concept of the communicating man here is more positive than in most other models. One gets the notion from this model that man when communicating is active, creative and able to store information, whereas many other models depict the individual rather as a passive creature.



Dance's helical model, showing the dynamic nature of the communication process (after Dance 1967)

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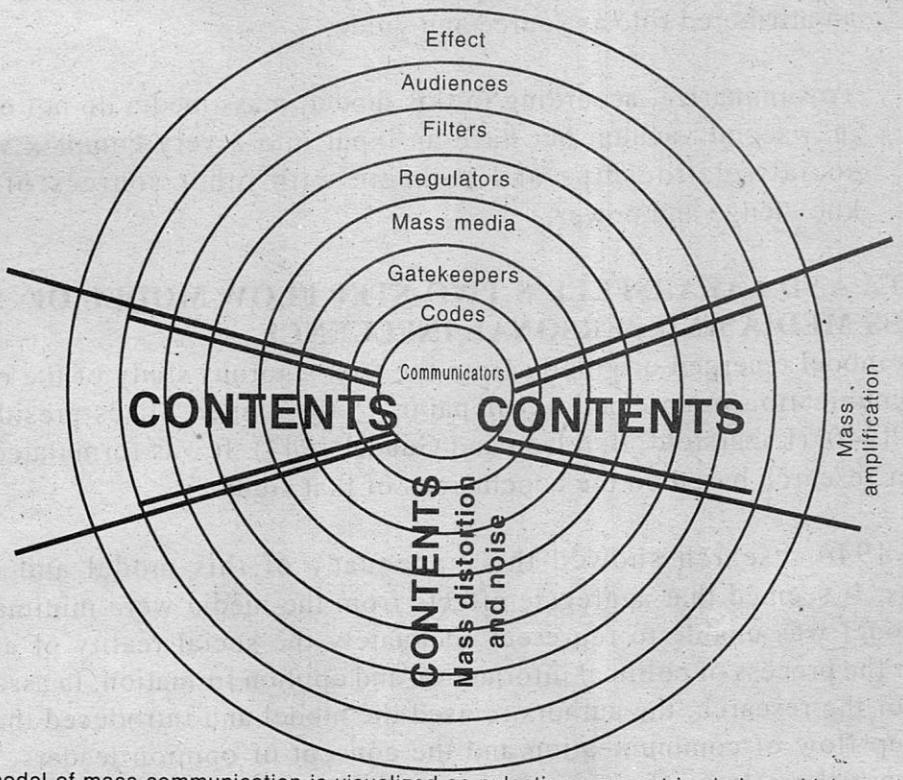
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2.8 THE HUB MODEL OF MASS COMMUNICATION

When we make the leap to mass communication, the basic elements change significantly, and we add several new components. For our purpose, we need a model that visualizes mass communication as an interactive process. The HUB (Hiebert, Ungurait, Bohn) model describes that process as a set of concentrice elements always involved in a series of actions and reactions.

The HUB model pictures communication as a process similar to that of dropping a pebble into a pool. This action causes ripples that expands outward until they reach the sides of the pool, and then a few bounce back towards the center. The content of communication (an idea or an event) is like a pebble dropped into the pool of human affairs. Many factors affect that message as it ripples out to its audience and bounces back. These factors are the components of the total process.

The HUB model's rings also reflect the physical processes of sound conduction and electronic transmission. The goal of course, is to present mass communication as clearly and completely as possible.



The HUB model of mass communication is visualized as pulsating, concentric circles, which emphasizes the relationship of all the elements of the mass communication process.

The revised model and research linked to it involves the following main assumptions :

(a) That individuals are not social isolates, but members of social groups in interaction with other people.

(b) That response and reaction to a media message will not be direct and immediate but mediated through and influenced by these social relationships.

(c) That two processes are involved-one reception and attention and another of response in the form of acceptance or rejection of the influence or information attempt. Reception does not equal response, nor does non-reception equal non-response (because or secondary acceptance from personal contacts).

(d) That individuals are not all equal in the face of media campaigns, but have different roles in the comunication process and in particular, can be divided into those who are active in receiving and passing on ideas from the media and those who mainly rely on other personal contacts as their guides.

(e) That the occupants of the more active role (opinion leaders) are characterised by more use of the mass media higher levels of gregariousness a self-perception as influential on others and as having an attributed role as source and guide.

To summarize, according to this model, mass media do not operate in a social vacuum but have an input into a very complex web of social relationships and compete with other sources of idea, knowledge and power.

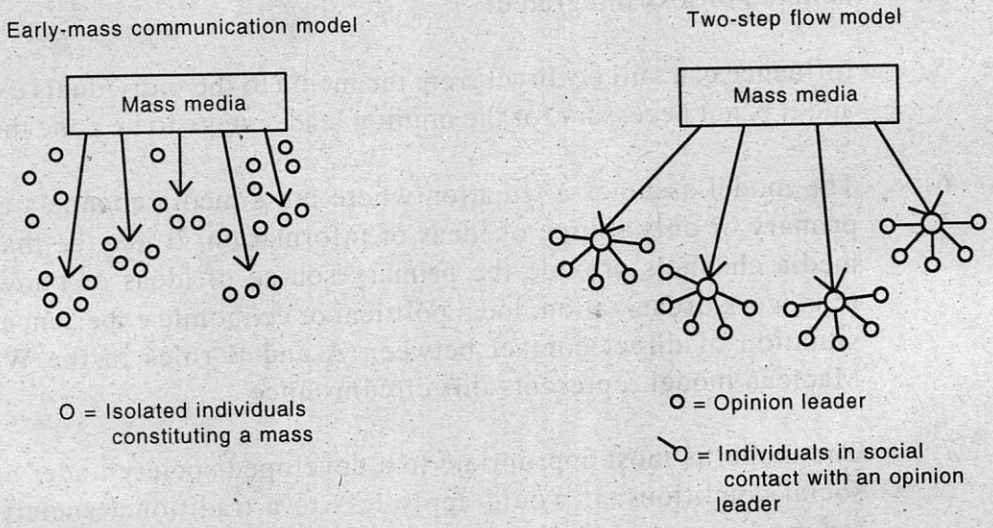
2.9 KATZ AND LAZARSFELD'S TWO-STEP FLOW MODEL OF MASS MEDIA AND PERSONAL INFLUENCE

This model emerged originally from the first rigorous study of the effects of mass comunication in an election campaign __ the United States presidential election of 1940. (Lazarsfeld, Berelson and Guadet 1944). It was formulated only after further research based on the conclusions of that study.

The 1940 research showed the inadequacy of this model and of its assumptions. It seemed that aggregate effects from the media were minimal and that this model was unable to represent adequately the social reality of a mass audience, or the process of political information and opinion formation. In assessing the results of the research, the authors revised the model and introduced the idea of a two-step flow of communication and the concept of opinion leaders. Their findings about the relative failure of mass media compared to influence from

personal contact led to the suggestion that ideas often flow from radio and print to the opinion leaders and from them to the less active sections of the population.

This perception was followed up by more focussed research and by a theoretical re-evaluation of the original model in the book "Personal Influence" by Katz and Lazarsfeld (1955). The two-step flow model as shown in Fig. can be more fully characterzied according to a number of the findings of this latter work.



Two-step flow model of media influence compared with the traditional model of mass communication (after Katz and Lazarsfeld 1955).

COMMENT :

While communication research has profited greatly from this more realistic version of the mass communication process, the model has proved to be in some respects incomplete and in others potentially misleading. The following points summarize the main lines of criticism.

1. The model is based on a rather clear dichotomy into either active or passive roles. More realistically, we should think of this as a continuum and think of roles as being interchangeable. The original evidence of Katz and Lazarsfeld shows that despite there being general distinguishing marks of opinion leadership, some individuals may be followers on some subjects and leaders on others.

2. Both leaders and followers may also be thought of as sharing the same or similar characteristics and in varying degrees different from a third category of people, who neither attend to mass media nor discuss with those who do. They are essentially non-participants in the circulation of ideas and may be proportionately a large group. Those who are not leaders are not necessarily 'followers'. Research has shown that opinion leaders are also receivers of information.

3. The term opinion leader can be misleading since, as used here, it does not identify those who truly originate ideas.

4. There may be more than two stages in the process of influence, as subsequent research has shown (e.g. Menzel and Katz 1955). Change can occur in several stages-affecting a few influentials first then those integrated into relevant social circles, then later affecting the more isolated or less integrated.

5. Influence can still be direct from the media to the individuals exposed and it is not necessary for the opinion leader stage to be gone through.

6. The model assumes a situation where mass media channels are the primary or only source of ideas of information. It may be that non-media channels provide the primary source of ideas of knowledge (e.g. work organization, local political or economic experience). The situation of direct contact between A and B roles in the Westely Maclean model represents this circumstance.

7. The model is most appropriate to a developed society under normal social conditions. It would apply less to a traditional society with few media, or to circumstances of crisis and uncertainty in developed societies. In either cirumstances there is likely to be a longer relay of contact for passing information and influence from person to person. The idea of a chain of contact is more appropriate than the cluster represented in model.

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3. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Explain the role and importance of models in the Communication process?

2. What is the J-Curve of news diffusion model? Elaborate it with your own examples?

3. Why the model of LassWell is proved to be more comprehensive in understanding the process of Communication, explain?

4. What are the main features of De Fleur Model of communication?

5. What are the similarities in the Shennon and Weaver circular model and Dence's Helical Model. Also explain the reasons of differences in these models?

6. What do you know about the HUB Model of Communication?

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Unit Five-Six

STRATEGIES OF COMMUNICATION

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1. OBJECTIVES

After Studying this unit, you should be able to :

1. Describe the idea of various Communication Strategies

2. Analyse the effects of different Communication Approaches and their application in different situations.

3. Adopt these strategies in your environment.

2. SUMMARY OF THE MAJOR TOPICS

2.1 USES AND GRATIFICATION APPROACH

The uses and gratification approach came in late fiftees and early sixtees with the aim to understand audience involvement in Mass Communication. It sought to replace the image of hypodermic approach of the media (The audience is passive receiver).

The uses and gratification approach can be understood from the assumption that every individual has a basic need for social interaction. So, from experience he expects Mass Media consumption (use or content) will give him some fulfil ment of his need.

This approach leads him to watch T.V, listen to radio or read newspapers and magazines etc.

- "The central idea of the uses and gratification aproach is what the media do to people".
- Typically gratification means

1. Escape from worries
2. Emotional support
3. The acquisition of information helping in dealing with the outside world, social contact and other benefits.

According to the strategy of uses and gratification, there are four categories of needs which the media serve to gratify :

1. Diversion from worries, problems, constraints
2. companionship, the need to live with others
3. Personal identification
4. Seeking of information about happenings in this complex world.

Keeping these social needs in view, from experience, people expect Mass Media use (contents of newspapers, radio and T.V. programmes) will give them some fulfilment of their needs. This approach leads to watch T.V., listen to radio or read newspapers and magazines.

> We attend to a particular Mass medium because it satisfies our need.

The theory of uses and gratification has been devised to describe the receiving process in Mass Communication in order to know the contents used in the media and gratify the need of individual. For Example, Aslam has done his Master in Mass Communication and now he wants to seek a job. This need compels him to look for advertisements in newspapers, magazines, radio and T.V. so, media in this case can gratify his need only when it publish relevant advertisement.

Let's have another example :

During the strike of newspapers it has been found that a daily newspaper satisfies the following needs of its readers :-

1. Information and interpretation for public affairs in the form of news, editorials, commentaries, features, essays.

Thus where a social situation causes tension, the media may provide relexation, or where there is a need to know about a particular event, the media may provide news, commentary, feature, essays, editorials etc.

Uses and gratification approach provides a way of looking at the relationship between media content and the audience. Researchers have a certain agreement about the main idea of media uses and gratification. According to them :

1. The social and psychological origins of :
2. needs, which generate
3. expectations of
4. the Mass Media, which lead to
5. differential patterns of media exposure, resulting in
6. need gratification and
7. other consequences, perhaps, mostly un-intended ones.

2.2 THE STRATEGY OF AGENDA SETTING

Arrangement or setting of news, current affairs, items and documentary elements in a descending order of importance is called agenda setting. The process relates to the dynamics of coverage and to the structuring of what and how. Agenda setting is more concrete and dependable in broadcasting as compared to newspapers. It is because the items follow in a linear order in broadcasting and there is no alternative with the audience but to follow the agenda except by switching off the sets.

Paying attention to some issues and neglecting others will have an effect on public opinion. People will tend to know about those things which the mass media deal with and adopt the order of priority assigned to different issues.

The best known of the more recent proponents of the agenda-setting hypothesis are the American researchers Malcolm McCombs and Donald Shaw (1972, 1976). The audience 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 place upon it. For example, in reflecting what candidates are saying during a campaign, the mass media apparently determine the important issues. In other words the mass media may set the "agenda" of the campaign. This ability to affect cognitive change among individuals is one of the most important aspects of the power of mass communication.

It has been the case that most of the agenda-setting research has concerned itself with election campaigns. In the typical modern election campaign it has become a common strategy to establish the 'image' of a given candidate by association with certain position on the perennial problems of a society and with certain special issues of the candidate's choice. The theory is that if voters can be convinced that an issue is important, they will vote for the candidate or party which has been projected as most competent to deal with it.

2.3 THE GATEKEEPING TECHNIQUES

The term gatekeeping was originally used by Kwrt Lewin in his Human Relations (1947) to refer to (1) the process by which a message passes through various gates as well as (2) the people or groups who allow the message to pass (gatekeepers), may be individuals or a group of persons through whom a message passes from sender to receivers. A camera-person is a vivid example of a gatekeeper, who selects certain area for photographing which are then shown to the viewers. Editors of newspapers, magazines and publishing houses are also gatekeepers as they allow certain information to get through and filter other information.

The selection and rejection of material is made according to a set of criteria determined by a number of factors such as the gatekeepers, back-ground, education, up-bringing and attitudes to the world plus the values, norms and traditional Wisdom of the organisation for which the gatekeeper works.

2.4 MEDIA HEGEMONY

The assumption of media hegemony is that the ideas of the ruling class become ruling ideas in society. According to this approach, the mass media are controlled by the dominant class in society which uses it as a vehicle for exerting control over the rest of society. Media hegemony is rooted in the Marxist economies. They argue that media contents in USA are shaped to suit the interests of the capitalists. While commenting on media hegemony, Altheide says that it seems to involve at least three assumptions that could be treated with evidence :

1. The socialization of journalists involves guidelines, work routines and orientations replete with the dominant ideology.
2. Journalists tend to cover topic and present news reports that are conservative and supportive of the status quo.
3. Journalists tend to present pro-American and negative coverage of foreign countries, specially Third World nations.

According to Werner J. Severin and James W. Tankard Jr., Altheide argues that evidence can be found to cast doubt on each of these propositions. In connection with propostion 1, Altheide cites studies showing that foreign affairs reporters take very different approaches while covering detente, depending on their individual backgrounds. In addition, other studies of journalists, backgrounds and attitudes show considerable diversity rather than homogeneity.

As regards proposition 2, Altheide cites numerous examples, including but not limited to watergate, in which the reporting done by journalists did not support the status quo. A study of press coverage of the 1971 Indian-Pakistan War (Becker, 1977) provides another example when the U.S. government shifted its policy to support for West Pakistan, the news coverage by the New-York Times actually shifted the other way.

So far as proposition 3 is concerned , surveys of journalists indicate that they tend to agree with the Third World position on many issues. Furthermore, research on television coverage of Nicaragua during the Sandinista revolt showed that television presented the rebel case repeatedly and in some detail not exactly the kind of content that supports the status quo.

Two researchers who attempted to find studies testing the media hegemony idea found only three)Shoemaker and Myfield, 1984). Two supported the media hegemony idea while one did not.

Finally, if the mass media are in general giving support to the status quo and corporate values, someone should inform Senator Jesse Helms, and his Fairness in Media group, of this fact. Senator Helms has been involved in efforts to buy the CBS television network because he thinks CBS News is too liberal.

The existence of fairness in media may be one of the best arguments that the mass media are ideologically neutral, since they are criticized by the left for presenting a conservative point of view and by the right for presenting a liberal point of view.

2.5 THE SPIRAL OF SILENCE

This model deals with the question of how public opinion is formed. Professor Elisabeth Noelle-Neumann (1974), a German sociologist, argues in her model the spiral of silence that the answer to this question lies in an interplay between mass communication, interpersonal communication and the individual's perception of his own opinion in relation to others in society.

The model rests in part on earlier social psychological thinking (e.g. Allpart 1937), to the effect that one's own opinion is to a very large degree dependent upon what others think or, rather, upon what one perceives as the opinion of others.

An essential idea underlying this model, illustrated below is that most individuals try to avoid isolation in terms of being alone in holding certain attitudes and beliefs. Therefore one observes one's environment in order to learn which views are prevailing or gaining strength and which are less dominant or declining. If one believes that one's own views are among those in the later category, one will be less inclined to express them just because of the fear of isolation.

And so, the dominant or gaining opinion tends to be even more so :

The more individuals perceive these tendencies and adapt their views accordingly, the more the one faction appears to dominate the other to be on the downgrade. Thus the tendency of the one to speak up and the other to be silent starts off a spiraling process which increasingly establishes one opinion as the prevailing one. (Noelle-Neumann 1974).

The perception of the individual is, of course, not the only force working in this model. Mass media are another, what is the dominant view of the day is often defined by the media. Another force working in the process is the degree of support from people in one's environment. As one remains silent oneself other people around will do so as well and so mass media definitions and lack of expressed support for one's own views in interpersonal communication bring about the spiral.

