

COMMUNICATION THEORY

M.A. Journalism and Mass Communication

M.A. (J.M.C), Semester I, Paper- III

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FOREWORD

Since its establishment in 1976, Acharya Nagarjuna University has been forging ahead in the path of progress and dynamism, offering a variety of courses and research contributions. I am extremely happy that by gaining 'A' grade from the NAAC in the year 2016, Acharya Nagarjuna University is offering educational opportunities at the UG, PG levels apart from research degrees to students from over 443 affiliated colleges spread over the two districts of Guntur and Prakasam.

The University has also started the Centre for Distance Education in 2003-04 with the aim of taking higher education to the door step of all the sectors of the society. The centre will be a great help to those who cannot join in colleges, those who cannot afford the exorbitant fees as regular students, and even to housewives desirous of pursuing higher studies. Acharya Nagarjuna University has started offering B.A., and B.Com courses at the Degree level and M.A., M.Com., M.Sc., M.B.A., and L.L.M., courses at the PG level from the academic year 2003-2004 onwards.

To facilitate easier understanding by students studying through the distance mode, these self-instruction materials have been prepared by eminent and experienced teachers. The lessons have been drafted with great care and expertise in the stipulated time by these teachers. Constructive ideas and scholarly suggestions are welcome from students and teachers involved respectively. Such ideas will be incorporated for the greater efficacy of this distance mode of education. For clarification of doubts and feedback, weekly classes and contact classes will be arranged at the UG and PG levels respectively.

It is my aim that students getting higher education through the Centre for Distance Education should improve their qualification, have better employment opportunities and in turn be part of country's progress. It is my fond desire that in the years to come, the Centre for Distance Education will go from strength to strength in the form of new courses and by catering to larger number of people. My congratulations to all the Directors, Academic Coordinators, Editors and Lesson- writers of the Centre who have helped in these endeavors.

Prof. P. Raja Sekhar

*Vice-Chancellor (FAC)
Acharya Nagarjuna University*

COMMUNICATION THEORY

Unit 1

Definitions of communication – scope – Communication process – Variables of communication
Basic models of communication – Shannon & Weaver – Lasswell – Berlo models- Types of communication – Interpersonal – Group – Mass communication

Unit 2

Advanced models of communication – Two step flow of communication opinion leaders – Diffusion of Innovation -Gate keeping models - White's model, Galtung and Ruge model of Selective gate keeping

Unit 3

Newcomb's balance theory – Congruity – Dissonance – Social judgment model- Mass theory – Society -Magic bullet theory - Organizational communication

Unit 4

Sociological theories of communication – Cultivation theory – Agenda setting – Dependency theory- Verbal and non-verbal communication

Unit 5

Normative theories – Authoritarian – Libertarian – Communist – Social responsibility – Development media – Democratic participant theory.

Suggested reading :

1. David Berlo(1960). *The Process of communication*. London.
2. Uma Narula (1976). *Mass Communication Theory and Practice*. New Delhi :HarAnand.
3. John Fiske :*Introduction to communication studies* London: Routledge.
4. Denis Mcquail (1993) *Media performance*. London: Sage
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6. DeFluer and Ball Roakech: *Theory of mass communication*.
7. Werner severin.j. And James. Tankard, *Communication theories, origins, methods, uses*. Longman publications (1988).
8. Mc.Quaildenis and S.VenWindah I, *Communication Models for study of mass communication*, New York, Longman, Singapore publications.

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LESSON 1

INTRODUCTION TO COMMUNICATION

1.0. Objectives of the lesson

The objective of this lesson is to assist students in understanding

- The Meaning and definition of communication.
- Scope of Communication
- Communication process

Structure of the lesson:

- 1.1. Introduction
- 1.2. History
- 1.3. Concept of Communication
- 1.4. Communication process
- 1.5. Purpose of communication
- 1.6. Characteristics of Good Communication
- 1.7. Functions of Communication
- 1.8. Scope of communication
- 1.9. Summary
- 1.10. Self assessment questions
- 1.11. Suggested reading