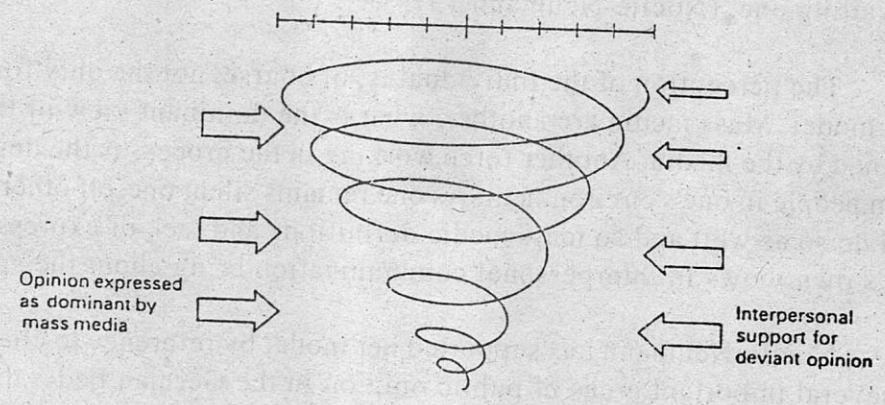
Noelle-Neumann has supported her model by reference to changes over time in several important areas of public opinion in the German Federal Republic (e.g. Neolle-Neumann, 1980). Her evidence strongly indicates a relationship between perceptions of majority opinion, expressions of personal opinion tendencies in content and the opinions of journalists. Under some conditions, the mass media apear to mould perceptions of the dominant opinion and thus influence individual opinions in the way proposed by the model.

The ideas expressed in this model are not in themselves new, although they have been brought together in a new way and given a new relevance to conditions of widespread reliance on television as a main source of information and ideas. We can recognise earlier theories about the consequence of communication monopoly and we are familiar, from election studies, with the possibilities of band-wagon effects.

Another relevant concept in this connection is that of pluralistic ignorance Ischeff, 1967) which refers to situations in which many individuals fail to communicate private opinions to each other and come to feel that they belong to a dissenting minority. In fact, a majority may privately hold the same view, while allowing a powerful and vocal minority to impose a false consensus. The idea of a silent majority refers to a similar phenomenon.

One interesting question about the model is whether the spiral represents real attitude change or not. It may be that only the expression of ideas assumed to be deviant is hampered and that under more favourable conditions these opinions could rather quickly and unexpectedly reappear. The answer will partly depend on the definition of public opinion used, since for Noelle-Neumann free expression is an essential part of the concept of public opinion. In the nature of things, it is things, it is extremely difficult to obtain satisfactory empirical confirmation of the theory and the hardest and the most controversial part of any confirmation procedure has to do with the question of media consonance ad cumulation in respect of given

opinion matters. It would require an elaborate and extensive analysis of media content to deal satisfactorily with this problem. The process of opinion forming represented by the model almost certainly occurs under some conditions and to some degree, but the extent of its occurrence is still not known.



An example of spiral of silence : mass media expressing dominant opinion together with an increasing lack of interpersonal support for deviant views bring about a spiral of silence, with an increasing number of individuals either expressing the dominant opinion or failing to express deviant ones (after Noelle-Neumann 1974).

2.6 DIFFUSION OF INNOVATION

Diffusion means dispersion or spread of a phenomenon through time and space. The phenomenon of interest here are ideas and innovations. The diffusion of ideas and innovations is a fundamental component of social and economic change for better or worse. Because of its widespread influence, the diffusion process has been found as key element for Mass Communication. Showe Maker is one of the major exponent of the idea of diffusion of innovation.

Research on a variety of public efforts to bring about life style change indicates slow and limited impact. This is true for instance, of programmes to encourage seatbelt use and family planning. The limited effectiveness of technological and social change programmes has been contributed to the failure of public agencies to employ sophisticated marketing techniques and to the low frequency with which strategies and tactics are presented, coordinated.

In recognition of the importance of marketing and supply concepts to the success of public sector efforts to induce social and technological change, a field of research has emerged that focuses on four types of strategies for planned change.

I. ***Facilitative***
This makes easier the implementation of changes by the target group.

II. ***Re-educative***
Relatively unbiased presentation of facts intended to provide a rational justification for action.

III. ***Persuasive***
Attempts to bring about/change partly through biased reasoning and inducement.

IV. ***Power***
The use of coercion based on obligatory relationships. These strategies vary in terms of appropriateness and effectiveness in different situations.

The spread of ideas and innovations generally begins slowly, accelerates as the diffusion process begins to unfold more fully, slows down, after some turning point is reached, and levels off as saturation is approached.

The diffusion effect concept can be understood by an example such as: in a social set up where the general awareness about an innovation is 5 percent, there is little normative pressure to adopt. As the rate of awareness of innovation among a population increases to 20 or 30 percent, peer pressure begins to develop, and the rate of adoption accelerates. Once this threshold is passed, a diffusion effect begins to trigger substantial influence from peer network to accept the innovation. This diffusion or snowball effect is particularly important in social systems that are highly connected.

2.6.1 Factors Effecting Diffusion

i. **Relative Advantage**
Adaptability of an idea or innovation depends much on its unique benefits, cost-effectiveness, lessening of social conflict, greater comfort of security and so on.

ii. **Compatibility**
The less change a new idea or technology requires in existing social, cultural values, behavioural patterns, facilities, equipments and procedures, the more likely is its rapid diffusion.

iii. **Impact on Social Relations**
Many ideas and innovations lead to alterations in social relationships that may inhibit or promote adoption and further diffusion.

iv. **Complexity**
The degree of difficulty in using and understanding an idea or innovation inhibits adoption.

v. **Communicability**

The more easy information about an innovation or an idea can be communicated to the potential adopter, the more quickly it will be disseminated.

vi. **Divisibility and Reversibility**

If an innovation is divisible into smaller parts then trails are possible and diffusion is promoted. Similarly, if it is possible to return to one's original condition or situation when an innovation is adopted and later rejected, then the diffusion is more rapid. For example, there is greater resistance to surgical contraception than to birth control pills.

2.7 EFFECTS OF MASS MEDIA ON SOCIETY

Effects of Mass Media can be defined as any change induced directly or indirectly through newspapers, films, radio and television. In the 19th century, the communication experts were of the view that access by the mass of population to the printed word might turn docility into uprising. The new man medium of cinema was similarly accused of wide range of effects while T.V. in the eyes of some is responsible for many of the ills of our time as though such media could be somehow divorced from social, political and cultural environments which produce them.

The timing of communication process, writes C.Seymour-Ure in the Political Impact of Mass Media (UK contable, 1974), is probably one of the most important determinants of mass media effects. If the timing is right, the media can often be the arbiter of crisis, by being in the most prominent position to define it. Because of the agenda setting technique, the media may influence public opinion by determining the priority and importance and less importance of an issue by its own criteria.

According to James Watson and Anne Hill hypotheses about effects :

"A few generalized hypothesis about affects can be tentatively posited : the media are probably more likely to modify and reinforce attitudes than change them; Media impact will be greater among the uncommitted than the committed; impact will be greater if all the media are saying more or less the same thing at the same time (Consistancy) ; equally if the media are concentrating on a small rather than diverse number of stories (Intensity) and if they are repeating messages, images, viewpoints over and over again (Frequency)."

3. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS.

Q.No.1. What is the Uses and Gratification approach? Explain its origin and its needs for the media.

Q.No.2. How could newspapers mould public opinion through the strategy of Agenda Setting? Explain the process of this technique in detail.

Q.No.3. Elaborate the method of Gatekeeping in mass media.

Q.No.4. What do you know by Media Hegemony.

Q.No.5. Do you agree that the model of Spiral of Silence was created for moulding public opinion. Give your arguments in favour or against. Also explain the central idea of the model.

Q.No.6. How new ideas are diffused? Elaborate the process of Diffusion of Innovation in light of the model originated by Shoe Maker.

Q.No.7. What are the various mass media effects on society. Explain in detail.

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Unit Seven

MEDIA OF MASS COMMUNICATION

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1. OBJECTIVES OF THE UNIT

After studying this unit, you should be able to :

1. Explain various media of Mass Communication
2. Highlight the role mass media play in our life.
3. Differentiate between the functions of various media

2. SUMMARY OF THE MAJOR TOPICS

MASS MEDIA

Any channel carrying messages to a vast, widespread, general audience is called mass medium. Newspapers, magazines, books, T.V., Radio etc., all are mass media of communications.

2.1 PRINT MEDIA :

Print media includes those media of communication which are controlled by space rather than time. It can be read at any available time and can be kept for record. Following are the major print media of mass communication.

a) Books
b) Newspapers
c) Magazines

2.1.1 Books :

In the past books were not a mass medium but privilege of the elite class. There were two reasons for that. Firstly, books were not printed but transcribed by hand. Secondly, the low literacy level in the masses limited books exclusively to a small fraction of the society. It was the nineteenth century which saw book as a mass medium.

In the contemporary world, book is one of the most effective mass media. It is the best source of education. However, it should not be taken merely as an educational tool. It is the best and cheapest means of storing and transmitting to others the records, knowledge, literature speculations and entertainment characteristics of the human society. It represents the conscience of time and people gone by, and it speaks to each reader individually. Computer can also be used for storage and retrieval of information. However it has yet to go a long way to replace book for storing and retrieval purposes.

Books provide permanent record. Some books printed several years ago are still in existence. Books, from their beginning, have demonstrated their capacity to bind traditional societies together and to give rise to new and sometimes revolutionary thought patterns.

2.1.2 Kinds of Books

Books are categorised as :

i. Trade Books
ii. Paper-back books
iii. Text books
iv. Professional Books

2.1.3. Newspaper

Newspaper is one of the most important and effective print media of mass communication. It was first published in Germany and later spread its roots to the rest of the world. Its valuable services to the community like information, education, entertainment, persuasion, cultural transmission, record facility etc., have made it an inevitable medium for the contemporary world.

2.1.4 Functions of a Newspaper

i. **Information and Interpretation :-**
A Newspaper provide information to people about various events, issues and occurrences the world-wide. It also interprets and explains matters which will be otherwise difficult to understand for readers.

ii. **Opinion Building :-**
Besides reflection of public opinion a newspaper helps its readers to build opinion about various national and international issues, events and policies through its editorials and opinion culumns.

iii. **Education :-**
A Newspaper is a great public educator. It discusses every topic ranging from news to literature; supplies the readers up-to-date information about science about science and technology and also promotes civilization in the society.

iv. **Entertainment :-**
A Newspaper also entertains its readers through special features, stories of human interest and cartoons etc.

v. **Advertising :-**
It serves as an agent between seller and buyer. It increases sale of various goods and services through its advertisements. Besides the above mentioned functions, a newspaper also provides a forum to the minorities, serves as a watchdog of the government, and is used as a source for record and background information etc.

2.1.5 Magazine

Magazine is another important print medium of mass communication. It is the predecessor of the daily newspaper. Especially, the birth of journalism in the Indo-Pak Sub-Continent dates back to the magazine journalism. Hickey Gazette, Jam-e-Jehan Nama, Miratul Akhbar and Dag

Darshan the first English, Urdu, Persian and Bengali languages papers respectively were all weeklies at their debut.

A magazine is published periodically in a bound format, has a double paper cover and usually better quality paper is used. Magazines can be classified in terms of the regular intervals of their publication and appeal-wise. The first category includes Weekly, fortnightly, Monthly, Bimonthly, Quarterly, Annually and Biennially etc., while the latter category include Mass Magazines, class magazines and specialized magazines etc.

2.1.6 Functions of a magazine

With a slight difference a magazine performs almost the same functions as a newspaper does :-

i. **Information :**
Unlike newspapers a magazine does not provide hard news. However, it satiates its readers thirst for information with indepth coverage of various stories. These may be about politics, crime, personalities or fashion etc.

ii. **Entertainment :**
Magazine is a comparatively more entertaining print media. Besides other uses it gratifies readers urge for entertainment. It contains features, comics, sports, showbiz, current affairs etc., for its readers.
Some magazine (mass magazines) have general appeal for readers while others have specialized readers. However, both types are entertaining for their readers.

iii. **Comment :**
Like newspapers magazines also have specific editorial policy. They comment on various issues and policies in the light of their own respective editorial policies which on the one hand, guide public opinion and on the other express their own policy.

iv. **Advertising :**
A magazine provides the means for establishing a credible roster of potential customers for certain kinds of products.

2.1.7 Newsletter

News letters can be an effective low cost way to reach readers. A newsletter provides information in the briefest form. Its readers are selective. Commercial concerns usually use news letters to reach their clients or potential clients in an effective way.

2.1.8 Pamphlets and Leaflets

Both a pamphlet and a leaflet are effective to convey a meassage to the target audience. However, these usually have localised influence. They are informative and persuasive rather than entertaining.

2.2 ELECTRONIC MEDIA

Electronic media of mass communication are time organised. They are younger than the print media but not lagging behind them in effectiveness.

2.2.1 Radio

Radio is a time organised medium of mass communication. Due to its significant role in mass communication Radio has got the name of "The Magic Medium". It has abolished all the physical as well as psychological barriers and assured its access to all and sundry. The invention of transmittor has increased its importance manifold. It permits its listeners to take their radio wherever they go, even where electrical power is not available. Though it is still a magic medium in the third world, the new technological developments have replaced it with television in the developed countries.

Radio offers a quick summary of what is happening precisely at that hour. For interpretation of complex issues or events in the news, radio also broadcasts news commentary which is readily assimilable. Its vast accessability, selectivity, and readily availablity have made it one of the most important media of communication.

All over the world it is considered a medium of information, education, entertainment and persuation. Besides, developed countries radio in almost all the third world countries, particularly in Pakistan, is considered to be an important medium of information. In Pakistan, where about 70 percent people are living in rural areas and for whom all other sources of news are closed, radio is a major source of news and information. The news bulletins and other local languages programmes have made it a mass medium in real terms.

In Pakistan, rate of literacy is very low. Illiteracy is about to touch its peak. More than 70 percent of the total population is illiterate. However, radio has shouldered the responsibility of mass education in the country. It broadcasts various educational programmes, especially those of Allama Iqbal Open University, for educating masses across the country. It teaches farmers about the use of new technology; educates mothers in child care etc. The radio talks are very crucial for guiding masses. In each such talk an expert dilates upon a topic of public concern. Radio Quiz programmes are also destined for mass education.

Radio also entertains. Radio drama, features, comics, music and sports programme etc., all are entertaining for the audience. The new channel F.M One Hundred relay music programmes round the clock.

2.2.2 Television

Television is an important audio-visual electronic medium. Though it is comparatively younger in age, it has far reaching impact on the audience in every walk of life. As regards effectiveness, it has taken over the other media owning to its audio-visual quality, which creates a great sense of participation.

Basically TV is considered as a medium of entertainment. Nevertheless its great effectiveness in the fields of education, information and persuation is an acknowledged fact.

It has regularly scheduled newscasts which tell about the occurrences across the globe. It provides background and historical information in the form of documantary films.

Television is intensely entertainment oriented. It is evident even from its commercial aspect. A large number of people watch TV commercials for entertainment. Furthermore, its programmes like comics, drama, feature films, music, sports and various shows, all are for entertainment purpose.

TV is also an important means of education. Besides teaching people about daily life and inducing various professionals for adopting new technologies, TV, through its educational programmes, educates the masses. Almost all the Open Universities around the world use TV to make extended schooling possible. PTV-2 is a special channel for education in Pakistan. Allama Iqbal Open University uses this channel for teaching its students.

Television, like other media, gives small doses of persuasion masquerading as information. In the third world, where this electronic medium is almost in government control, this phenomenon is more common. So, it also plays a role as a propaganda tool.

It also performs as cultural transmitter. With television in our homes we are no longer in our home or communities alone but are exposed to the cultures of so many other peoples.

2.2.3 Films

Film is also a mass medium. It had its hey days before the invention of television. In nineteen thirtees and early forties it was a mass entertainment medium. In Pakistan nineteen seventees and early eightees people still used to go to cinemas for entertainment. However, later on the trend changed

and at present TV, especially the growth of home videos have over shadowed this medium for entertainment purposes.

Although most of films still have a basic entertainment thirst, two other factors in film making are becoming evident :

1. a distinctly persuasive information orientation in industrial or commercial films,

2. a self-conscious role as social critic in the so-called popular movies that typically play to smaller, more selective audience.

Video Tax, broadcast teletext, slow scan television and communication setellite are the newly emerging media of instant mass communication.

2.3 STATIC MEDIA

This group of media derives its name from the fact that the materials do not involve motion or sound. For instance, posters, wall charts, exhibits, displays, maps and banners etc.

2.3.1 Posters

A poster is a sheet of paper with an illustration and usually a few simple words. Posters are also a means of mass communication. These are pasted at places from where people frequently pass. Posters are designed to catch the attention of passers-by. These are usually persuasive.

2.3.2. Banners

Banners are used on special occasions for the information of masses about some event. These are localised in nature. However, their appeal is to masses.

2.3.3. Exhibits & Displays

The job of exhibits or displays is to catch the attention of the passers by, impress them about a fact or an idea, stimulate interest in the subject matter presented, and possibly urge them to take some sort of action. Exhibits/displays impart more information than posters. Wall charts and maps are also static media of information.

3. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS.

1. Explain various media of Mass Communication?
2. Assess the role a newspaper plays in your life?
3. Explain the functions performed by Magazines?
4. Describe a Magazine and differenciate its various kinds?
5. Assess the role played by Radio in your daily life?
6. Explain the functions of Radio?
7. Enumerate the various services TV and film render to our society?
8. Explain the roles of posters, exhibits, displays, banners, newsletters, pamphlets and leaflets?
9. Compare print, electronic and static media.

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Unit Eight

FOLK AND TRADITIONAL MEDIA

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1. OBJECTIVES

After Studying this unit, you should be able to :

1. Explain the importance of Folk media.
2. Distinguish between Folk and other media of communication.
3. List the characteristics of group media.
4. Describe some traditional approaches in communication.
5. Evaluate the effectiveness of Folk music, Folk sayings and Riddles.

2. SUMMARY OF THE MAJOR TOPICS

2.1 FOLK AND TRADITIONAL MEDIA :

Folk media are the traditional typical media of a particular community or nation used from the times immemorial for communication, and sharing joys and worries. It may vary from community to community and nation to nation. Various religious, caste and linguistic groups have different folk media.

The folk and traditional media are still the only mass media in the sense that they have their roots in the traditions and experiences of a large majority of a population.

2.2 CHARACTERISTICS OF FOLK MEDIA

Folk and traditional media have some salient features which advocate its effectiveness and importance. Some of them are given below :-

2.2.1. Their appeal is at personal and intimate level ;
2.2.2. Cross cultural communication hurdles are not encountered here ;
2.2.3. Rapport is immediate and direct ;
2.2.4. Available to all and sundry and enjoyed by persons of different age groups at a very low cost ;
2.2.5. Its impact is much deeper ;
2.2.6. Very useful for community development;
2.2.7. They belong to the community and not to individuals, state or private industry ;
2.2.8. No threat of cultural colonialism and foreign ideological domination.
2.2.9. Local talent and localised message would have more credibility than those centralised ones.
2.2.10. These media are comparatively cheap.
2.2.11. Acceptability, cultural relevance entertainment value, localised language, legitimacy, flexibility, message repetitionability, instant two-way communication etc. are among their virtues.
2.2.12. Culture - coated ; mental level of the audience ; prompt feed-back.

2.3 FOLK MUSIC, FOLK SAYINGS & RIDDLES

2.3.1 Folk Music :

Folk song is the foundation on which the entire edifice of music is based. The classical as well as light music derive inspiration from folk songs. Great musicians and singers have composed their exquisite melodies out of folk music.

Folk Music expresses people's inner and most powerful feelings and ideas which the ear reveals to mind thus having an elevating influence on

human minds. It is not only the expression of art but also portrays the harmony of happy living and moral of entire rural community.

It reflects the social creeds, the hopes and aspirations of the people and the intimate picture of life in the community. It contains beautiful description of hills, deserts, lakes, rivers, plains, the sun, the moon, soil and many other aspects of the nature. The way it thrills and captivates audiences is something to be felt and experienced rather than explained in words.

Folk songs of different festivals are song with their typical traditional background.

Before the advent of Islam in the sub-continent folk music was mainly confined to religious songs and psalms. So the Muslim Sufi poets found folk songs very much suitable for disseminating Islamic teachings. They considered it as an effective medium for fulfilling their mission.They realised the fact that folk music is the weakness of human beings. They composed their poetry containing religious ideas and recited it in such a charming manner that the listeners were spellbound. Their hearts throbed with the beat of music and it produced the desired effects.
Folk songs are passed on orally through generations of the traditional peasants, singers, mystic poets and wandering gypsies.

2.3.2 Folk Sayings

Folk sayings are traditional sentences that people often say and that give advice and information about life. For instance, there is a saying, man shall not live by bread alone.

Every language and community has its own sayings. Sometimes the message of one language saying is being conveyed by another but in its own environment. The sayings are considered as a means of guidelines for folks.

2.3.3 Riddles

In general usage, riddle is an act of artful communication in which a party poses a witty question to a respodent who is obliged to offer an apt reply. It is one of the oldest and the most wide-spread folk-lore generas.

Riddles evolve from common features of the group's enviroment. Linguistic environment are particularly influential. For example, what is black and white and read all over? the answer to this riddle is "Newspaper."

Each culture builds its own riddles on common practices and objects. Riddles contribute to the mainstream of those cultures from which they draw

their material. In a wide spectrum of cultures riddles also function to manage social conflicts, teach rules of conduct and conceptualise the environment of adults as well as children.

2.4 PUPPETRY AND STREET THEATRE

2.4.1 Puppetry :

Puppetry is the art of designing, constructing and operating puppets and marionettes, usually in theatrical performance. A puppet is an articulated figure controlled by external means. Most puppets represent human or animal forms, though they may also give movement to normally inanimate objects or abstract shapes.

Puppetry is considered to be one of the basic means of instruction. In puppetry serious topics are presented in a humerous and light way. It involves people in characters and story and hence, stirs them to action.

Puppets are not resented even when dealing with sensitive subjects. They have the power to convey the essence of idea.

From practical point of view, puppets are easier to organise than real-life actors.Fewer people are involved ; there is minimum rehearsal.

Puppets are particularly effective for caricatures and exaggerated presentations.

Types of Puppets

There are two most common types of puppets. They are :

a) *Marionette or string Puppet :*This puppet has a jointed body and limbs. It can be made of wood, wire, paper, etc. It is suspended by strings which are attached to different places on the body and limbs, and to a control in the puppetier's hands. Movement of the puppet if produced by moving the control and by pulling or loosening the strings.

b) *Glove or Hand Puppets :*
This is the simplest puppet. It is like a three fingured glove which fits on the hand. Because the puppet is on a human hand there is a direct life quality and through different movements and actions, the puppet character can express itself. One person can operate two puppets at one time, one on either hand.

2.4.2 Street Theatre :

The term theatre designates forms of communication based on mimetic activity. It imitates the ongoing process of human society and culture

and has been used to communicate observations about almost every aspect of life. It has served as a means of expressing the deepest emotional and spiritual intuitions of humanity as well as the lightest and most casual passing fancies. It has served to promulgate new ideas and attitudes and to confirm, celebrate challenge old ones. Its effectiveness in such matters has caused it to be, of all the arts, the most closely watched and regulated by civic and religious authorities.

Street theatre or popular theatre is probably the most common form of theatre. It is for general people. It is usually composed of folk farces.

Street theatre in the undivided India emerged not from folk or traditional theatre form but rather from the tradition of Indian adaptations of western proscenium theatre. To begin with, it was Marxist inspired. It was as it were driven to the 'Streets", because theatres would not stage such political plays which were characterised by vivid portrayal of real events, popular language and minimal props. Theatre is used for highlighting problems confronting the community. Though the cinema, TV and VCR have affected theatre but it still serves the community.

Street theatre employs local songs, dances and dialect. It aims at provoking the public to rage a war against bizarre social values and injustices marking our society. Ajoka Theatre, Awami Theatre, Naya Theatre, etc., are some of the famous theatres in Pakistan.

2.5 TRADITIONAL APPROACHES IN COMMUNICATION

To communicate with others is one of the basic fundamental needs of man. For this purpose he has been using various available means of communication since the days ancient. Some of the traditional approaches in communication are listed below :-

Drum :

Drum, whose beat still throbs the hearts, in old days was used not only for entertainment but also for information services. Drum is still a good source of traditional means of communication in many rural areas of Pakistan.

Mosque :

From old times worship places are considered as community centres and a source of communication in all religions. In Islam and particularly in our country Mosque is considered not merely a place where prayers are offered but an educational institution for both children and adults. There the followers are not only taught about religious services but also about politics, economics, social justice, how to manage their every day life and also about how to cope with the aggressor. People also exchange views here, share their sufferings and joys.

Due to religious touch worship places were, are and will be a source of communication in all societies and particularly Mosque for the Muslims in Pakistan and elsewhere in the world.

Fairs :
Fair is a festival where there is entertainment and things are sold and purchased. It provides an opportunity to people (locals) to get together. Various organisations and industrial concerns use it as a selling point. Fairs are arranged on special occasions.

Arts Councils and Cultural Shows :
Arts Councils and cultural shows are means of preserving and reviving cultural values and traditions. They are like a bond which stitches new and old generations together. They are also a reflection of the old days.

Some other traditional communication forms are : Jugglers, Moderns, Folk actors, Bhands, Folk games, story tellers, Puncheyat, etc.

4. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. What advantages folk media have over electronic media?
2. How can puppetry be used for social reforms?
3. Explain the salient features of folk meadia?
4. What traditional approaches are used in Pakistani society in the field of mass communication?
5. Explain the characteristics of group media?
6. Describe street theatre and its importance.
7. What is the importance of folk sayings, folk music and riddles?
8. Explain the role of the institutions of traditional media.

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Unit Nine

MEDIA AUDIENCE

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1. OBJECTIVES OF THE UNIT

After studying this unit, you should be able to :

1. Evaluate the importance of audience in the process of Mass Communication system.

2. Describe the criteria for becoming audience member for media offerings ;

3. Distinguish audiences of various media

4. Evaluate the characteristics of various media audience in the behaviour of their social context.

2. SUMMARY OF THE MAJOR TOPICS

2.1 MEDIA AUDIENCE

Audience is the most important part of Communication process. By media audience we mean the recipients of Mass Media messages.There is the audience of newspapers, television, radio, theatre, film and non-broadcast media. Audience of the above media are heterogeneously scattered. They are a mixture of age, sex, profession, education and social class etc and are strangers to one another. Audience is the altimate source of Mass Media revenue. If there is no audience to purchase movie tickets and recordings, subscribe to newspapers and magazines and attend to radio and T.V programmes, no mass medium could stayin business. The messages of T.V., newspapers and film etc., are determined according to the nature and behaviour of the target audience.

2.2 CATEGORIES OF AUDIENCE

There are four categories of audience.

1. The elite audience.
2. The mass audience.
3. The specialized audience.
4. The interactive audience.

The Elite Audience comprises of highly educated people and their number in the society is relatively small.

The Mass Audience represents the dominant majority in a society. They are relatively average people. Mass audience represents almost all segments of the society.

The Specialized Audience refers to the special interest groups in the society.

The Interactive Audience consists of those who have control over the communication process in a society. They may be neswspapers journalists or Radio or T.V. broadcasters.

2.3 PRE-CONDITIONS FOR MEDIA EXPOSURE

In order to be a member of media audience, certain pre-conditions must be fulfilled. These are as follows :-

A person is regarded active media audience or heavy consumer of media offerings if he/she has enough time to attend to various media. Certain media, however, are less affected by the time constraints than others. Mobility of media channel is also an important factor for utilizing media offerings. Radio record players and tape players are portable. They can accompany an audience member to a picnic spot or sporting event. Print publications are also portable and can be read while travelling.

Accessibility to media contents is also a pre-condition to become a member of mass audience. The person must be able to afford the purchase of newspaper.

Similarly programmes on radio and T.V. are useless for a person until he or she purchases radio and T.V. receivers.

Education is necessary for Print exposure, understanding the language for Radio broadcast, and visual capacity for television and film are the mandatory requirements.

2.4 THE PRINT MEDIA AUDIENCE

Contents of every newspaper in the modern age of communication are placed on pages according to the formate of agenda setting, that they appeal to a variety of people in the society. Now magazines are mostly of specialized character which are directed for the people having specialized interests. Although newspapers are not yet as specialized as magazines, their growing tendency of bringing out special supplements, specialized pages and special interest columns and essays is quite evident. In the book publishing industry, the readers find no difficulty in selecting books of their taste.

2.5 THE RADIO AND RECORDING AUDIENCE

Early broadcasts mostly consisted of classical selections and educational programmes. After the birth of the network, radio made its way in the masses. In Europe, during the thirtees, radio was truly attracting a mass audience. With the advent of television, popularity of radio fadedwhich ultimately turned to distinctive formats and its audiences fragmented into many smaller groups.

In the beginning of recording medium, record players were very expensive and only the more affluent could afford to have them. Reduction in the price of record players resulted in the emergence of a youth culture and the birth of rock and roll. The young audience quickly became its distinct consumer segment. Today many variations of rock music are available on record stands. In addition, heightened popularity of rap country, jazz and folk music indicate the emergence of various specialized consumer groups.

2.6 THE FILM AND TELEVISION AUDIENCE

Early films were produced for the entertainment of elite class who had the money for enjoyment. In 1920, motion pictures entered into mass audience stage. The arrival of television brought about a big change in the big screen and forced films to specialization. If we see our newspapers and magazines, we could know that films still have attraction for specialized audience.

Television was the medium of the elite when T.V. sets were very expensive. But it soon entered into a mass audience. T.V. programmes have mass appeal throughout the world.

2.7 THE SOCIAL CONTEXT OF MEDIA AUDIENCE

Regarding social context of the media audience, Joseph R. and Dominick in the book "the Dynamic of Mass Communication" observed that "we saw that the mass communication audience was large, heterogenous, spread out over a wide geographic area, self-defined, and anonymous to one another.

During the early part of the twentieth century, these characteristics prompted sociologists and mass communication researchers to regard this audience as a collection of isolated individuals who responded in essentially the same way to a message presented via the media. The view point, called the hypodermic needle approach, persisted for many years. It was subsequently discovered that audience members do not exist in a social vacuum. They can be placed in definable social categories based on such common characteristics as age, sex, political affiliation, occupation and education, which will also have an impact on their media behaviour. In addition, an audience member's social relationships will have an impact on media use and effect. For example, even though political candidates might spend millions of dollars on commercials, an individual's personal voting choice might be influenced more by the opinions of people in his or her interpersonal communication network-family members, co-workers, boss, or peers.

The relationship of the audience and its social context has great relevance for determining the effects of mass communication. In fact, one of the classic theories of the persuasive effects of mass communication, the multistep flow model of influence, suggests that mass media alone will be unlikely to change audience opinions on important issues precisely because the media's influence is filtered through a social network of opinion leaders. For our immediate purpose, it is important to note that, in additin, to its persuasive aspect, social context also plays a significant role in other areas of media behaviour.

For example, one study of radio listening among grade-schooler's showed that youngsters with few friends tended to be listened more than did their popular classmates. Other studies suggest that popular teenagers are apt to see more movies than their less popular peers (perhaps because they are more society integrated and attend films as a social activity). Social characteristics such as occupation and socio-economic status also affect newspaper and magazine reading. College students frequently develop new musical or film tastes because they are encouraged to sample different offerings by their roomates and friends.

Isolated audience members as those who listen to car radios or recorded music over headphones may have been influenced somewhat by their own social context.

In any case, even though mass media audiences may be scattered about and isolated from one another, the impact of the individual's social context on his or her media behaviour should not be minimized."

3. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Q.No.1. What do you know about media audience. How can you differentiate the audience of different media?

Q.No.2. Explain the various categories of media audiences. Also highlight their role in the society?

Q.No.3. What are the pre-qualifications for becoming a member of media audience?

Q.No.4. Explain the characteristics of Radio, T.V., and Newspaper audience. Also explain the difference between these media audiences.

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Unit Ten

MASS MEDIA FEEDBACK SYSTEM

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1. OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you should be able to :

1. Explain what is feedback and its importance in the Mass Media System.
2. Describe the Criteria for effective feedback.
3. Evaluate the method of getting feedback determined by messages and channels.
4. Identify the feedback system in the Mass Media.

2. SUMMARY OF THE MAJOR TOPICS

2.1 WHAT IS FEEDBACK

According to Chambers Twentieth Century Dictionary (ed.A.M. Macdonald, UK, 1972), "feedback is the return of part of the output of a system to the input as a means towards improved quality or self-correction of errors". In a Dictionary of New English, 1963 - 1972 (eds C.C. Barnhart, S. Steinmetz and R.K Barnhart, US/UK : longman, 1973), "feedback is a reciprocal effect of one person or thing upon other, a reaction or response that modifies, corrects etc, the behaviour of that which produced the reaction or response."

Feedback works like thermostat. For example, we set thermostat at the desired temperature of 60 degrees. When the temperature rises above 60 degrees, the thermostat sends message to the heat producing device. Feedback refers to those responses of the receiver that attempt to affect subsequent messages of the source. Feedback in mass communication is limited and slow as compared to interpersonal communication.

Feedback helps mass medium know who is in the audience and aids the source in structuring messages designed to interest the audience.

2.2 FORMS OF FEEDBACK

There are two different forms of feedback (1), Audience generated feedback and (2), Media organized feedback.

Audience generated feedback is the one in which the audience communicate their opinion or points of view to the mass medium. It may be in the form of letters to the editor of a newspaper or magazine, petitions delivered to media organization, phone calls to radio talk show, cancellation of a newspaper subscription and review of film and T.V show by critics.

The media-organized feedback in the one in which the media itself collect information from their audience. Examples of media organized feedbacks are the figures collected by Audit Bureau of Circulation (ABC), film box office revenue, surveys done by broadcasting organizations, readership surveys sponsored by the newspapers and list of best selling books.

Besides these two major forms of feedback there are also negative and positive feedback. Looks of disapproval, lack of interest and disagreement etc., are signs of negative feedback. It provided the source with the information that the message deviates from the pre-determined desired effect.

Contrary to negative feedback positive feedback gives indication that the message is being received as desired. On the basis of this indication the source may intensify, strengthen, continue, or enlarge the message he is already sending

2.3 CRITERIA FOR EFFECTIVE FEEDBACK

In order to strengthen the chances of feedback being effective some criteria are suggested both for giving and receiving feedback.

2.3.1 Giving Feedback Criteria

The person who gives feedback on the content of media can be effective if he follows the following instructions :-

i. IMMEDIACY

Time factor is an important element in giving feedback effectively. Ideal feedback is th eone which is sent soon after the message is received.

ii. HONESTY

Feedback should be an honest reaction to the message of communication.

iii. APPROPRIATENESS

The feedback must be appropriate to the content. Some time we do not like a person. So we dislike what he is saying. Feedback in such a situation will not be an appropriate one.

iv. CLARITY

The message of feedback should be clear and easily understandable whether you agree or disagree in both cases the message of your feedback should be clear.

v. INFORMATIVE

Feedback must convey some information on the bases of which the source may improve the message or intensify and enlarge the message he/she is already sending.