1.1. Introduction

Communication is an integral part of human life and mankind uses it to attend to day-to-day activities. Communication is an act of transmission of ideas, thoughts, beliefs, knowledge and opinions, etc. The purpose of communication is to establish commonness. The English word communication is derived from the Latin word *Communico* which means sharing and not just sending messages. Communication is a social process and countless ways in which human beings keep in touch with one another. Active communication includes interaction, interchange, dialogue and mutual understanding. All living beings communicate by means of physical entities like movements, sounds, reactions, gestures, languages and also with the help of reactions which are very essential to complete it. The beep of a phone (which indicates the reception of message), the cry of a child (communicating that it is hungry, hurt or cold), the noise of an animal (informing that is injured, hungry or angry) communicate facilitate the survival of human beings. Communication is an ever-continuing process. The Universal Communication Law posited by S. F. Scudder (1980) states that “All living entities, beings, and creatures communicate”. Communication is observed from the origin of human life on earth. Along with human

evolution, it has also become complex and diverse as of today. Men in earlier ages of human life used all five senses but their brain and central nervous system were weak which later have improved and acquired the ability to communicate. Refined perception and a more sophisticated brain boosted human communication and helped in satisfying basic needs, improving the quality of life, and protecting them from hazards of environment as well.

1.2. History

Around 50,000 B.C social communication among human beings was in existence but language was not developed. By 7000 BC the pictographic stage evolved when communication took place by drawing pictures on cave walls. Creativity and imagination took their origin but man continued to be a cave dweller. During the period between 3000 and 2000 B.C the ideographic stage etchings on walls and pictures became stylized. Mankind started socializing and socio-cultural events, attitudes, values and habits as well as moral codes were evolved. Later, in the Phonetic stage, symbols were used for the act of writing. With Johannes Guttenberg's invention of printing from movable types modern mass communication began in the fifteenth century. This enabled people to produce and send messages much faster. In the 18th century paper making and application of steam power the printing press gave fillip to the mass production of printing industry. 20th century saw the communication revolution with radio and television playing a significant role. Of late plethora of communication media both print, electronic and Internet or web media have come to use in 21st century.

In the contemporary 'communication age' where conferences, meetings, mela, processions etc make for communication events. TV, radio, newspapers, magazines etc are communication media. Phone, pager, e-mail etc are communication technologies. Similarly, journalists, advertising and public relations personnel, camera crew, news reader etc constitute the communication professionals. With all these developments on record communication has become an inter-disciplinary or multi-disciplinary social science with its roots in sociology, psychology, political science etc.

1.3. The Concept of Communication

Person-to-person communication is the exchange of information, ideas, and feelings among people. Communication takes place when you transmit a message from one person to another person or to a group of people. However, effective communication requires more than just transmitting a message. The message must be clear, accurate, and above all, understood by the person or persons with whom you are communicating. Communication is the vehicle for developing, maintaining and improving human relationships. and it as well becomes a weapon of relationship destruction too. Absence or too little communication can be as disorienting an experience as too much of it. People communicate to satisfy needs in both their work and non-work lives. People want to be heard, to be appreciated and to be wanted. They also want to accomplish tasks and achieve goals. The major purpose of communication is to help people feel good about themselves and about their friends, groups, and organizations. For true communication, there must be a transmission of thoughts, ideas and feelings from one mind to another. At the same time, different theoretical views treat communication in different manners.

The **mechanistic** view considers communication as a perfect transaction of a message from a sender to a receiver.

The **psychological** view considers communication as an act of sending a message to a receiver and his interpretation resulting in the cultivation of a feeling and thought

According to the **Social constructionist** view ‘truth’ and ‘ideas’ are constructed and invented through communication.

The **systemic** view says the message is being interpreted and reinterpreted as it travels through people.

The **critical** view considers communication as a source of power and oppression of individuals and social groups.

1.4. Communication process

Communication can be seen as processes of information transmission governed by three levels of semiotic rules: Syntactic (formal properties of signs and symbols), pragmatic concerned with the relations between signs/expressions and their users and semantic study of relationships between signs and symbols and what they represent. Therefore, communication is a kind of social interaction where at least two interacting agents share a common set of signs and a common set of semiotic rules. (This rule ignores auto communication, including intrapersonal communication via diaries on self-talk). Simply put information or content (e.g. a message in natural language) is sent in some form (as spoken language) from emission/sender/encoder to a destination/receiver/decoder. In a slightly more complex form, a sender and a receiver are linked reciprocally.

Communication is considered to be successful if both the sender and receiver perceive the message similarly.

A particular instance of communication is called a speech act. A speech act typically follows a variation of logical means of delivery sometimes not well specified making others guess. The most common of these, and perhaps the best, is the dialogue. Dialogue is a form of communication where both parties are involved in sending information. There are many other forms of communication but the reason the dialogue is good is that the dialogue lends itself to plain sometimes complicated communication due to feedback. (Feedback being encoded information, either verbal or nonverbal, sent back to the original sender (now the receiver) and then decoded.)

Codifying and de-codifying of the message is integral to the process of communication

In the presence of “communication noise” on the transmission channel (air, in this case) received and decoded content can become faulty in the sense that it will contain errors and thus probably not cause the desired effect. Communication is also considered to be a creative and dynamic continuous process, rather than a discrete exchange of information. Verbal communication is when we communicate our message verbally to whoever is receiving the message. Symbolic communications are the things that we have given meaning to and that represent a certain idea

we have in place, for example, the national flag is a symbol that represents freedom of imperialism for many countries, and evil for some other countries.

1.5. Purpose of Communication

Put generally, communication is the exchange of information between members of a group of living beings that enables survival or improved living conditions for the sender or receiver of the message or both. As expressed in the theory of symbolic communication, the exchange of messages changes the prior expectation of events. Individuals, communities, and organizations express their individuality through their identities. From cave paintings to the contemporary trend of transmission of digital messages via satellite, humanity continues to create an infinite sensory palette of visual and verbal expression. As a process, communication is often formed around the principles of respect, promises, and the want for social improvement. People communicate to satisfy needs in both their work and non-work lives. They want to be heard, to be appreciated and also want to accomplish tasks and achieve goals. A major purpose of communication is to help people feel good about themselves and about their friends, groups, and organizations. For these types of communication, there must be a transmission of thoughts, ideas and feelings from one mind to another.

1.6. Characteristics of Good Communication

Communication is not the mere sending and receiving of messages. It must be effective, i.e., the message must be understood by the audience for whom it is intended. Some of the characteristics of effective communication are: Complete (context), Concise (style), Considerate (context/delivery), Concreteness (style/sources), Clarity (organization/ sources), Courtesy (delivery), Correct (style).

Complete (context),

- answer all questions asked
- give something extra, when desirable
- check for the five W's and any other essentials

Concise (style)

- shorten or omit wordy expressions
- include only relevant statements
- avoid unnecessary repetition

Considerate (context/delivery)

- focus on "you" instead of "I" or "we"
- show reader benefit/interest in the reader
- emphasize the positive, pleasant facts
- apply integrity and ethics

Concrete (style/sources)

- use specific and accurate words, facts and figures
- put action in your verbs
- choose vivid, image-building words

Clear (organization/ sources)

- choose short, familiar, conversational words
- construct effective sentences and paragraphs
- achieve appropriate readability (through headings and transitions) and listening ability
- include examples, illustrations, and other visual aids, when desirable

Courteous (delivery)

- be sincerely tactful, thoughtful, and appreciative
- omit expressions that irritate, hurt, or belittle
- grant and apologize good-naturedly

Correct (style)

- use the right level of language
- maintain acceptable writing mechanics
- choose nondiscriminatory expressions
- apply all the other pertinent “C” qualities

1.7. Functions of Communication

The primary function of communication is to inform, educate, entertain, persuade/influence people to make them function smoothly and effectively. Promoting consensus, creativity and understanding among people, groups and societies also are frequently observed. The following characteristics make communication a powerful tool in the hands of the communicator. With these characteristics, communication becomes functional and dynamic.

1. **Information.** The quality of our lives will be minimized in case of limited of information. Information is power and more informed people become more powerful. Communication provides us with information about the environment in which we live. Information such as news of war, danger, crisis, famine etc., is important as it helps us in taking appropriate steps to safeguard our interests.
2. **Education.** One of the major functions of communication is to instruct, educate and socialize among the members of society. And this educational function begins at the home itself. We learn a lot of things from others through different communication channels at school, the workplace, and societal relationships. Communication provides a

fund of knowledge, expertise and skills that enable people to operate as effective members of society. It also creates awareness, gives direction and opportunity to people so that they actively participate in public life.