2.3.2 Receiving feedback criteria

The process of receiving feedback is effectively characterized by the following :-

i. SUPPORTIVENESS

Always support the feedback and avoid defensive responses. Defensiveness is usually regarded as a discouraging indication to feedback.

ii. OPEN MINDEDNESS

Always receive the feedback with an open mind. A negative attitude towards feedback makes the source uncomfortable as it hurts his/her ego and in such a case people usually tend to stop giving feedback.

iii. HELPFULNESS

Since writing letter to the editor of a newspaper or magazine is a difficult task sometime letters to the editor are very lengthy and are written in a rather weak language. The editor in this regard is required to be helpful in making such letters worthy of publishing. This will encourage the person to send more and more feedback and next time more probably in keeping with the standard of the newspaper.

iv. SPECIFICITY

Think of the feedback in terms of our own specific behaviour and how we can learn on the bases of that feedback.

v. FEED FORWARD

Feedback is the information which is sent back to the source, whereas feedforward is the information that is sent prior to the regular messages telling us something about future messages. Feedforward messages are predictions about issues/events that will take place in future.

2.4 CHARACTERISTICS OF FEEDBACK

Feedback is characterised in terms of behaviour and general attitude of the audience. Audience generated feedbacks for newspapers and magazines are usually sent by elderly people, usually professionals better educated and relatively resourceful. Feedbacks for radio and television programmes are also usually sent by elderly and highly educated persons having more interest in public affairs.

It has also been concluded that these people usually live alone as compared to others in community. A media organization having fully relied on the audience generated feedback, could not get a true picture of the target audience. In contrast, the media originated feedback evaluates the entire representation of the target adience. Surveys for feedback of radio, television, newspapers and magazines offerings are based on random selection of the cross section of the audiences. Both audience generated and media originated feedbacks are delayed. It takes time for letters, phone calls or cancelled subscriptions to reach the appropriate office or media organization. Similarly, media originated fedback takes time to collect circulation figures as the same reach the ABC very late. Feedback on radio and T.V., programmes is also received rather late.

2.5 MESSAGES AND CHANNELS

Feed back system is determined by channels, and messages. Newspapers and magazines rely on detailed information of the readership data which amend their policy accordingly. Magazines are interested to get information that identifies the demographics set-up of their readers. Evaluation of radio and T.V., programmes is done on the basis of the number of the listeners and viewers of their programmes. They are also interested to locate particular interest of people demographically for advertisements and other

purposes. The rating of film and recording industries is determined on the basis of their sale revenue. The recording industry collects data on records and tapes and also monitors their play on radio station as a gauge of their popularity.

2.6 COLLECTING AND COMMUNICATING DATA

Audience generated feedback such as letters to the editor are collected directly by the media organizations. They are examined and some of them are selected for publication. These organizations also maintain feedback file. Phone calls are made to radio and TV stations and a rough record of their contents is maintained.

Media originated feedbacks on radio and TV programmes are usually not collected directly by the radio and TV stations. They rely on the rating of other firms. Newspapers and magazines figures are collected by the Audit Bureau of Circulation. Information about movies are collected by specialized film magazines and box offices.

Audience-generated feedback is usually expressed in qualitative rather than quantitative terms. The critics of radio and TV programmes express their own opinion rather than the opinion of the entire audience. A letter to the editor is the opinion of one person. In contrast the media originated feedback is considered as quantitative.

Usually media organizations base their evaluation on the following criteria :-

1. Newspapers and magazines rely on circulation data reflected by the sale of newspapers and magazines at a news stands or through regular subscription.

2. Publishing companies rely on the sale of books.

3. Radio and TV rely on the percentage of people who listen and view the programmes.

4. The film and recording companies rely on box-office figures.

3. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Q.No.1. Define feedback, its importance and explain the process of feedback in Radio, TV and Newspaper.

Q.No.2. Explain the various categories of feedback in Mass Communication.

Q.No.3. What are the criteria of giving and receiving feedback system.

Q.No.4. Feedback system is determined by channels and messages. Explain it in the light of audiences responses to various Mass Media.

Q.No.5. Explain the process of collecting and expressing the feedback data.

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Unit Eleven-Twelve

COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGIES

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1. OBJECTIVES

After studying these units, you should be able.

1. Explain the basic philosophy of communication technologies and their importance in the Mass Media.

2. Identify the specific functional use of various communication technologies.

3. Evaluate the effects of various technologies on Mass Media and its impact on the society and the individual.

2. SUMMARY OF THE MAJOR TOPICS

2.1 1NTRODUCTION

The idea of mass communication was generated by Gutenberg about 550 years ago. Since then communication has been advancing through different processes and methods. Today we do not find a single part of the world that can be hidden from the eye of a satellite.

Technological revolution in media communication in its true sense started from the wire age (1844 - 1900). It was followed by wireless age (1900 - 1970). Now we are in the integrated Grid age, which is a combination of wire and wireless that forms a system with a capability of transmitting eight million words a second.

Technological breakthrough in communication took place with the invention of Gutenberg moveable type printing and progressed with broadcasting, audio-visual non-broadcast media, information storage and retrieval system, symbolic transforming capability of computers, satellite, cable and telematics etc. All these have totally changed the quality of life and universalized the human perceptions towards global development. A shift consequently, in societal values, is also taking place from regional to popular culture. Technology used in media has not only squeezed the world into a global village but has also created a media environment at homes. The public information utilities offer both general interest and specialized database through modems at the speed of 300 or 1200 bits per second. George Gerbner (1973) believes that. "In communications, we are on 'the brink of an interesting series of technological changes of a magnitude that will, in comparision, virtually dwarf all past changes. We know that the consequences of the new communication technology-economic, political, social and cultural-will be enormous. But we do not know whether their net-effects will be optimal or even beneficial in satisfying human needs, or whether society might prefer to pursue a different course if it were aware of and could select from alternative paths". Rapid technological changes bring an expanded vast awareness and renewed attention to any field of endeavour.

There is a widely held belief that the development in communication technology will provide an easy accessibility to the up-to-date information all over the world. The aim of this introduction is not to give details about all the commonly used communicational technology such as Radio, T.V., Tape-recorder, Printing Press etc., which have been repeatedly discussed since their inception. The main emphasis of this commentery is to briefly highlight the functional use of the latest technological trends and techniques of media of communication. Some of them are highlighted below :-

2.2 SATELLITES

Modern communication age truely started with the arrival of satellites which changed the proliferational approaches of communication and literally shrunk the world into a "Global Village".

Satellite placed in the orbit about 20000 miles above the earth, remains constantly in the same position in relation to its earth station. It rotates around the earth at the same speed the earth rotates. A signal is sent through the earth transmitter to satellite for moulding it to different frequencies and come back to earth directly through mountable roof top antenna (Dish) for T.V., viewers. According to Micheal W. Gamble and Teri Kwal Gamble (1986 - 387), the cost of earth station (Dish) dropped from $ 10,000 to about $ 300 or less. Thus, whereas once only cable or other communication companies could offered them, today the number of individually owned earth stations is increasing.

Presently satellites have been functioning in orbit for different purposes and a great number of countries have direct links with them. International telephone dialing system is also operating through satellite. Satellites have also been in use for regional, national and international purposes. These are also used for marine, aeroneutical and military purposes. In fact, most of the international events today are being broadcast via Satellite system which is cost effective as compared to other signals of broadcasting. Satellite has provided speed, range and coverage far beyond those obtainable by other means of communication.

2.3 CABLE TELEVISION

Cable television is a system through which signals are sent and received by cable. The idea of cable television was initially generated to improve poor off-air TV signal in communities at a distance or living in remote mountainous areas.

Today cable television is tied-up with Satellite which has internationalized the cable network. The marriage of Fibre-optics with cable TV can make it possible to handle a great number of channels. Cable television is thus no longer only the promise to ensure television for all or improve reception but at the same time it has become an opportunity for presenting all kinds of programmes to the subscribers.

Cable television systems are mostly owned by private interpreneurs with minimum restrictions. Contrary to broadcast, cable television does not avoid criticism.

2.4 TELETEXT

Teletext is another communication innovation that provides potential opportunites in news. It is a broadcasting signal providing verbal and visual journalistic information through subscribers' T.V sets. Like a cable television, the subscriber of teletext service has a decoder which tunes the signals of teletext on screen whenever they are desired. It is a one way communication.The system of teletext is a computer based device which generates letters, numbers, symbols and graphics. Copy is placed into a computer at the station for transmission to the home viewing set. Teletext delivers news in the same way as a newspaper does from newsroom to home, but it apears on the TV screen.

2.5 VIDEOTEX

Videotext is a two-way communication technology that transmits messages on power station via cable TV system or the telephone lines directly to TV set or to home computer. These electronic messages are called view data. The idea behind local videotex system is to provide data bases with local information. The print and broadcast writers can equally take advantage of this technology. Videotex provides more items than broadcast signal.

2.6 COMPARISION OF VIDEOTEX AND TELETEXT.

Both videotex and teletext are quite generic terms (M. Imtiaz Shahid 1991 - 96). "Videotex resembles teletext in that the user can select pages of information. With videotex, however, the user gets the information immediately as it is called up from the data bank. Whereas with teletext the user must wait although usually for less than a minute, until the transmission system completes its circle of sending all other pages before sending of the page that correspondes to the request". Teletext is a one way communication whereas videotex is a two way interactive system. Videotex is connected to a much larger computer and can transmit more pages of data as compared to teletext. In this regard Michael W. Teri Kwal Gamble (1986 : 392) has observed. "We are talking about teletext or videotex , one way or two way capability. What is significant is that the electronic delivery of information ranging from hard news to weather and traffic reports, classified ads, books and movies reviews and electronic mail frivolous data is here. No longer TV is just a picture tube, it can now also function as an information screen. In fact, the basic ingredient of both types of systems is old fashioned print, flashing across your television and available to you at your request ".

2.7 TELEMATICS AND DATA BASE

Telematics is a combination of Computer and Telecommunication. It may be used for many purposes such as teleconferencing, credit transactions airline reservation etc. Our particular concern is its use in the provision of information, whether the information is bibliographic reference from a library, a computer programme, directory information, facimile, factual data, text or any other kind of recorded information. The provision of various information on the telematics technology is generally called data-base.

By the use of telematics, the cost of storing alphanumeric data in large electronic storage units is now much cheaper than storing the data on paper, in filing cabinets or even in the form of printed books. Information retrieval system permitting a fast and efficient search of library databases-books, reports, legal documents, etc., are now in common use.

Database is a computerized filing system. If you make an airline or hotel reservation, you are dealing with database. After filling in the Identity Card registration form then it goes to a database. Likewise when you pay your electricity bill, it goes to database. In advanced countries, there are public databases which are available to anyone who has a computer and a means of accessing them. These databases ranging from business, government, social sciences, engineering to medicine are accessible to the

home computers which in turn are connected to the public information utility (database computer) and work through the telephone lines or cable telephone lines.

2.8 FIBRE-OPTIC

Fibre-optic is the great advancement of Telephonic Communications which passes digital codes in pulsing light covering about 100,000 telephone calls through a cable like a human hair. Edward Joy Whetmor (1982 : 341) said, "It may soon be possible to use one wire to receive phones, TV network and all other electronic communications". Experts are also of the view that since cables net-work in all forms is limited, so the future will see a union of Fibre-optic and Satellite.

2.9 ELECTRONIC NEWSROOM

Communication Technology entered into the newspaper organization long before 1960, when publishers decided to scrap decades old publishing technology. Manual type-writers in the newsroom were replaced with electric type-writers which were subsequently replaced by computers. Now computer linked video display terminals (VDTs) have changed the whole complexion of newspaper newsroom which is rightly called electronic newsroom.

Journalists now write their stories electronically on video screen and then feed them to a computer modem for storage and retrieval. With this system, editors get the stories on computer monitor for editing. After the needful is done, the editor sends the edited stories through computer to electronic typesetter for print out. The electronic phototype setter can print hundreds of lines of finished copy each minute. The finished printed news copies are then transferred to paper for layout and pasting purposes and from here onward the work to print the newspaper on web rotri machine starts.

2.10 EFFECTS OF INFORMATION TECHNOLOGIES

The spread of information technology means better safeguard of democracy. It generates awareness and public participation in developmental affairs which ultimately improves health care, education and eliminates famine.

It has roughly been estimated that in the United States the average time spent by adults reading newspaper is 52 minutes per day. The same person also spends time in reading magazines, books, sings, billboards, recipes,instructions, lebels on cans etc. Surrounded by print, he digests between 10,000 to 20,000 edited words per day. The same person also probably spends an hour and a quarter per day listening to radio and viewing television. He may also listen to news, commercials, commentary or other such programmes. During this period he hears about 1,13,000 words or so, plus a sequence of carefully arranged, highly purposive visuals.

Communication technology is a highly marketable commodity. Trade in technology has risen to billions in payment, royalities and fees. Most technology trade occurs among the developing countries.

The new generation is now dominant which can communicate with the computer internet with ease over various transmission links. Programming is now taught at an early age in schools, and most of the well-educated persons under 30 can use one programming language fluently. The computer and software industries have spent much time and money developing the man-machine interface' so that the ubiquitous terminals are usable by the greatest number of people. Despite all this, people have an ambivalent attitude towards the technological development. Some minds seem naturally at home with the new technology whereas for others it is a struggle. There are people who seem to have a built-in hostility to this form of communication, which is becoming so vital in society.

A person who is well-adapted to the information technology can carry out an amazing number of different functions from his home terminals. An ever-increasing world of computer, data banks, sound, film, and picture libraries is there to explore. Many authorities, however, still believe that technology is only in its infancy. Certainly a vast amount of work lies ahead in building-up the data banks, writing teaching programmes, improving computer-assisted medical diagnosis and so on. Many data bank uses, that met with initial scepticism from the professional men they were designed for, are now gaining wide acceptance. Yet an enormous amount of work is required to bring awareness in the field.

Technological innovation, in other words, takes place within specific institutional, economic, and political environments which determine the distribution of the benefits to be derived from that technology. In the case of information, therefore, it is quite possible that the development of new technology will ably serve to widen the existing distance between the information rich and the information poor within a particular user community, or perhaps to change the identities of the rich and poor. This applies not only to individuals of course, but also to broader social and functional groups, to those differently situated geographically, to different types of institutions, to specific countries, and ultimately to the relations between the developed and underdeveloped worlds.

3. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Explain communication technologies and their importance for the present day societies.

2. What technological trends do you observe in the newspapers, radio and television of our country?

3. Write in detail about the functional uses of various communication technologies.

4. Analyse the effects of communication technologies on soceity and individual.

5. Highlight the magic of technologies squeezing the world into a global village.

6. Explain the merits and demerits of technologies for the Mass Media communication.

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Unit Thirteen

INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION

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1. OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you should be able to :

1. Define the terms culture, communication and intercultural communication
2. Descuss how cultural groups interact with each other and differ from each other ;
3. Identify the means of intercultural communication,
4. Point out the obstacles and barriers to intercultural communication,
5. Discuss the effects of intercultural communication,
6. Describe the idea of Global Village,
7. Discuss the effects of satellites/dishes and video on culture,
8. Discuss and use the major approaches to study intercultural communication.

2. SUMMARY OF THE MAJOR TOPICS

2.1 CULTURE

Culture and society are thoroughly inter related. The patterns by which people live and the values that justify those patterns are learned from the time of infancy until we can hardly imagine any other way of life. Social scientists use to term culture to refer to a population's characteristic values, belief, behaviours, and artifacts which are preserved and transmitted from generation to generation.

In sociology the concept of culture includes all those aspects of human life that are learned and shared by the members of a society. In every culture there is a complex interaction and inter-relationship of material objects, skills, rules and values, all working together.

2.2 COMMUNICATION

Communication has been broadly defined as "the sharing of experience" and to some extent all living organisms can be said to share experience. What makes human communication unique is the superior ability to create and to use symbols, for it is this ability that enables humans to "share experiences indirectly and vicariously."

Human Communication occurs in several kinds of situations. Six different contexts seem to be widely agreed upon in the communication literature. These are ;

1. Two Persons
2. Interviewing
3. Small group
4. Public
5. Organizational, and
6. Mass Communication

Each of these contexts has some unique characteristics. When these all share in common they establish the process of commonness between two or more people. And all the six sometimes involve intercultural communication, another variable we are examining in this unit.

2.3 INTERACTION OF DIFFERENT CULTURES

Human society is a omposition of various cultural groups, commonly known as communities. These communities have their 'own' cultures and they interact among themselves in different ways. This interaction has been gradually increasing during the last fifty years or so, due to the advances in transportation and communication which have opened the world do most of us.

Until the middle of the 20th century, most people spend their entire lives in their own communities. The people they knew shared their language, experiences, customs

and ways of life. A few, such as traders, saw a broader world and returned to tell about it, but most news from the outside world were months old, if those reached at all. But the present day society has been entirely restructured. The concept of distance and time has altogether changed. Now the telephone networks, airlinks, satellite communications systems and many other technological interventions are rapidly reshaping the face of earth and through intercultural communication creating an international community, sometimes, referred as a "global village".

As we will see later on, intercultural communication can occur in various contexts, from intimate dyadic communication to formal organizational and mass communication. Whenever intercultural communication occurs, the differences in the participants frames of reference make the task of communication more complicated and more difficult, especially since participants may not be aware of all aspects of each others cultures. From another perspective, adjustment to a foreign culture often includes experiences of cultural shock; "feeling of helplessness, withdrawal, paranoia, irritability, and a desire for a home". To compound the problem, readjustment to one's home culture after an experience in another culture produces a shock of its own : reverse cultural shock. This may result from changes in attitudes, ways of interacting, and the like.

The above factors have in fact fascinated scholars in the past few years to study more deeply the process of interaction among different cultures and such studies have lead to the creation of a new discipline - Intercultural communication.

2.4 INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION

Intercultural communication is defined as "communication between members of different cultures. (Whether defined in terms of racial, ethnic, or socio-economic differences, or a combination of these differences). Culture is a way of life developed and shared by a group of people and passed upon from generation to generation.

Samovar and Porter, write "whenever the parties of a communication act, bring with them different backgrounds that reflect a long standing deposit of group experience, knowledge, and values, we have intercultural communications."

This dimension of experience cuts across all communication context as mentioned above. Intercultural Communication is relevant to all the societies of present age.