3. **Entertainment.** Human beings also need entertainment to break the monotony and divert attention from the troubles and tensions of daily life. It in fact revitalizes the personality. People get a diversion from entertainment which is another key function of communication. Entertainment, particularly through mass media programs like films, music, drama, dance, art, literature, comedy, games etc., is available to a large number of people at a relatively low cost. This makes leisure and recreational time more enjoyable. However, the widespread use of media for entertainment encourages passivity.
4. **Persuasion.** Persuasion helps in reaching decisions or consensus on public policy so that it is possible to control and govern. But people with ill intentions can mislead others through persuasive communication.
5. **Cultural promotion.** Communication provides an opportunity for culture to be preserved and promoted. It stimulates individuals to pursue and fulfill their creative urges.
6. **Integration.** Communication is a great integrating tool. Through the dissemination of knowledge or information, individuals, groups or cultures come to know one another, understand and appreciate others' way of life and thereby develop a tolerance for one another.
7. **Mobilization.** Communication through mass media advances national interests and promotes certain key values and behavior patterns, especially so in times of crisis.

1.8. Scope of Communication

The scope of communication is immense as it is all-pervading. However, at times it may be limited to certain persons, topics, channels, or situations. These elements thus define the limits of communication. The communicator who is the source of the message often decides the scope of communication. So also the channel as it influences the process to a greater extent. In the case of mass media like television the geographical scope of communication may extend across states, cultures and nations, whereas in the case of regional newspapers, the scope of communication may be limited to the particular region only. The communicator may also decide the target audience for communication. For e.g., a communicator designing a health message for family planning may limit the scope of communication to married couples only.

1.9. Summary

Communication is a dynamic process, ongoing and ever-changing, which involves five major elements. The five elements are the message, the sender, the transmission medium, the receiver, and feedback. Communication can be seen as processes of information transmission governed by three levels of semiotic rules: Syntactic, pragmatic and semantic study of relationships between signs and symbols and what they represent. In a simplistic model, information or content (e.g. a message in natural language) is sent in some form (as spoken language) from a sender/encoder to a destination/receiver/decoder. In a slightly more complex form, a sender and a receiver are linked reciprocally. Theories of coregulation describe communication as a creative and dynamic continuous process, rather than a discrete exchange of information.

Symbolic communications are the things that we have given meaning to and that represent a certain idea we have in place. Communication is not the mere sending and receiving of messages. It must be effective. And the Characteristics of effective communication are: Complete (context), Concise (style), Considerate (context/delivery), Concreteness (style/sources), Clarity (organization/ sources), Courtesy (delivery), Correctness (style). Communication may be limited to certain persons, topics, channels or situations. These elements thus define the limits of communication.

1.10. Self assessment questions

1. What are various definitions of communication?
2. Write about the functions of communication.
3. Discuss the purpose of communication with suitable examples.
4. What is meant by ‘scope of communication’?

1.11. Suggested reading

Dennis McQuail and Sven Windahl, 1986. *Communication Models – for the study of Mass Communications*. Longman Inc. New York.

Dutsch, K. “On Communication Models in the Social Sciences.” *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 16:356-380, 1952.

Gerbner, G. “Toward a General Model of Communication.” *Audio-Visual Communication Review*, 4:171-199, 1956.

LESSON 2

VARIABLES OF COMMUNICATION

2.0. Objective of the lesson:

The objective of this lesson is to help the students in understanding the

- Elements of communication.
- Role of Sender, channels, messages in Communication
- Significance of feedback and Noise

Structure of the lesson

- 2.1 Introduction**
- 2.2. Elements of Communication**
- 2.3. Sender**
- 2.4. Message**
- 2.5. Channels**
- 2.6. Receiver**
- 2.7. Feedback**
- 2.8. Noise**
- 2.9. Summary**
- 2.10. Self assessment questions**
- 2.11. Suggested reading**

2.1. Introduction

The beginning of human communication goes back to ancient cave paintings, geographical maps, and writing. Ancient Romans described it as the first real mail or postal system in order to centralize control of the empire from Rome. This allowed for personal letters and for Rome to gather knowledge about events in its many widespread provinces.

Historians have categorized civilization into “ages” based on the medium used during communication. According to the book “Five Epochs of Civilization” of William McGaughey history is divided into the following stages: Ideographic writing produced the first civilization; alphabetic writing, the second; printing, the third; electronic recording and broadcasting, the fourth; and computer communication, the fifth. The media affects what people think about themselves and how they perceive people as well. What we think about self-image and what others should look like comes from the media.

2.2. Elements of Communication Process

Communication involves the sending and receiving of messages between individuals or groups of people. Those individuals take the help of word of mouth in a face-to-face situation. At times, pictures, written words help in communicating. Communication is a dynamic, ongoing, and ever-changing process, which involves five major elements. The five elements are the sender, the message, the transmission medium, the receiver, and feedback. As it is dynamic and two-way, communication does not come to an end with just sending a message from the speaker to the listener. The listener also has a say, i.e through feedback. However, the communication process can be disturbed through different noises or barriers. There are different noises in different circumstances. Hence, the sender, receiver, message, channel, feedback and noise are the variables in a communication process. They vary according to the context of communication.

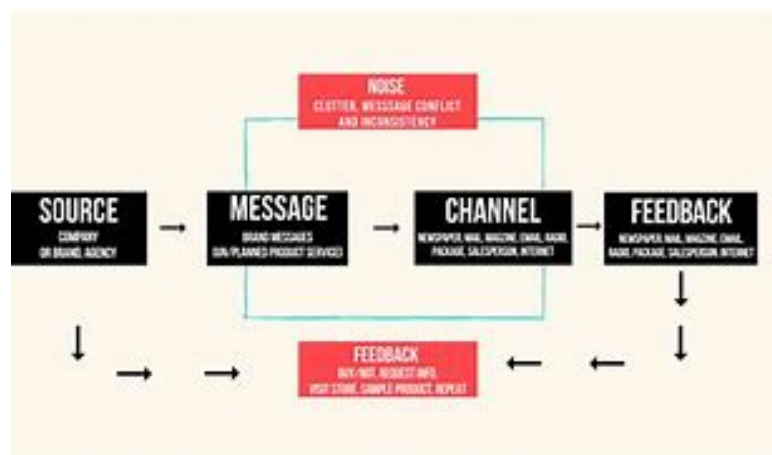


Figure 1

Here the communicator is the encoder, the message is a symbol (verbal or non-verbal), the channel is one of the transmission mediums. The receiver is also the decoder. Feedback is the receiver's response to the communicators/sender's message. Noise is any interruption that breaks down communication.

Here SENDER or COMMUNICATOR formulates or ENCODES an idea or message as best as he can and passes in turn to the receiver. He receives the message and tries to understand it by DECODING. 'Receiver' responds to the 'communicator' by formulating his own message (FEEDBACK) and communicating it to the communicator. If the 'sender' feels that his message is well understood he moves ahead with his next message. This way conversation or communication continues.

Communication is, therefore a two-way process. Hence the ability to receive is as important as the ability to send. Feedback is highly essential for successful communication. It tells how someone's message is being interpreted. It can make or break the communication process.

Let's examine role of each variable in the communication process.

2.3. Sender

The sender is the source of communication. He starts the communication process by transmitting information to the receiver. Encoding of the message, whether written or oral, is a process that requires four separate steps. The first step is to formulate the message by putting thoughts into words. The second step consists of passing the message through many psychological or internal communication barriers. Psychological barriers stem from the sender's existing knowledge, beliefs, biases, and feelings. The message, once filtered through these psychological barriers, is encoded for transmission. The encoding process involves putting words together which ultimately leads to forming the message into some form of code. Transmitting the message, whether in oral or written form is the last step in the process. Communicator i.e. sender might also become a receiver and accept feedback for verification of message delivery.

2.4. Message

The message is what the sender attempts to transmit to his specified receivers. A message not only conveys information but also packages it with emotions that give the words meaning. Words alone do not establish the full meaning of the message. Nonverbal communications may give clues that the receiver can use to interpret verbal messages. Every message has at least two major aspects: content and treatment. The content of the message includes the assertions, arguments, appeals, and themes which the sender transmits to the receivers. For instance, community leaders may wish to send a message to community organizations appealing for financial support for a new housing colony. The content of the message may include the results of a survey showing the need for a new colony, the proposed plan for the new colony, the costs involved, and the appeal for financial support. The treatment is the arrangement or order of the content by the sender. The receiver is likely to be more receptive to the message. The selection of content and the treatment of the message also depends upon the audience and their communication skills, knowledge, attitudes, social position, and culture. A teacher, for example, would probably select different content and treat the message differently when talking about the same subject to two different audiences, i.e., his colleagues and a group of his students.

2.5. Channels

The channel is the transmission medium or the pathway by which the message flows. It is the vehicle that carries the message from the sender to the receiver, and back. The medium can be electronic, written, verbal, or nonverbal. The latest trend in communication, termed smart mobbing, involves ad-hoc organization through mobile devices, allowing for effective many-to-many communication and social networking. Social scientists recognize two types of channels: (1) sensory channels based on the five senses of sight, sound, touch, smell, and taste, and

(2) institutionalized means such as face-to-face conversation, printed materials, and electronic media.