Dan Landis, defines Intercultural Communication in the International Encyclopedia of Communications, in the following terms :

"The process of communication across cultural boundaries : also the academic discipline studying it".

Let us examine this definition in detail. According to this definition the intercultural communication is a PROCESS and an ACADEMIC DISCIPLINE simultaneously.

As a process it involves the concept of culture, which from this perspective is assumed to represent a unitary whole best understtood from the point of view of the actors (e.g., individuals, institutions) involved.

As an academic discipline intercultural communication involves an examination of language and other constituents of interactions in different cultural settings, determinations of their relative importance for the actors involved, and an analysis of other factors that may have an influence on the process. So far three major theoretical perspectives have emerged to account for the phenomena of interest in the field :

I. The Empiricist Approach
II. The Phenomenological Approach
III. The System Approach

All these approaches would be discussed in the following parts :

2.5 DISTINCTION AMONG CULTURES

Differences between two cultural groups range from the slight to the very dramatic. If we compare a primitive culture of any underdeveloped community of Africa with the highly industrialized cultures of Japan or the United States, we can understand the range of differences.

Such radical differences among cultures usually occur when there has been little exchange between them or, in some cases with other cultures in general. But distinctions between two cultural groups, however, are not always so evident.

Cultures of the same regions, always share more common features, as compared to the cultures of various regions, for examples, Pakistani culture ; cultures of South Asian Region ; and cultures of African and American continents. But such differences among cultures do not occur abruptly at regional or national borders, but gradually over a vast range.

2.6 MEANS OF INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION

The means of intercultural communication have dramaticaly increased during past few decades primarily through rapid increase in technology.

Two world communication networks now span the globe :

A network of telecommunications, including television, telephone, radio, satellite communication systems, and the new wire services, allow us to communicate across great distances.

A network of transportation especially of air travel, makes travel across great distances feasible.

Even in ancient times, long distances communication and tourism existed, but they were confined to very limited and privileged classes. On the other hand, if one

looks at the present facilities he would be astonished by the unfathomable limits and daccessibility of the modern technologies.

2.7 OBSTACLES TO INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION

Although modern means of travel and communication have brought us into contact with virtually the whole world, the technical capacity to transmit and receive messages is not in itself, enough to allow people who have vastly different cultures to communicate with one another.

The dramatic improvements in the technological means of communication have in many instances outstripped our abilities to communicate effectively with people who have different languages, different beleifs and value systems and different expectations of relationships. Repeatedly, interaction between people of different cultures has created far more misunderstanding than understanding.

Some of the principles used by theorists to describe the communication process, are also applicable to the intercultural exchanges, such as ;

i. A shared code system - having two aspects : viz verbal and non-verbal, without such a shared system, cmmunication will be impossible.
ii. Different beliefs and behaviour between communicators establish the basis for different assumptions from which to respond. Thus two people of different cultures can easily attribute different meanings to the same behaviour.
iii. The level of knowing and accepting the beliefs and behavious of others. Notice that there are two components ; knowledge and acceptance.

Adopting a shared code system, acknowledging differences in beliefs and behaviours, and learning to be tolerant of the beliefs and behaviours of others all contribute to effective communication.

2.8 BARRIERS TO INTERCULTURAL UNDERSTANDING

We cannot learn another language by simply memorizing the words and grammatical structures. A language is a complex system, intricately related to culture, and it cannot be mastered by simple substitutions. Nor can we master a culture by memorizing a list of symbols, norms, and values, even if it were possible to memorize all of them.

Learning aspects of a given culture, therefore, will not allow you to understand that culture in the same way you understand your own. The more diverse two cultures are, the wider the division between their people, and the less they can come to really understand each other.

The sociologists and theorists of intercultural communication identify the following barriers to intercultural understanding :

2.8..1 Ethnocentrism

The tendency to judge the values, customs, behaviours or other aspects of another culture using our own group and our own customs as the standards for all judgements is ethnocentrism.

2.8.2 Mass Effect

Under some circumstances, our inability to know "millions of people" or comprehend them as individuals may become more pronounced. A theorist, Escarpit, describes it as Mass Effect. To him it "seems to arise when an observers" channels of communication are inadequate to the number of people wih whom he has to deal".

2.8.3 Stereotyping

Stereotyping is a form of personal generalizations. We tend to impose strereotypes on groups of people, which limits our communication with those groups.

2.9 EFFECTS OF INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION

Although intercultural communication increasingly affects the world we live in, most scholars agree that the obstacles to intercultural communication and understanding will probably always mean that little of that communication will occur at a personal level ; on the other hand, most intercultural communication is necessarily institutional. Mass communication in itself, is institutional.

The effects of intercultural communication could be measured on three different levels, i.e.,

i. Effects on the individual
ii. Social and political effects
iii. Cultural effects

Intercultural communication affects each of us as individuals because it expands the world we live in. We live in a two-story culture, but we don't communicate at both levels in the same way. Communication at the second level is mostly institutional. At this level, international organizations have far reaching social political and cultural effects.

2.10 GLOBAL VILLAGE

Spectacular advances in communication techniques during recent years have broken down national barriers. The planet Earth is enmeshed in an electronic net extending 22,300 miles into space. Through this invisible Web pulses an unending barrage of messages - blunt and subtle, essential and trivial - that shape the decisions and values of every person.

As the techniques of swift communication have expanded, ownership of the mass media has taken on a significant international tone. So has their editorial direction. The theoretical vision of the world as a global village, while still far from reality, is beginning to emerge as a valid concept.

Mass communication around the world affect life during this final decade of the twentieth century in far more ways than we realize. They flood us with information and entertainment. They influence the decisions of governments, leapover national frontiers, and stimulate trends in society.

The ability to deliver works and pictures by using the presently available fascinating techniques of mass communication, to the remotest villages of the world swiftly and adundantly has opened doors, yet it is the content of the messages transmitted that can open minds. The process of opening minds can further enhance the understanding among the intercultural groups to help materialize the dream of a Global Village.

2.11 EFFECT OF SATELLITES/DISHES AND VIDEO ON CULTURE

2.11.1 Satellites

The use of satellite as relay stations has truly revolutionized the transmission of messages and pictures arround the world. The large dishlike receiving antennas, componly installed on the roofs of the houses or in the back yards, are used to receive the messages and pictures from various satellites parked in the space. The people of the world join together through the satellites network and dish antennas.

Transmission by satellite is cheaper, faster and more reliable than by ground lines. Use of satellite transmission grows constantly as the media and commercial, government and private interests find new and ingenious applications for it.

Many countries have their own domestic and regional satellite systems. Additional satellite systems serve marine, aeronautical, weather and military purposes.

A number of satellites have been used for developmental purposes - to provide education, health care, social services, agricultural information, and cultural enrichment to less developed countries. The satellite systems also enable various member countries to engage in audio/video conferencing and class room sessions and to exchange information on a variety of subjects.

2.11.2 Videotape

The videotape is one of the essential tools of modern communication. It has multiplied our ability to capture, preserve, and display moving visual images. The tape has brought into being an entirely new type of mass communication video. Now-a-days the use of VTRs/VCRs is increasing, on which people can play as well as record TV Programmes for later replay.

2.11.3 Effects

The above mentioned tools of modern communication are tremendously increasing communication and affecting the societies of the world in multiple ways.

The introduction of new communication technologies and accompanying materials diffused through them has been a matter of study and concern for the scholars of intercultural communication. The major questions have centered on the possible negative consequences on a culture receiving substantial amounts of entertainment, news, films, and other materials produced in foreign countries. The hypothesised effects include both individual level and society wide outcomes such as changes in consumption patterns, preferences in media use (foreign over locally produced materials), and even political and ideological issues. These are, however, unresolved issues that continue to be studied by academics and several international agencies such as the UNESCO.

2.12 MAJOR APPROACHES TO STUDY INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION

As listed before, there are three main approaches to the study of intercultural communication :

2.12.1 The Empirical Approach

This view assumes that the characteristics of sender (s) and receiver (s) are somehow different because of thier different cultural backgrounds. All types of exchanges, including non-verbal communication, are assumed to be affected by these differences.

2.12.2 The Phenomenological Approach

Emphasis in this approach is on the point of view of the participant.Thus this approach relies on interpretation : by the participants, of the events they initiate or participate in ; and by the researcher seeking to make sense of the phenomenon under study.

2.12.3 The System Approach

This approach represents an effort to synthesize, but also broaden, the scope of the discipline. The system view takes into account the previous two approaches as component parts.

P.E. Rohrlich has suggested that intercultural communication is best regarded "as a set of interacting elements, actors, interacting in a physically and culturally compounded environment. While the environment exists apart from the system, its cultural relevance derives from cultural perception of it by the system's actors ..... The elements of the system maintain socio psycho/cultural depth of cognitive perception which they bring to both intentionally and unintentionally communicated messages."

Rohrlich argues that three distinct but inter-related levels - intrapersonal, interpersonal, and synthetic - can be indentified, each having specific attributes, research interests, and areas of application.

3. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Q.No.1. Define the following :-

i. Culture
ii. Communication
iii. Cutural Communication
iv. Reverse Cultural Shock
v. Cultural Shock

Q.No.2. Briefly discuss the nature of distinctions among cultures.

Q.No.3. Write notes on the two world communication networks.

Q.No.4. How intercultural communication obstacles could be removed to improve effective communication? Discuss.

Q.No.5. Write short notes on the following barriers to intercultural communication.

i. Ethnocentrism
ii. Mass Effects
iii. Stereotyping

Q.No.6. Discuss effects of Intercultural Communication on different levels.

Q.No.7. Briefly discuss the vision of global village.

Q.No.8. What are the effects of satellites/dishes and video on culture?

Q.No.9. Write short notes on the following approaches to study intercultural communication.

i. The Empirical Approach
ii. The Phenomenological Approach
iii. The System Approach

Q.No.10. What does the communication theorist P.E. Rohrlich suggest regarding the intercultural communication?

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Unit Fourteen

COMMUNICATION : TRENDS AND CHALLENGES

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1. OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you should be able to :

1. Describe the factors influencing contents of Mass Media.

2. Analyse the imbalance and domination created by the free flow of information.

3. Describe the means for democratization of Communication.

4. Identify the factors responsible for obstructing the freedom of Communication.

2. SUMMARY OF THE MAJOR TOPICS

2.1 DISTORTION OF CONTENTS

In spite of the fact that we are living in a global village, yet we are not well informed about the actual picture of most of the events. Mostly news are made inaccurately and biased. Distortions in the message of communication are usually found in data supply, cultural presentation and leisure products etc. Literary distortion in news means replacement of authentic facts by inaccuracy. Distortion in contents of messages may also be found in various other ways ; events of less importance are wilfully made important and placed at the high agenda ; random facts are presented as representation of the whole ; events are presented in a way that exaggerates doubts and fears. Another way of distortion is to maintain silence on facts and events presumed to be of no public interest. In some societies communicators do not have access to information sources. Biased attitude and ethnocentricity in some communications greatly influence the selection process of information and tune, it for a particular interest. Restricting the space for printed material and time allocation for electronic media is further reason for distortion of content.

2.2 CULTURAL ALIENATION

The opening of doors to new experiences and impressions by media sometimes alienate people from their own culture. The globel dissemination of information has brought about a certain degree of homogeniety among different societies while at the same time people are getting away from the society in which they are living. The more the media penetrates into the lives of people through global mediation, the greater it alienates people from their own culture.

2.3 SHARED RESPONSIBILITIES

According to UNESCO's Publications "Many voices one world", the subjects of imbalance and domination were among the most contentious in the early rounds of the world-wide debate on communications. On the one side there was the overwhelming amount of news and messages generated and disseminated by the developed world with conscious or unconscious distortions of the present-day realities and aspirations of the developing countries, while on the other hand there was complete lack of resources with the developing world which permitted little chance for their voices to be heard.

For others, the free flow of information was the primordial consideration fundamental to all communication, and to be protected from any threats by governmental interference of authoritarian regimes. Monopolistic tendencies or transitional operations in national and world communication were not responsible for existing inadequacies ; it was merely up to developing countries to improve their capacities, and not restrict those of others.

Obviously, the world's communication problems are not so simplistic or categorically one-sided. True, a majority of countries are ill-equipped with communication

resources compared to the industrialized world. But such imbalances are not only due to vestiges of the past, but also to present-day national and international realities; remedies must be found in joint actions by both developed and developing countries. It is also true that freedom of information is not sanctified the world over, it is not only threatened by defensive attitudes against cutural intrusion, but also by attempts to safeguard positions of privilege and power. It must also be admitted that transnational corporations play an even more active role in communication and cultural activities, as their activities grow in the provision of communication infrastructure news circulation, broadcasting programmes, software for educational purposes, book production, translations, visual aids, computers, cinema films, data banks, equipment, training and so on. While their contribution to the spread of facilities for cultural development and communication has been considerable, their activities nevertheless give rise to concern from a number of view points. However, transnationals could not operate as they do without their acceptance by elites in many developing countries. Indeed, one can often find closer links between privileged groups in some countries and the purveyers of foreign models which they imitate than ties with the majority of their countrymen. This shared similarity of needs and taste, familiar in many places and mutually supporting for host-country authorities and transnational operations, has opened the passage for cultural intrusions.

2.4 EXTERNAL INFLUENCE/COMMUNICATION IMBALANCES

In many countries, governments have formulated policies to curve down penetration into the communication system. Some governments adopted the most direct control to resist this potential danger with the application of strict censorship and border restrictions. UNESCO's report says cultural flows between countries show how serious the imbalance is. The media in developing countries take a high percentage of their cultural and entertainment content from a few developed countries, and chiefly from a few large producers in those countries. The flow in the other direction is a mere trickle by comparison. But the problem cannot be stated purely in quantitative terms. The developed countries get the selected best of the culture (chiefly music and dance) from developing countries ; the latter get a lot of what on any objective standard is the worst produced by the former. This unequal exchange is inevitably harmful to national cultures in developing countries. Their writers, musicians, film-makers and other creative artists find themselves pushed aside by imported products. Local imitations of imported culture and entertainment do not improve the situation ; they too lead to the imposition of external values.

The connecting thread in this process is a commercial approach to culture, operating to the deteriment of true values. Transnational companies are playing an ever more active role in the world-wide provision of communication infrastructures, news circulation, cultutural products, educational software, books, films, equipment and training. Although their role in extending facilities for cultural development and communication has been considerable, they also promote alien attitudes across cultural frontiers.

This is considered by some authors as "cultural invasion" the type of intrusion that represents one of the major problems to be faced by everyone dealing with interna-

tional communication issues. The socio-cultural tastes of foreign countries have been widely disseminated and are familiar to and often admired by many ; people imitate them and they maybecome adopted norms of human behaviour in the countries exposed to them. Another negative factor is that creative artists in developing countries like authors, musicians, playwrights, script-writers, film-makers-often find it difficult to stand up to the competition of the industrialized products of the big conglomerates.

However, transnationals could not exert so much influence without the willing assistance of elites in developing countries. The responsibility is shared by external forces and by social and economic groups who have acquired a privileged position since the attainment of political independence. Without mutual support and understanding among those who have thus come to adopt a common outlook, cultural uniformity would not have spread to such an extent.

2.5 FREEDOM OF COMMUNICATION

The right to communicate is the essential feature of democracy and liberty. Today a struggle for the right to speak, write and read, access to information, participation in the communication process and a demand for two-way flow of information are the burning topics in all parts of the world. Basically freedom of communication means that all communication resources be available for the satisfaction of human communication needs. UNESCO comments on this issue that :

> "The call of democratization of comunication has many connotations ; many more than are usually considered. It obviously includes providing more and varied means to more people, but democratization can not be simply reduced to its quantitative aspects, to additional facilities. It means broader access to existing media by the general public but access is only a part of the democratization process. It also means broader possibilities for nations, political forces, cultural communities, economic entities, and social groups to interchange information on a more equal footing, without dominance over the weaker partners and without discrimination against any one. In other words it implies a change of outlook. There is surely a necessityfor more abundant information from a plurality of sources. But if the opportunity to reciprocate is not available, the communication process is not adequately democratic. Without a two-way flow between participants in the process, without the existence of multiple information sources permitting wider selection, without more opportunity for each individual to reach decisions based on a broad awareness of divergent facts and viewpoints, without increased participation by readers, viewers and listeners in the decision-making and programming activities of the media, true democratization will not become a reality."

2.6 BARRIERS TO FREEDOM OF COMMUNICATION

There are variety of political systems prevailing in different parts of the world which have shapped up their communication policy accordingly. A rigid, centralized and bureaucratic system of government curtails the freedom of communication. Hypodermic needle of communication approach suits to such system where innovation is restricted

and communication is unresponsive to the needs of the audience. Bureaucratic habits in communication are not only found in the developing countries but also in the developed countries.

The involvement of communication technology has resulted in unprecedented expansion information system but this development has also restricted the access to information resources for those who can not afford to acquire necessary gadgets. So, technology advances in communication are a hurdle to extend the communication to broad audience. Inadequacy of communication channels and non-existence of basic communication facilities to individual is also a powerful constraint.

Variety of communication contents for the gratification of varied audience is a basic requirement for the concept of democratic communication. This freedom suffers owing to the concentration of power over communication.

Communication policy in some parts of the world is also criticized as it usually excludes the disadvantaged groups from the normal communication channels. The problems of giving time and space to the poor, ethnic groups, women and children, language and religious minorities, the handicapped and geographically isolated audience exists everywhere in the world, but the intensity varies from country to country.

The issue of poor in understanding, frame of reference, field of experience and cognitive dissonance are also to be considered while thinking of democratization of communication.

3. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Q.No.1 What do you mean by distortion in news presentation. Explain its various forms?

Q.No.2. How media can alienate people from their culture?

Q.No.3. What are the factors responsible for imbalance discrimination of information in the international sphere. How it could be avoided?