We use the institutionalized means to transmit most of our messages. The sensory channels carry the message from the sender to the receiver. During the face-to-face conversation (an institutionalized medium) we make use of the sight (gestures, expressions), sound (voice, other noises), and possibly touch, smell, or taste.

Social Scientists have generally found that the receiver's attention is more likely to be gained if the sender uses a combination of institutionalized means using two or more sensory channels. Suppose, for example, someone tells your group that the quality of education in your community is not as good as the public is led to believe. If your group can discuss the problems face-to-face with school administrators during visits to the school (sight and sound) as well as hear about them through institutionalized means such as television and newspapers, they are more likely to pay attention to the message.

The face-to-face conversation has the greatest potential for getting the receiver's attention. It should be the primary institutionalized means used by leaders in sending messages to their group members. However, leaders should supplement face-to-face conversation with other institutionalized means and sensory channels in their continuing effort to gain the attention of their group members.

2.6. Receiver

In the communication process, the receiver interprets the meaning of the message. Only when the receiver has understood the message, true communication takes place. The receiver also goes through an internal set of processes related to incoming messages. Upon obtaining the message, the receiver decodes it through assimilation and interpretation. The receiving process is made up of the following steps:

- Receive
- Decode
- Filter
- Interpret

Receiving takes place when the receiver first perceives the message, either by sight or hearing. During this process, the receiver filters the information through their own psychological barriers such as existing knowledge, attitude, beliefs, biases, and perceptions. These barriers affect how well the message is understood, accepted and decoded. To decode a message effectively, the sender and receiver must be communicating in the same language. Language, in this sense, is not limited to formal language types (i.e., English, Spanish, etc.), but also includes the influences of technical knowledge, experience, and critical items called operational definitions. The words in the message must mean the same thing to the receiver and sender or there will be miscommunication.

In certain communication situations, both sender and receiver have equal power in the process

The receiver in communication must attend to, interpret, and respond to the transmitted message. The goal of communication is reached when the receiver accepts the sender's message. Attention and comprehension are the means the receiver used to attain the goal of acceptance of the message. The sender must consider his receiver and treat the message in such a way that the receiver's attention is more easily gained and retained.

2.7. Feedback

In communication, process feedback confirms that the message has been received and understood. It completes the sender's process by verifying that the meaning has not changed. In most written forms of communication, some reply is required. It may range from specific action to a simple receipt. Oral communication via electronic means usually requires only a verbal repeat of the message followed by "roger", "understand", or "aye-aye". Perhaps the greatest cause of ineffective communication is the failure of the sender to request feedback from the receiver.

In face-to-face oral communications, feedback can be more complex. One way to get feedback from face-to-face communication is to solicit questions from your receiver, or each person to whom your message applies. Feedback allows a listener to tell the speaker whether the message was understood. If it is done with care and consideration, it is an important tool for good communication. Feedback lets you describe your reaction instead of evaluating the other person's performance. It is the sender's way of determining the effectiveness of his message. During feedback, the direction of the communication process is reversed. When providing feedback, the original receiver goes through the same process as did the original sender and the same factors influence him as they did the sender.

The receiver may use the same channel for feedback as the sender used for the original message; this is usually the case in face-to-face conversation. Or the receiver may take a different channel, as might be the case when you as a leader transmit a message to your group requesting action on a matter and the group acts or does not act in the way you asked. The group's actions have then become the feedback. Another example might be the increased sales of a product due to advertising. The purchase of the product by the public provides feedback to the manufacturer on the effectiveness of the communicated message. In face-to-face conversation, feedback is more easily perceived. The sender can tell if the receivers are paying attention when he speaks to them. If a receiver falls asleep or looks at other things in the surrounding environment, the sender realizes that he does not have the receiver's attention. It makes communication more participative, gives more clarity to the source, message and enables the source to assess the impact of his message.

2.8. Noise

Noise in communication refers to influences on effective communication that might compromise the interpretation of conversations. In communication, noise can have a profound impact both on our perception of interactions with others, our analysis, and also communication proficiency. Noise can be of various types

Psychological Noise: Psychological noise results from preconceived notions developed during conversations, such as racial stereotypes, reputations, biases, and assumptions. When we enter into a conversation with ideas about what the other person is going to say and why we can easily become blinded to their original message. Most of the time psychological noise is impossible to free ourselves from, and we must simply strive to recognize that it exists and take those distractions into account when we converse with others.