Q.No.4. What do you mean by democratization of communication?

Q.No.5. What are the barriers to freedom of communication?

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Unit Fifteen

PROSPECTS AND CHALLENGES OF INTERNATIONAL COMMUNICATION

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1. OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you should be able to :

1. Explain the role of Mass Media in the International share.

2. Discuss the effects of free flow of information.

3. Describe the assumption of "New Information World Order" and identify the concerns of the third world countries towards international communication.

4. Evaluate the role of UNESCO in democratization of international flow of information.

2. SUMMARY OF THE MAJOR TOPICS

2.1 CONCEPT OF INTERNATIONAL COMMUNICATION

Any communication that goes across the national boundaries is called "International Communication". In the olden days communication was oral and restricted only to face to face. The earliest writing is found on stones, on walls of caves and on other primitive materials. Traders, conquerors and missionaries spread gradually which expanded their language and introduced experiences of one part of the world to the others. The international communication developed when "Gutenberg" invented moveable type. With the introduction of printing press, newspapers, magazines and books were printed at quick pace and reached thousands of people and also the people across national boundaries. Now international communication is a part and parcel of today's society.

The development of information technology is a base for the informatics revolution. It has brought about greater changes in economic and social life. After sending satellite into the orbit, international communication has become a powerful source of the West for obtaining supremacy in economic, political and cultural spheres whereas, it has become a great threat for the developing nations to safeguard their state sovereignty and social and cultural values. The feelings of supremacy and threat has produced confrontations between the interests of the developed and developing countries. These feelings have also posed serious issues and challenges in the spheres of international communications.

2.2 FREE FLOW OF INFORMATION

The "Free Flow of Information" is a concept linked to the freedom of speech and opinion. Every one has the right to freedom of opinion and expression. This right includes freedom to hold opinions without interference and to seek, receive and impact information and ideas through any media regardless of frontiers. Free flow of information should be two-way not simply in one direction. Imbalance in free flow of information seriously hinders the spirit of true flow. Viewed in this context, the one-way flow of information is a reflection of the world's dominant political, economic, social and cultural structures which tend to reinforce the dependence of poorer countries on the richer. Imported programmes by media of developed countries may represent a threat to the quality and values of indigenous culture, alienating people from their own way of life. The Western cultural tastes are admired by many people in less developed countries and are easily adopted by those exposed to them. This results in cultural invasion.

2.3 NEW INFORMATION WORLD ORDER

International communication based on the principle of free flow of information has been questioned in 1960s and 1970s by the non-aligned nations as it seems to them that the free flow of international information has been dominated by developed countries. The non-aligned countries see themselves as victims of "cultural colonialism". It is argued that the imbalances in economic and socio cultural exchange of information between the poor and rich countries became the focus of attention for the nonaligned

countries. The developed countries' media is exporting their ideas, values and traditions and the news material of their own interest to the developing countries, which are neither wanted nor needed by them. The exportation of such material has become a great cause of acculturation in these countries. Developing countries from Africa and Asia discussed the issue of free flow information in 1965 at a meeting in Bandung, Indonesia and in 1970s, more than ninety developing countries joined them against the imbalance flow of international communication. The issue was brought to the platform of UNESCO in 1973 to discuss the reorganization of existing communication channels that are the legacy of colonial past. The nonaligned countries demanded for the equal share in the dissemination of information in the international spheres. The movement gained momentum which coined a new term "New Informationn World Order.

"A leading figure of this movement is Mustapha Masmoudi, Tanzanian former Secretary of State for information, who presented the following view at the 1976 nonaligned news symposium."Information in the modern world is characterized by basic imbalance. These imbalances take the following forms."

2.3.1 Quantitative Imbalance of News

This imbalance is created by the disparity between the volume of news and information emanating from the developed world and intended for the developing countries and the volume of the flow in the opposite direction. Almost 80 percent of the world news flow emanates from the major transnational agencies, however, these devote only 20 to 30 percent of news coverage to the developing countries.

2.3.2 Inequality in Information Resources.

The western major information agencies have monopolized the world information resources while the developing countries have no means of protecting themselves against the information invasion of the west. It is frequently difficult for them to compete.

2.3.3 Hegemony and a Will to Dominate

Hegemony and domination are found on financial, industrial, cultural and technological power and result in most of the developing countries being relegated to the status of mere consumer of information sold as commodity like any other. They are exercised above all through the control of the information flow, wrested and wielded by the transnational agencies operating without let or hindrance in most developing countries and based in turn on the control of technology, illustrated by the communication systems, which are completely dominated by the major international consortia.

2.3.4 Lack of Information on the Developing Countries

Current events in the third world are transmitted after the transnational media process, filter, cut and distort them on their way of seeing the world upon the developing countries. These international media give much time and space to

the stories of strikes, crises, street demonstrations, putsches etc. If and when press in these industrialized countries does present the Third World problems, achievements and aspirations in an objective light, it does so in the form of special supplements or issues, for which high rates or payment are charged.

2.3.5 Survival of the Colonial Era

The present day information system enshrines a form of political, economic and cultural colonialism which is reflected in the often tendentious interpretation of news concerning the developing countries.This consists in highlighting events whose significance in certain cases, is limited or even non-existent in collecting isolated facts and presenting them as a "whole" in setting out facts in such away that the conclusion to be drawn from them is necessarily favourable to the interests of the transnational system in amplifying small-scale events so as to arouse unjustified fears in keeping silent on situation unfavourable to the interests of the countries of origin of these media. Likewise information is distorted by reference to moral, cultural or political values peculiar to certain states.

2.3.6 An Alienating Influence in the Economic, Social and Cultural Spheres

In addition to dominating and manipulating the international news flow, advertising magazines and television programmes are today so many instruments of cultural domination and acculturation, transmitting to the developing countries messages which are harmful to their cultures, contrary to their values and detrimental to their development aims and efforts.

2.3.7 Messages ill-suited to the Areas in Which They are Disseminated

Important news are deliberately neglected by the major media in favour of other information of interest only to public opinion in the country to which the media in question belong. Such news is transmitted to the client countries and is indeed practically imposed on them, despite the fact that leaders and listeners in these countries have no interest therein. Their news coverage is designed to meet the national needs of their countries of origin. They even ignore the important minorities and foreign communities living on their national territory, whose needs in matters of information are different from their own.

The fact can not therefore be blinked that the present information order, based as it is on a quasi-monopolistic concentration of the power to communicate in the hands of a few developed nations, is incapable of meeting the aspirations of the international community, which stands in great need of a system capable of fostering more satisfactory dialogue, conducted in a spirit of mutual respect and dignity. All such political and conceptual shortcomings are worsened when the are not actually justified by inadequate international legal structures.

The Belgrade conference established an institute in UNESCO to coordinate communications development and committed the organisation to continue

to work toward the goal of free and balanced flow. But the political issue of a redistribution of the world's information resources may have burned itself out in Belgrade. And the dominance of the West in the production, dissemination and control of information shows no signs of diminution.

2.4 UNESCO DEBATE ON THE ISSUE

UNESCO's General Conference in Nairobi discussed information issues, in a context that produced sharp confrontation between the interests of developed and developing countries. The focus was on the free-flow-of-information doctrine UNESCO'S mandate in the area of communications, is explicit in its constitution, adopted in 1946, which enjoined the agency to "collaborate in the work of advancing the mutual knowledge and understanding of people, through all means of mass communication and to that end recommend the free-flow of ideas by word and image." The free=flow doctrine was developed by the United States and other Western nations after World War II. As viewed by supporters, the unhampered flow of information would be a means of promoting peace and understanding and spreading technical advances. The doctrine had ties with other Western libertarian principles such as freedom of the press. However, critics of the doctrine came to view it as part of a global strategy for domination of communication markets and for ideological control by the industrialized nations. They saw it is serving interests of the most powerful countries and transnational corporations and helping them secure economic and cultural domination of less powerful nations. A rewording of the doctrine was urged by nonaligned spokespersons calling for a free and balanced flow of information. The suggestion stirred deep suspicion in developed countries. If it meant that Third World nations would ordain a proper balance, and control or limit the flow, this would be according to Western spokespersons - the very antitheses of a free flow.

2.5 CONCERNS OF THE THIRD WORLD

"The major western international news services-AP and UPI of the USA, the French agency France-Presse, and Reuters of the UK were described as having monopoly over the flow of news angling them for the economic and cultural interest of the industrialized countries. Western media extend influence beyond the borders of the country usually project the dark aspect of the third world countries. Such media give coverage to the news like natural disasters, coups and social unrest of the developing countries while ignoring the positive accomplishment in political, economic and social development.

"Third World countries also argue that Western agencies provide them with too much coverage of the West and too little information about their own regions and other parts of the Third World. They contend further that too much of this information is inappropriate to Third World needs and filtered through the distorting lens of Western cultural, political and social values.

"Communication domination of the West is broadly based on the technological advancement particularly computers and satellites but also the technical infrastructure

that permits the transmission of data from one computer to another, often via satellite. For example, several airlines in Eastern Europe book local flight reservations on a computer in Atlanta. Many of the Third World countries complain that data about their nations, much of it acquired by remote-sensing satellites controlled by the west, belongs exclusively to them as part of their national sovereignty.

The dominance of mass media, culture nd information systems is in fact a new form of colonialism, replacing classical 19th century European imperialism and post war American political and military hegemony. To maintain exploitive control over the Third World, forcing Third World audiences to accept Western values, often against their will. Such a radical view usuallycalls for a radical solution to liberate the media. The Western notions of the free flow of information is replaced with the concept of cultural sovereignty, which calls for the mass media to be placed at the service of the state and asserts that nations are responsible for determining what information comes into the country including that directed at the country by foreign broadcasters and for determining what information about the country is disseminated abroad.

Western nations controlled the international flow of television programmes, with the United States, the United Kingdom, France, and the Federal Republic of Germany accounting for the largest shares. The integration of television with new technologies such as the communications satellite including direct broadcast satellites and telecommunications networks that are channels for an increasing volume of transborder data flow difficult or impossibel to control.

The international flow of advertising, under similar multinationals controls, is another issue of concern. It is described by many as furthering not only products and services but also a way of life, generally centred on the acquisition of consumer goods. Some see this as diverting attention from necessities to luxuries, and others see it as a serious threat to indigenous culture.

Resolution 4/19 Adopted by the Twenty-first Session of the UNESCO General Conference, Belgrade, 1980.

The General Conference considers that :

a) This new world information and communication order could be based, among other considerations on :

i. Elimination of the imbalances and inequalities which characterise the present situation.

ii. Elemination of the negative effects of certain monopolies, public or private, and execessive concentrations.

iii. Removal of the internal and external obstacles to a free flow and wider and better balanced dissemination of information and ideas.

iv. Plurality of sources and channels of information.

v. Freedom of the press and of information.

vi. The freedom of journalists and all professionals in the communi tion media, a freedom inseparable from responsibility.

vii. The capacity of developing countries to achieve improvement of their own situations, notably by providing their own equipment, by training their personnel, by improving their infrastructures and making their information and communication media suitable to their needs and aspirations.

viii. The sincer will of developed countries to help them attain these objectives.

ix. Respect for each people cultural identity and for the right of each nation to inform the world about its interests, its aspirations and its social and cultural values.

x. Respect for the right of all peoples to participate in international exchanges of information on the basis of equality, justice and mutual benefit.

xi. Respect for right of the public, of ethnic and social groups and of individuals to have access to information sources and to participate actively in the communication - process.

b) This new world information and communication order should be based on the fundamental principles of international law, as laid down in the Charter of the United Nations.

c) Diverse solutions to information and communication problems are required because social, political, cultural and economic problems differ from one country to another and, within a given country, from one group to another.

2.6 MACBRIDE COMMISSION

UNESCO appointed a commission in 1976 to study the totality of communication problem in modern societies. The commission published its report in 1980 "Many Voices and One World". The report popularly known as "MacBride Report" which confirmed the nonaligned nations, demands for a New World Information and Communication Order.

2.7 CHALLENGES TO NEW INFORMATION WORLD ORDER

Two decades of debates and resolutions had done little to solve underlying problems of the international flow of information, although they had made the world community more aware of the issues involved. Those issues would exist, until the following challenges are overcome :

2.7.1 Mean of Technology

Technological application to any effective media operation is necessary. The importance of the new communication technologies lies to a large extent in the fundamental transformations they impose on society. Government and private companies in the third world countries need to think of technology as a means available to serve their particular needs. Lack of information technology in the third world media system is a great challenge in obtaining the good of balanced communication in the international spheres .

2.7.2 Ways of freedom

The MacBride Commision noted that the freedom of expression in a country does not guarantee its existence in practice. The Commission further noted

that even where freedom is not openly attached by authority, it may be limited by self-censorship on the part of communicators themselves. Journalists may fail to publish facts which have come into their possession for several reasons.

2.7.3 Democratization of Communication

The MacBride Commission opined that there are various forms of barriers to democratization of communication. The Commission observed that opinion formation will in the long run require richer media fare, critical awareness, assertion of the "right to replay, the establishment of alternative channels of communication and participation in decision making on media policy. The commission felt that communication can be an instrument of power, a revolutionary weapon, a commercial product, or a means of education, it can serve the ends of either liberation or of oppression, of either the growth of the individual personality or the drilling of human beings into uniformity." Each society and each communication system necessarily make its choices.

2.7.4 World on Edge

The commission looked at the communication challlenges in the context of an uneasy world. "The whole human race is threatened by the arms race and by the persistence of unacceptable global inequalities, both of which generate tensions and which jeopardize its future and even its survival ". The commission saw the sense of danger "heightened by intolerance, national chauvinism, and a failure to understand varying points of view" the fragility of the ecosystem." The report observed. "Today the human race has no choice but to adapt itself to the natural conditions and resources of the planet" a challenge require "enormous transformations in our attitudes and behaviour pattern." The commission saw the media as capable of a steadying role in these transitions, helping men and women "to understand and solve the inescapable problems of our age." This calls for something beyond "crisis journalism". The report spoke frequently of responsibility. It seemed to the commission that the information order envisioned for the future would also required, as an essential dimension, a new moral and ethical order.

3. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Q.No.1. What do you mean by International communication?

Q.No.2. Explain the concept of free flow of information.

Q.No.3. How the concept of "New Information World Order" emerged. What are the imbalances that perceived by the Third World Countries regarding International Communication.

Q.No.4. Explain the concerns of the third world towards free flow of information.

Q.No.5. Explain the major points of the MacBride Commission.

Q.No.6. What are the challenges to new information world order. Explain in detail.

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Unit Sixteen

PSYCHOLOGICAL WARFARE

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1. OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you should be able to :

1. Define the term psychological warfare.
2. Compare the political warfare with psychological warfare
3. Discuss major views on psychological warfare
4. Describe the historical perspective of psychological warfare
5. Identify the aims of psychological warfare
6. Describe the organizational and planning procedures of psychological warfare.
7. Describe the methods of psychological warfare
8. Describe the levels of psychological warfare
9. List out the operations of the psychological warfare
10. Identify the intelligence requirements of psychological warfare
11. Point out the media required for launching psychological warfare
12. Review the research conducted on psychological warfare
13. Describe the factors for success of psychological warfare
14. Identity the tools of psychological warfare

2. SUMMARY OF THE MAJOR TOPICS

2.1 PSYCHOLOGICAL WARFARE - DEFINITIONS

The term psychological warfare is elaborated in the New Encyclopaedia Britannica as following :

"The use of propaganda against an enemy during war or a period of crisis and hostility, together with such military, economic or political measures as the propaganda may require. Such propaganda is generally intended to demoralize the enemy, break his will to fight or resist, and sometimes to render him favourably disposed to one's position."

Charles E. Hutchenson in his article in the collier's Encyclopedia viewed the psychological warfare in the following terms ;

"The wide range of activities toward influencing the opinions, emotions, attitudes, and behaviour of enemy, neutral, and friendly foreign groups and individuals in support of national aims or military objectives. Psychological warfare operations are pursued during peacetime, during cold war or latent hostilities, and during wartime."

Due to lack of any precise definition of psychological warfare the army practitioners and other experts of the arts of propaganda prefer other names such as ;

"The War of wits"
"Ideological warfare"
"The battle for men's minds"
"Political warfare"

Definitions of psychological warfare vary from narrow usage during world wars I&II as an adjunct to military force in time of war, to the broad concepts underlying establishment of the Psychological Strategy Board in the United States of America by President Truman in 1951, and President Eisenhower's appointment of C.D. Jackson as his psychological warfare adviser early in 1952. Eisenhower obviously associated psychological warfare with the struggle for the minds of men.

Professor Paul Linerbarger, author of a basic book on the subject, defined psychological warfare in the broad sense as the application of parts of the science of psychology to further the efforts of political, economic, or military actions, and in the narrow sense as the use of propaganda against an enemy together with such other opertional measures of a military, economic, or political nature as may be required to supplement propaganda. Roland I. Perusse has identified 18 terms which have been associated with psychological warfare or which have been used as synonyms for it. These are : cold war, war of ideas, struggle for the minds and wills of men, war for the minds of men, thought war, ideological warfare, nerve warfare, political warfare, international information, overseas information, campaign of truth, propaganda, international propaganda, propaganda warfare, war of words, indirect aggression, agitation, and international communication.

2.1.1 Political warfare as psychological warfare

It is easier and less hazardous to cite examples of political warfare than it is to define the term itself. In general, it embraces the means - short of war - which the state takes to weaken a specific enemy or specific enemies. The persuasion of friendly diplomacy is not political warfare ; neither is propaganda which doesnot seek to impair or limit another state's freedom of action. On the other hand, diplomacy or propaganda which has the intent to coerce must be regarded as political warfare. Economic measures must be so characterized when they are aimed at a particular state. Thus a given act may or may not be political warfare. The distinction lies in its purpose. An embargo conceived solely to conserve domestic resources of a commodity is quite different from an embargo imposed to deprive an unfriendly state of essential imports, regardless of the fact that both may apply to exports to all states. Political warfare does not end with the coming of military conflict indeed, it is then likely to be accentuated and to lead to all sorts of diplomatic propaganda, and economic measures to weaken the enemy. Whether political warfare always involves intervention in the affairs of the state or states against which it is directed hinges upon the definition of intervention.

Political warfare is by no means a recent innovation in the conduct of relations between states. The strategy of Trojan horse has been practiced throughout history. The more dramatic devices of modern political warfare have included the following ; Propaganda to confuse and divide ; the support of minority groups and fifth column agents to disrupt the normal processes of the enemy state ; the encouragement of revolt to overthrow the existing government ; the use of sabotage to wreck industry and transport ; and the resort to assassination to remove key leaders and demoralize the population.

2.2 MAJOR VIEWS ON PSYCHOLOGICAL WARFARE

Psychological warfare is a term that came into vogue in the United States of America during World War II to identify an activity as old as the history of conflict. Although the term gained wide currency in popular and scientific discussions in the USA and Europe within a decade after the end of world war II, meanings ascribed to it were not always clear, and there were several views concerning its nature and scope. Some have limited its meanings to that range of activity which clearly falls within the jurisdiction of the armed forces and which is centered on the dissemination of propaganda to specified target audiences for the prupose of supporting the attainment of a given military mission. This view of a psychological warfare, however, is too limited in scope for most journalists, politicians, and scholars who discuss the subject.

As used in popular scientific journals and other literature, as much wider variety of meanings has been attached to the term. There are four major views regarding this issue:

i. The psychological warfare is the sum total of a nation's efforts to influence the opinions and behaviours of foreign peoples and governments in desired directions through means other than the employment of a nation's political, economic and military resources.

The subscribers to this view generally agree that propaganda is the principal, but not the sole, ingredient of psychologicalwarfare.

ii. The psychological warfare involves an even wider range of activities, including symbolic acts of violance and terror designed to intimidate or to persuade an adversary to adjust his behaviour. The believers of this view include within its scope various undercover activities such as espionage and subversion, assassinations and other forms of terrorism and censorship, when they are designed to mould the opinion or behaviour of specific groups.

iii. According to this view the psychological warfare includes such activities as the premeditated twisting of personality through techniques popularly described as "brainwashing" hypnosis, and the employment of psycho pharmaceutical agents allegedly used by some commnist and other dictatorial states.

iv. The followers of this view hold that psychological warfare includes the moulding of public attitudes of one's own people and extends across. The spectrum of political-military action to hit and run guerrilla raids and other acts of paramilitary character conducted in enemy rear areas. Thus, at times the term has been used as though it were synonymous with political indoctination or orientation, political persuasion, indirect aggression, protracted conflict or a strategy of subversion.

In the twenty years that followed the end of World War - II, doctrine concerning the psychological warfare in the USA and western Europe - its nature, its uses, and its role in modern international relations tended to coalesce to form a consensus. Thus, increasingly, those who discuss it accept the basic conclusion that unless a technique involves the premeditated manipulation of opinion through the use of one or more of the media of communications it does not involve psychological warfare.

2.3 HISTORICAL PERSPECRTIVE OF PSYCHOLOGICAL WARFARE.

Although often looked upon as a modern invention, the psycological warfare activities go back to ancient times. Some scholars say that it is at least as old as the conquests of Genghis Khan, who was aided by expertly planted rumors about large numbers of ferocious Mongol horsemen in the Khan'a army. Centuries later, in the American Revolution, Thomas Paine's Common Sense was but one of many pamphlets and leaflets used to strengthen the inventions and advances in communications, however, such a high speed printing, radio, and television, together with important developments in the fields of public opinion analysis and the prediction of mass behaviour, psychological warfare has become a more systematic and widespread technique in strategy and tactics, and a large ingredient of warfare as a whole.

As far as the use of term psychological warfare is concerned it is believed that is was first time used by the British military analyst and historian J.F.C. Fuller in 1920. In discussing implications to be drawn from World War I advances in military technology, he suggested that traditional means of warfare may in time be replaced by a purely psychological warfare.

Twenty years later, the British started tooling up for a propaganda effort similar to the one that General Fuller had forecast, they adopted the expression political warfare. In 1940 did the term come into American use.

During World War - II psychological warfare was widely used to denote the organization and, more especially, the activity of the propagandist who served with or supported the U.S. armed forces. But the term was not generally applied to broader, longer-rang propaganda efforts. Information strategic services, and political warfare, were preferred and were used in tiles and names of agencies in the USA.

The psychological warfare support provided US and allied forces during World War - II, while significant, was largely the result of adhoc improvisations. Neither the American nor the British had made plans before the war to employ combat propaganda. Civilian propagandists were casually included among the Eisenhowever's forces and organised into propaganda units and staff sections. Later on, experience gained in Africa induced General Eisenhower to create a special staff section for psychological warfare at his headquarters in Europe.

Psychological warfare operations in the action against Japan were even more improvised. The Office of War Information (OWI) sent small civilian staffs to major rear-area headquarters - Hawai, Australia China and India. Psychological warfare units were generally attached to intelligence sections. Propaganda operations were therefore seldom adequately integrated into operational plans and were generally employed in addition to, not as a part of, regular military operations. After the war all psychological warfare units and special staff sections were disbanded. In 1948, Congress first time authorised its continuance as a civilian sponsored programme directly under the State Department and later under various civilian agencies of the U.S. government.

During this period most modern armies have specialised units trained and equipped to carry out psychological warfare. Such units were an important part of the German and Allied forces during World War II and the U.S. armed forces in the Korean and Vietnam wars. The British and the Malayan governments used psychological warfare techniques to combat the guerrilla revolt in Malaya in 1950s. Presently various techniques, including personality twisting, brainwashing, thought reconstruction, and propaganda through print and electronic media are being commonly used by various nations of the world.

2.4 AIMS OF PSYCHOLOGICAL WARFARE

Some of the aims of psychological warfare are :

1. Sow confusion and distrust of leadership ;
2. Encourage sabotage and guerrilla activities ;
3. Encourage civilian evacuation to clog highways and block military forces ;
4. Encourage individual and group surrender ;
5. Provide warning of attakcs in order to augment the effects of physical weapons ;
6. Encourage good treatment of an invading force ;
7. Comunicate the terms of peace.

2.5 ORGANIZATION AND PLANNING OF PSYCHOLOGICAL WARFARE

For launching psychological warfare the personnel are selected on the basis of special educational qualifications and training, such as in journalism, radio and television broadcasting, knowledge of the language, including regional dialects and colloquialisms, and the national philosophy and culture of the people with whom they will communicate.

Special training is provided in the techniques of preparing printed material, radio and television broadcasts and materials to be used in other forms of electronic media for propaganda purposes. Emigrants are often used to prepare material that will have maximum impact and credibility in that area.

In order to design an effective propaganda campaign, it is essential to know what is happening in the target area or nation. Also, it is helpful to emphasize mutual objectives which the propagandizing country and the target group may share. Sources of social and psychological intelligence, including the print media, especially newspapers, electronic media, especially Radio, Television broadcasts from the area, are monitored and analyzed for keys to psychological vulnerabilities. Prisoners of war may be a source of information for evaluation of the effectiveness of the programmes.

2.6 METHODS OF PSYCHOLOGICAL WARFARE

Professionally managed psychological warfare is usually accompanied by the intelligence functions of propaganda analysis and audience information. Propaganda analysis consists of the examination of the nature and effectiveness of one's own and the competing propagandas, together with the study of general flow of mass communications through the audience addressed. Audience information provides concrete details about the target groups to which propaganda is directed.

2.7 LEVELS OF PSYCHOLOGICAL WARFARE

Psychological warfare is sometimes divided by its practitioners into levels reflecting the area in and the times at which the military propaganda is expected to operate. Generally, three levels are identified for this purpose ;

i. ***Strategic Psychological Warfare***
This term is used to denote mass communications directed to a very large audience or over a considerable expanse of territory.

ii. ***Tactical Psychological Warfare***
This type of warfare, on the other hand, implies a direct connection with combat operations, the commonest form being the surrender demand.

iii. ***Consolidation Psychological Warfare***
This type of warfare consists of messages distributed to the rear of one's own advancing forces for the sake of protecting the line of communications, establishing military government, and carrying out the administrative tasks by such a government.

2.8 PSYCHOLOGICAL WARFARE OPERATIONS

Operations of many kinds are used in the psychological warfare Some commonly used operations include :

i. Use of print media
ii. Use of electronic media, especially Radio & Television.
iii. Use of music
iv. Use of battle front loud - speaker
v. Use of airborne loud - speaker
vi. Use of human resources
vii. Covert operations/guerilla warfare
viii. Counter measures to stop enemy's propaganda
ix. Use of political and socio-cultural means.
x. Use of economic pressures and embargoes.

Psychological warfare is carried out by both civilian and military branches of the government.

2.9 INTELLIGENCE REQUIREMENTS FOR PSYCHOLOGICAL WARFARE

Intelligence requirements for effective psychological warfare operations are both enormous and varied. There are three major types of intelligence required :

i. ***Background Data/Target Analysis***
The background data, in great detail, concerning the predispositions and vulnerabilities of the target or targets to be addressed This type of intelligence is also described as target analysis.

ii. ***Analysis and development of material***
The second type of intelligence needed is that employed in propaganda output. The writings, press releases, and speeches of leading adversaries are thus combed for material that can be usefully employed against the target.

iii. Assessment of effectiveness

It is necessary to provide a means for checking the results of one's work. Is the message getting through? Is it clearly understood? In what ways more favourable response be elicited. Answers to these and other questions are sought by such means as are appropriate to the situation.

In time of conflict, and with respect to closed societies, it is sometimes necessary to employ clandestine means for gethering data to assess effectiveness. With respect to societies more or less open to direct approach, variations of techniques employed in domestic public opinion polling and market surveys may be employed.

2.10 COMMUNICATION MEDIA FOR PSYCHOLOGICAL WARFARE

The choice of communications media for psychological warfare operations depends on the target audience to be addressed and the time one has to prepare and deliver the message. In combat situations, printed leaflets and news sheets disseminated by airdrops and voiced broadcasts amplified by electronic loud - speakers are the most commonly employed media. Operations conducted from areas further to the rear or to audience far removed from combat zones utilize mobile and fixed long-wave and medium wave radio transmitter, or the television networks.

SLOW AND FAST MEDIA

Media employed in strategic or national level operations are commonly classified as either slow or fast.

Slow media include newspapers, magazines, books, pamphlets, motion picture films and lectures. They are so described because there is a considerable time lag between the sending and receiving of the message.

Fast Media are those that rely largely on electronic communications. In addition to short-wave radio broadcasts or televised messages, fast media include carefully timed statements by statemen deemed to be sufficient interest to be picked up and transmitted by wireless or satellites communication networks to overseas outlets for local dissemination.

2.11 RESEARCH ON PSYCHOLOGICAL WARFARE

The research of Psychological warfare has been one of the important areas of various social sciences. The recognition of the need for psychological warfare target intelligence in both depth and breadth has had a great impact on American social science scholarship in the period since the outbreak of the Korean War in the early 1950s.

Social scientists in the United States of America, since 1950, have devoted considerably more attention to studies of elites, would be elites, and communications and other behavioural patterns in foreign societies than in any previous period. Great attention has been given to the identification of research criteria of significance in the study of alien cultures. Likewise, great effort has been devoted to the systematic development of more sophisticated tools for the effective identification and assessment of such material as is useful to psychological warfare practitioners.

Since 1950, the U.S., governments, through the facilities of the State Department, the Agency for International Aid (AID), and its predecessors, the United States Information Agency (USIA) and the three service branches of the Defence Department, has subsidized university groups, individuals and nonprofit organizations to undertake specific research projects that might not otherwise have been undertaken, or tailored them to meet the needs of the so-called "psychological warfare community."

Besides the United States, presently, many other developed and developing countries have been involved in the psychological warfare research, in order to meet their national needs and to protect their national interests.

2.12 FACTORS FOR SUCCESS OF PSYCHOLOGICAL WARFARE.

The success of psychological warfare and its propaganda programmes depends on the implementation in a target group of new ideas, the adoption of new behaviour and organizational patterns, or the reinforcement of attitudes and behaviour that are favourable to the communicating country. Advance warnings of aerial attacks with high explosive and incendiary bombs have been an effective method for promoting the aims of a communicating power by appealing to the self interest of the target group and encouraging it to seek safety. Also, this action is the kind of non-cooperation or flight that the propagandist seeks.

From the findings of various researchers there have emerged a clear understanding of the requirements for an effective psychological warfare effort in times of peace and of crisis. Whatever media of communications are employed, psychological warfare can contribute to the attainment of a nation's objectives only if the messges transmitted are credible, clearly understood, and seek to elicit a response within the capability of the target audience.

What is credible is not to be equated necessarily with truth. What is credible to any given audience is what it believes to be true, not what is in fact true. Credibility is a complex goal and not easily achieved. What is credible is determined by the audience, not the content of a message. The development of credibility thus must be constantly and persistantly pursued in every psychological warfare campaign. Without this important element much of a propagandist's effort will go for nought.

2.13 TOOLS OF PSYCHOLOGICAL WARFARE

The major tool of psychological warfare is propaganda. Through propaganda public opinion is manipulated and changed according to the needs of propagandist's national interests. For this purpose public opinion is measured, analyzed and then propaganda campaign is launched. Sometimes, censorship is imposed, information is distorted and rumours are spread out to influence the mass behaviour, in order to change or manipulate it.

Keeping in view the importance of the tools of psychological warfare a separate unit (No. 17) is included in the Study Guide. This unit covers aspects of public opinion

and propaganda, such as, the concept of public and public opinion ; mass behaviour : dimensions, measuring and manipulation of public opinion ; public opinion and propaganda ; consorship, disinformation ; types, methods, techniques and strategies of propaganda ; propaganda employment and limits of propaganda ; and the process, nature and impact of rumours.

3. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Q.No.1. Define the following terms :-

i. Psychological Warfare
ii. Political Warfare

Q.No.2. Discuss the four major views on psychological warfare?

Q.No.3. Briefly describe the historical perspective of psychological warfare?

Q.No.4. List out the aims of psychological warfare?

Q.No.5. Write short notes on the following :

i. Planning of Psychological Warfare
ii. Methods of Psychological Warfare
iii. Slow and Fast Media
iv. Psychological Warfare Research

Q.No.6. List out the major operations of psychological warfare?

Q.No.7. Highlight various intelligence requirements for an effective psychological warfare?

Q.No.8. Describe three levels of psychological warfare?

Q.No.9. Write a note on the factors of success of psychological warfare?

Q.No.10. List out Eighteen synonymous terms identified by Roland I. Perusse, which have been associated with psychological warfare?

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Unit Seventeen

TOOLS OF PSYCHOLOGICAL WARFARE

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1. OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you should be able to :

1. Define the terms public and public opinion.
2. Define the term Mass Behaviour and compare it with the concept of collective behaviour.
3. Describe the dimensions of public opinion.
4. Describe the methods of public opinion measurement.
5. Identify the ways to manipulate public opinion.
6. Describe the relationship between public opinion and propaganda.
7. Describe the relationships among propaganda, censorship and disinformation.
8. Describe the types of propaganda.
9. Discuss the methods and techniques of propaganda.
10. List out the strategies of propaganda.
11. Describe the procedures of propaganda employment.
12. Outline the limits of propaganda.
13. Define the term rumour and discuss its nature, process and impact.

2. SUMMARY OF THE MAJOR TOPICS

2.1 PUBLIC AND PUBLIC OPINION

2.1.1 Public

The term public is used in several senses. In popular use, the public is synonymous with the people or with practically everybody - not a very useful concept. Sociologists use the term in two senses :-

i. A public may be defined as a scattered number of people who share an interest in a particular topic. There is a baseball public, an opera public, an investment public, a political affairs public, and many others.

ii. A public may be defined as a number of people who are concerned over, divided upon, and in discussion about an issue. Each important issue thus has its public, and there is no such thing as the public under these two definitions.

The public is a category of individuals who are not together physically but who are concerned about a particular issue, such as prostitution, deterioration of urban neighbourhood, taxation etc. Because they believe the issue has considerable importance, members of the public communicate with one another in an attempt to resolve the issue and influence public opinion. A public may make its feelings known to the larger society through the mass media and other channels.

2.1.2 Public Opinion

Public Opinion has two definitions.

i. An opinion held by a substantial number of people.

ii. The dominant opinion among a population.

According to the first usage, there can be many public opinions : according to the second, public opinion refers to a public consensus upon an issue. Both usages are common in the literature, and the particular meaning must be inferred from the way the term is used. Public opinion is a creation of the mass society in the mass media.

2.2 MASS BEHAVIOUR

Mass society is prone to some kinds of collective behaviour called mass behaviour. This term refers to the unorganized, unstructured, uncoordinated, individually selected behaviour of masses in a mass society. It differs from crowd behaviour. The crowd behaviour is brief and episodic and is acted out by people as a group, whereas mass behaviour is more enduring and arises from the sum total of many individual actions. Also, crowds are collections of people, whereas masses are scattered and in no direct, continuous contact with one another. Masses cannot mill and interact as crowds do. When many people acting individually rather than as a group, move in the same

direction, this is mass behaviour. A flight of refugees or the spread of beards and long hair among young people would be a good example.

In the definition of crowd behaviour, the physical proximity of a group of individuals influences the behaviour of that group. Individuals can also be influenced by the actions of others they never meet or interact with directly. In this sense, mass behaviour is another form of collective behaviour. It is not the action of individuals as a collectivity, but the aggregate actions of individuals. It includes rumour, fad or fashion, the craze, mass hysteria, the public and public opinion.