Physical or External Noise: Physical noise is any external or environmental stimulus that distracts us from receiving the intended message sent by a communicator. Examples of physical noise include others talking in the background, background music, a startling noise, acknowledging someone outside of the conversation, an uncomfortable room, or even noticing an outfit that one finds distasteful.

Physiological Noise: Physiological noise is the result of bodily factors which influence communication. This includes the way these feelings and movements affect both the sender and the receiver. The sender may feel sick to his or her stomach and have a racing heart caused by nervousness about a public speech or stress from work. The receiver may notice the sender sweating, twitching, or glancing away. All these noises affect the way the sender is able to effectively communicate as well as the way the receiver is able to effectively decode the message. The receiver may interpret these signs of nerves to the sender being dishonest without there being any verbal clue to indicate that he or she is lying.

Semantic Noise: Among various forms of noise, semantic noise may be the most common and difficult to define. It can be a particular diction or syntax that leads to confusion or misinterpretation of the intended message. Semantic noise is so widespread that it can be extended easily to written language. The reader may perceive an article to be correct if it is written well enough, though that has little to do with the content. However, a person using language this formal in casual conversation may seem a bit strange. Semantic noise often takes the form of disrespectful or outdated terminology that offends a particular group or demographic. It also occurs with words or phrases that mean different things to different people. Semantic noise is often noticed to some extent or another in almost all forms of verbal communication.

2.9. Summary

Communication is a process of the exchange of information, ideas, and feelings. Elements of Communication constitute Sender, Message, Channel, Receiver, Feedback and Noise. The sender is the originator of the message/ communication. The message includes the content of the communication. Channel is the medium through which communication occurs. The receiver is an entity or human being which receives the communication message. Noise is nothing but a disturbance in the communication process. It is of many types such as Physical noise, Psychological noise, Physiological noise, Semantic noise. Feedback involves communication from the receiver to the source regarding the message of the source.

2.10. Self assessment questions

1. Elaborate the process of Communication.
2. Explain the various elements in the communication process.
3. What is the purpose of communication?
4. What is noise? Explain the various types of noise.
5. Explain the importance of feedback in communication.

2.11. Suggested reading

Jenings, Judy and Linda Nagel Malcak (2004) Communication Basics, ASTD, SBN 1562863622.

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LESSON 3

BASIC MODELS OF COMMUNICATION

3.0. Objective of the lesson:

The objective of this lesson is to assist you in understanding the

- Meaning and definition of models of communication.
- Basic models of communication

Structure of the lesson

- 3.1. Introduction
- 3.2. Early models of Communication
- 3.3. Lasswell model
- 3.4. Shannon and Weaver model
- 3.5. Berlo's model of Communication
- 3.6. Summary
- 3.7. Self assessment questions
- 3.8. Suggested reading

3.1. Introduction

A model is a simplified description in graphic form of some aspect of reality. A model of Communication depicts the main elements of any structure or process of human social action and the relations between these elements, plus any flow or exchange that takes place. The main benefits are to organize disparate elements and observations and to give a simplified picture of the underlying dynamics. The purpose of such models is thus primarily *heuristic* – an aid to the description and explanation of communication. To a lesser extent, they can help in predicting the outcomes of certain communication processes and situations by drawing attention to factors to take into account and forces at work. In this way, they are useful as a source of hypotheses, a guide to research, and a format for ordering the results of research. To exemplify, the concentration of research effort in the early decades on the unintended effects of mass media violence and aggression led to a model (Comstock et al. 1978) that organizes the result of many findings. The form of the model is that of a typical sequence, beginning with “exposure” to some mass media representation of violence, with varying degrees of arousal and a probability of imitation of the violence depicted depending on the degree of perceived realism, the perception of consequences of imitation, and the opportunity to carry out imitation. Models do seem to play a more central part in communication than in other social sciences as well as humanities. In humanistic traditions, the influence of Roman Jakobson's (1960) model, deriving from linguistics and poetics, and re-emphasizing the role of a symbolic code over and above the

channel or contact, is comparable to that of Shannon and Weaver (1949) in social-scientific traditions. One possible explanation is that time, space (distance), and direction are key variables in many communication processes, and all three lend themselves to graphic representation especially in combination.