2.3 DIMENSIONS OF PUBLIC OPINION

Public opinion has at least three dimensions.

i. **Direction**: Simply states whether an opinion is for or against a proposed course of action. Account of the "yes" and "no" or the "approve" and "disapprove" opinions measure the direction of opinion.

ii. **Intensity**: refers to the strength with which an opinion is held. "Yes" may mean, Yes, absolutely, whatever the costs," or it means. "Yes I guess so."

iii. **Interaction**: refers to the way an opinion is tied in with one's total set of beliefs and values.

2.4 MEASURING PUBLIC OPINION

Public opinion may be measured by its direction - how many people are for and how many against an issue ; by its intensity - how strongly people feel about the issue ; and by its integration how closely the opinion fits a person's general value system and outlook on life. For example, one person might oppose keeping United States troops in Southeast Asia because he is a pacifist and is against military activity of any kind. Someone else opposes the policy because he regards it as an expression of imperialist expansion. Another might be against the idea because he feelds that the Southeast Asians should work out their own problems. A fourth might be opposed because he believes that the money spend on military activities abroad should be used for social needs at home. While these people all vehemently agree on the issue, their opinions are quite different, springing from distinct sets of beliefs and values. The more closely an opinion is integrated with a person's total outlook, the more lasting and the less easily changed it will be.

Researchers have devised sophisticated methods to measure these dimensions of public opinion through sample surveys of various kinds to determine people's attitudes. Public opinion research has become extremely important to political observers, business, and government. In addition to predicting election results, politicians use polls to guide their election campaigns ; governments use them to cite and to discover the felt needs and interests of the citizens ; business uses polls to determine what kind of products the public will buy and how those products can most effectively be sold.

2.5 MANIPULATION OF PUBLIC OPINION

The main emphasis in public opinion research has been upon ways of manipulating public opinion. Propaganda includes all efforts to persuade people to a point of view upon an issue. The usual distinction between education and propaganda is that education seeks to cultivate one's ability to make discriminating judgements, while propaganda seeks to persuade one to the undiscriminating acceptance of a ready made judgement. In practice, education often includes a good deal or propaganda. Teachers sometimes propagandize for their own opinions ; interest groups seek to get their own propaganda, disguised as "educational materials" into the school ; society virtually forces the school to propagandize for the approved moral and patriotic values. To draw a clear distinction between education and propaganda is not always possible. And it should be repeated that propaganda is not necessarily "bad" ; it is merely a term applied to all attempts to influence other peoples opinions and actions.

2.6 PUBLIC OPINION AND PROPAGANDA

Propaganda is the presentation of information for the purpose of manipulating public opinion towards a specific point of view. Information is presented with the purpose of influencing people to revise their values or beliefs in a particular way. Propaganda appeals to people's emotions because it is concerned with issues about which they are anxious or worried. Nearly all self-interest groups develop propaganda that will support their particular cause.

Propaganda is most effective when it deals with issues of immediate concern and when it is consistent with a person's values, sentiments, and beliefs. Its effectiveness is limited when there are competing propagandas, when the credibility of the propagandist is subject to question, or when the receiver of the propaganda has access to more reliable sources of information.

2.7 PROPAGANDA CENSORSHIP AND DISINFORMATION

The power to manipulate public opinion greatly benefits certain individuals and groups in society. Car manufacturers want to persuade the public to buy their products. Political candidates want to be elected. Teachers want their salaries increased. Administrations in office want their citizens support. Parents want their children to do as they are told. All these groups, and countless more, expect influence on specific public opinion through propaganda and censorship.

Propaganda represents a deliberate attempt on the part of an individual or group in power to convince a public to accept a particular belief uncritically, or to make a certain choice rather than another. Advertising, sales promotions, public relations, political campaigns, fund-raising drives, billboards, use propaganda.

Popaganda is a manipulative device depending on emotional appeal, and frequently playing on fears and anxieties. Advertisements for cosmetics, deodorants, and toothpaste promise to make people attractive and young looking, characteristics the public wants to possess and fears it does not. Propaganda also relies on the "good old

values" of the past ("Grandma's apple pie") and on the human desire to belong or be popular ("Everybody's doing it").

Propaganda is quite successful when it does not attempt to change opinions too drastically. However, in democratic societies, those involved in propaganda face much competition. Education and sophistication on the part of the public further limit the effectiveness of this tool. Finally, although strong trends in socio-cultural evolution may be temporarily thwarted by propaganda, they are not ultimately affected by it.

Propaganda, by giving a one-sided interpretation of an issue or showing only the plus side of a products, distorst information available to the public. Censorship, on the other hand, deletes all or part of such information. Many important institutional organizations use censorship. The government and military institutions withhold information in the name of national security and defense ; families and religious organizations tend to censor certain information about sex ; political candidates are selective in the information they disseminate about themselves and their intentions once in office ; and the mass media report some and fail to report other news. Both propaganda and censorship are necessary, to a degree, in a large, complex society. In and of themselves, they are neither good nor bad. But either may be put to uses that are beneficial or detrimental to society.

2.8 TYPES OF PROPAGANDA

Nations engaged in efforts to support to friends and allies, and to influence hostile or unfriendly powers, utilize many kinds of propaganda programmes. These programmes are generally classified in the following three types :

i. White propaganda

In this type the accurate sources of propaganda are identified.

ii. Black propaganda

This type of propaganda attributes its source to some group other than its true source.

iii. Gray Propaganda

It is the type of propaganda which fails to identify any source.

2.9 METHODS AND TECHNIQUES OF PROPAGANDA

The propaganda science or art is similar to the arts of advertising and selling, and like the advertiser and salesman the propagandist must study his market and tailor his product to suit the demand. He must analyze :

The preconceptions
The fears
The desires, and
The weaknesses of the target group

After analyzing the charcteristics of the target group, appropriate ways and most promising techniques to approach the group to pursuade should be adopted.

The total number of available methods and techniques of propaganda is large. D. Lincoln Harter and John Sullivan, has listed 77 techniques in their book entitled, Propaganda Hand Book, but these may be grouped under four general headings :

i. Methods of presentation
ii. Techniques for gaining Attention
iii. Devices for gaining response
iv. Methods of gaining acceptance

2.10 STRATEGIES OF PROPAGANDA

Various strategies have been developed by the propaganda experts. Ronald C. Fedrico has classified the strategies of propaganda, in his book, "Sociology" as given in the following table :

TABLE: STRATEGIES OF PROPAGANDA

Technique	Example
The bandwagon	"Everybody's doing it. Don't get left out. Be one of the crowd".
Loaded words and "Nazi".	"Home" "Mom and Dad." "Love". "Peace". "Murderer."
Name calling	"Fag." [words that appeal to the emotions rather than the intellect].
Slogans	"Buckle up for safety." Better dead than red." "Love it or Leave it."
Testimonials noted underarm	Support for a point to view, usually given by someone of reputation [such as a football player endorsing a new deodarant].
The unapproved assertion	"Our candidate is the best for the job. Not only that, he's competent, capable, and able to do the job."

2.11 PROPAGANDA EMPLOYMENT

The process of propaganda is commonly completed in three phases. The propagandist must gain, hold and influence the audience. A brief overview of all the phases is given below :

PHASE ONE : Gaining The Audience

In this phase the propagandist attracts the audience and tries to overcome various problems, especially related with the enemy resistance.

PHASE TWO : Holding The Audience

Once the audience has come into contact with the propaganda they must be made regular customers.

PHASE THREE : Influencing The Audience

In this phase various techniques to influence the audience to weaken the resistance and hostility to the propaganda campaign are used. For effective communication the credibility of communication and messages is increased and technique of persuasive communication are also applied.

Lists of credibility related factors and principles of presuasive communication are given as under :

1. <u>FACTORS INFLUENCING CREDIBILITY</u>

There are four major factors which influence credibility :

a) Characteristics Of The Communication :
   - i. What is said.
   - ii. How it is said.
   - iii. Presentation and Organisation

b) Characteristics of the Source

c) Characteristics of the Audience

d) Situational Factors.

2. <u>PERSUASIVE COMMUNICATION PRINCIPLES</u>

i	Primary	Vs	Recency
ii.	Repitition		
iii.	Fear Arousing Appeals		
iv.	One Sided	Vs	Two Sided Persuation
v.	Conclusion Drawing		
vi.	Logical Persuation	Vs	Emotional Appeal
vii.	Negative	Vs	Positive Approach
viii.	Climax	Vs	Anti-Climax

2.12 LIMITS OF PROPAGANDA

If the powers of propaganda were unlimited, the side with the most money and the best public relations agency would always win. Since this does not always happen, the power of propaganda must be limited in various ways.

i. Competing propaganda are probably the greatest limitation.
ii. The credibility of the propagandist in the eyes of the receivers limits what they will accept.
iii. The sophistication of the receiver limits the effects of propaganda.
iv. The beliefs and values of the recipient limit the propaganda he or she will believe.
v. Cultural drifts and trends limit the effectiveness of propaganda. A cultural drift is not stopped by propaganda.

2.13 THE RUMOUR

A rumour is a rapidly spreading report unsubstantiated by authenticated fact. While rumours may arise in any kind of society, they are most characteristic of mass societies. They may be spread by mass media or by word of mouth. Much of our casual conversation consists of rumour mongering. Every topic, from our neighbour's morals to the fate of the nation attracts interesting and disturbing rumours. Whenever their is social strain, rumours flourish. Whenever accurate and complete facts on a matter of public concern are not available or are not believed, rumours abound. Since rumour can ruin reputations, discredit causes, and undermine morale, the manipulation of rumour is a common propaganda device.

James W. Vander Zanden, in his book Sociology : The Core ; discusses the nature, process and impact of rumour as follows :

A rumour is difficult to verify piece of information transmitted from person to person in relatively raped fashion. We often think of rumours as providing false information, and in many cases this is true. But they also may be accurate, or, at the very least, contain a Kernel of trust. Rumours typically arise in situations in which people lack information or distrust the official sources of information. They are a substitute for hard news, a collective attempt by people to achieve information and understanding about matters that are important to them but about which they are ignorant. As such rumours are both a form of collective behaviour and an important element in most other forms of collective behaviour.

Periods of anxiety, tension, and sagging economic conditions provide an environment that leads to a proliferation of rumous. Under these circumstances, rumours give people a way to make sense out of their social world and to structure reality. One type of rumour that in particularly common involves alleged contamination. Indeed, in recent years a variety of unfounded rumours have hurt the sales of some of the nation's largest corporations.

Rumours tend to evolve and take on new details as people interact and talk. Some research suggests that highly anxious propels spread rumours much more frequently that do less anxious ones. Likewise, rumour participants-people who are eager to listen to or pass on a rumour are of then individuals who wish to attract attention. Typically they are people who are on the edge of the group or relatively low in status. For a brief instant when they are circulating a sensational story they become some body.

In the definitive work on rumour, All Postmen point out a great amount of rumour mongering springs from nothing more complicated than the desire for interesting conversations and the enjoyment of a salacious or unusual tidbit. A person is most likely, however, to believe and spread a rumour if it will justify his dislikes or relieve his emotional tensions. People uncritically accept and believe a rumour if it fits in with their pattern of beliefs and dislikes, or if it provides an emotionally satisfying explanation of phenomena.

Every presidential assassination in the United States, produced a flood of rumours of assassination conspiracies. The conspiracy rumour is especially satisfying. It gives one flattering feeling of having inside knowledge, along with a delicious sense of fearlessly denouncing evildoers.

Rumours are not very effectively dispelled by truthful correction. The rumour correction center sometimes spreads the rumour rather than the correction. Rumours are believed and spread because people need and like them. As Shibutani proposes : "The process of rumour construction is terminated when the situation in which it arose is no longer problematic." This means for example, that rumour flourish where people feel that they cannot trust government officials to tell them the truth, but rumours will subside if confidence in their officials is restored.

3. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Q.No.1. Define the following terms :-

i. Public/Publics
ii. Public Opinion
iii. Mass Behaviour
iv. Propaganda
v. Rumour

Q.No.2. Describe the dimensions of public opinion?

Q.No.3. How public opinion is measured? Discuss.

Q.No.4. Why and how public opinion is manipulated?

Q.No.5. What is the relationship between public opinion and propaganda?

Q.No.6. Why and how censorship and disinformation techniques are applied during the propaganda campaign?

Q.No.7. Briefly discuss three types of propaganda?

Q.No.8. Write a note on methods and techniques of propaganda?

Q.No.9. List out various strategies of propaganda?

Q.No.10. How propaganda is employed. Identify the limits of propaganda?

Q.No.11. How rumours are spread. Discuss their influence on mass behaviour?

Q.No.12. List out the factors which influence the credibility?

Q.No.13. What are the basic principles of persuasive communication?

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Unit Eighteen

INTRODUCTION TO RESEARCH

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1. OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you should be able to :

1. Define the term research.
2. Describe the characteristics of research.
3. Describe the objectives and motives of research.
4. Discuss the types of research.
5. Describe the methods of research.
6. Discuss the content analysis method.
7. Elaborate the survey research design.
8. Describe the Experimental research design.
9. Describe the stages of social research.

2. SUMMARY OF THE MAJOR TOPICS

2.1 DEFINITIONS OF RESEARCH

Quest for knowledge is one of the instinctive values of human beings. Today all the development and advancement which we see around is due to the inherent curiosity of mankind. To satisfy this urge to know man used various ways and means. These methods employed to discover something is named as research or we can say "research is an attempt at discovering knowledge" and when these attempts take some systematic shape, the activity is named as scientific research. So, we can define research as : "It is a planned and systematic attempt to discover knowledge". When the discovered knowledge is of some immediate use then it is named as applied research, and if the obtained knowledge is not of immediate use, but it may have some application in future, it falls in the category of pure research.

Redman and Mory define research as "systematised efforts to gain new knowledge".

D. Slesinger and M. Stephenson in the encylopaedia of social sciences define research as "the manipulation of things, concepts or symbols for the purpose of generalising to extend, correct or verify knowledge, whether that knowledge aids in construction of theory or in the practice of an art".

Fred N. Kerlinger, 1964 observed : "Scientific research is systematic, controlled, empirical and critical investigation of hypothetical proposition about the presumed relationship among natural phenomena".

Nachmias says, "The research process is the overall scheme of scientific activities in which scientists are engaged. These activities are assumed to enhance the goal of science".

2.2 CHARACTERISTICS OF RESEARCH

We generally divide research into two broad groups, i.e., scientific and non-scientific research. Non-scientific research has some pitfalls, such as inaccurate observation, over-generalisation, ego involvement etc., whereas there are certain characteristics of scientific research which make this method distinct from the rest.

In scientific research there is no chance of rediscovery of same knowledge because all the scientific discoveries are made public.

As the findings of research are open to all, so it will provide opportunity to other scientists to develop or replicate the findings.

As the methods of research are same for all the researchers, so the researchers own orientation can't affect the results of research work.

"An experiment is a research design which records or explains the effects of certain independent variable on dependent variable in controlled environment or setting". If we want to study the effect of pictures containing violence on a group of people we show them the movie containing killing, torture etc., and then record its effects on them.

And if we want to study how people belonging to various classes behave in an overcrowded room, we bring people from different shades of life and keep them in a small room for sometime and record the effects of congestion on them.

2.10 STAGES OF SOCIAL SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH

As we have already discussed that scientific inquiry is a systematic attempt to discover knowledge, so while conducting research we have to go through various steps in a logical way. We can name these steps as stages of social scientific research.

These stages are :-

i. Problem or topic selection
ii. Literature review
iii. Stating hypothesis or research question
iv. Choosing research design
v. Data collection
vi. Data analysis or interpretation
vii. Replication

It is necessary to describe that all these stages are highly interdependent and hence we call the whole practice as circular process. Actually the researcher oscillates between these stages while conducting research just to avoid errors.

3. KEY TERMS

Data, Data base, Dependent variable, Independent variable, pure research, applied research, Sampling, Replication, Hypothesis. Survey, Content Analysis, Research design, Scientific inquiry.

Research method or design is a comprehensive plan for conducting scientific inquiry and researcher selects research design depending on the nature of study, e.g. if a researcher wants to study the documents or contents of some newspaper, he would use content analysis, and if he wants to study the effects of some TV Programme on society, he would go for survey design.

2.7 CONTENT ANALYSIS

The roots of content analysis were found in 18th century. However, this method of discovering knowledge gained popularity in the World War - II and afterward.

In content analysis we study the contents of documents and draw some conclusion on the basis of observation, e.g., if we want to study that whether Urdu or English newspapers give more coverage to sports news, we shall have to study the contents of both Urdu and English newspapers and there is no other method but the content analysis to help conduct this study.

Stempel and Whesely define content analysis as : "It is the mode of observation which observes human artifacts in unobtrusive or indirect way".

Bernard Berelson defines content analysis as "The objective, systematic and quantitative analysis of the manifest content of a document."

2.8 SURVEY RESEARCH DESIGN

Survey research design is one of the most popular and authentic way of discovering knowledge. History tells us that the ancient Egyptian and Roman dynasties used this method to record public opinion about their governments and functioning of various departments. Even today with the help of surveys most of the countries improve the functioning of various departments.

In content analysis we study human artifacts whereas in survey research we usually study the human orientation, attitudes and behaviours. In survey research on the basis of gathered information we draw conclusion about the whole population, e.g., if we want to study the effects of video movies on youth we have to go for survey study and on the basis of gathered information we conclude that video movies are leaving bad impact on youth's behaviour.

Similarly if we want to record the feelings of masses towards Karachi situation, we have to use the survey research design because we are going to study the mass feelings about Karachi crisis.

2.9 EXPERIMENTAL RESEARCH DESIGN

In communication research experiments were extensively used from ninteen thirtees to early seventees. Even today experimental research design is considered as one of the most suitable research designs.

4. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Explain the concept of research in light of the definitions of various experts.

What do you know by the characteristics, objectives and motive of research. Explain with your own example.

Describe the various types of research in detail.

Explain the different methods of research for discovering the required information.

What are the various stages of a social scientific research.

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