3.2. Early Models of Communication

The beginnings of communication as a separate branch of study or discipline date from the early 1950s, mainly in the United States or under its influence. This phase was marked by a search for a unifying concept of communication. Although no agreed definition could be found, it resulted in the formulation of a simple graphic representation of communication as a process linking a sender and a receiver by a channel carrying messages from one to the other.

Shannon and Weaver (1949) are usually credited with this invention, inspired by and intended for wireless or the telephone transmission, but providing an embryonic model that could be applied to a wide range of situations, ranging from interpersonal conversation to mass communication on a national and even international scale. Their “mathematical” model was meant for calculating the capacity and efficiency of communication. In this version, communication is represented as a linear, one-way process, concentrating on what is physically observable or measurable. In fact, this bias suited practitioners of mass communication research at the time, since they focused primarily on the effects (intended or not) of messages from the mass media, which were typically considered as strong, direct, and one-directional. The initial tendency of communication researchers was to elaborate this basic model to make it more appropriate to a fuller notion of human communication, especially by way of the mass media as characterized by center-periphery transmission, multiple channels, standardized content and very large audiences. Wilbur Schramm (1954) drew on the work of Charles Osgood to redraw a basic model of communication as a circular process of exchange of messages, requiring a process of *interpretation* (encoding and decoding) at each stage, with potential interchangeability of sender and receiver roles.

The first elaborated “general” model of communication was proposed by George Gerbner (1956). It included a number of new elements, especially the process of perception of some event that precedes the formulation of a message, and also a recognition of the fact that messages are formulated in varied forms and by varied symbolic means (linguistic, aural, visual, etc.). The process of the reception was represented in the model as a repetition of the initial act of perception (the message being now the “event” perceived). This model was intended to apply not only to humans but also to “machine” communication.

3.3. Lasswell model

Harold Dwight Lasswell (1902–1978), an American political scientist who had a specific interest in the symbolic aspects of politics is considered as one of the founders of mass communication research in the United States. Although his wide-ranging and prolific writings on theoretical and methodological issues regarding politics, personality, and culture remained rather peripheral to communication research, his approach to the effects of mass communication helped define and strengthen a quantitative approach to questions concerning media and communication in the political arena. Lasswell studied at the University of Chicago with George Herbert Mead, Robert E. Park, and Charles Merriam, while being influenced by John Dewey and American

pragmatism. He also taught at Chicago (1922–1938) and served as chief of the Experimental Division for the Study of War Time Communications at the Library of Congress in Washington, DC, during World War II before joining the Yale law school (1946–1970). Among early contributors to the field of communication studies, Lasswell was particularly knowledgeable about Freudian psychology and Marxist ideology. His insight into the structure of the latter provided a comparative perspective for the analysis of political behavior, long before many of his American colleagues acknowledged its relevance. His efforts at integrating classical and empirical political science solidified the quantitative approach to different aspects of communication flows, ranging from psychiatric reports to propaganda campaigns. By denying the dualism of individual and society, and by applying Freudian analysis to society, he established the importance of considering the social totality as a symbolic context, thus anticipating later directions in social theory and analysis. Lasswell acknowledged the implications of culture and language for the study of political communication, aided especially by the interdisciplinary nature of his inquiries.

Lasswell's (1948) definition of communication was a powerful and influential contribution to conceptualizing communication as transmission. In making it, he not only identified the major elements of the communication process – communicator, message, medium, receiver, and effects – but also labeled the corresponding areas of communication research – control, content, media, audience, and effect analysis. His descriptive model revealed a primary interest in persuasive communication but also referred to broader functional equivalences between an organism and the body social within an approach dominated by the intent of the communicator and the effect of messages.

This definition of communication dates back to the stimulus-response model, rooted in learning theory, which became a significant force in the rise of mass communication theory in the United States and in post-1945 Europe. Emerging from Lasswell's work is the realization of a growing social and political need to study and understand mass communication phenomena, particularly in the realm of politics, including the uses of propaganda in the practice of democracy. His ideas about effects, his contributions to content analysis and his humanistic inflection of behaviorism, in particular, helped shape communication studies, even when the field was dominated at the time by the disciplinary interests of American sociology.

Lasswell's model suggests the message flow in a multicultural society with multiple audiences. The flow of messages is through various channels. And also this communication model is similar to Aristotle's communication model. In this model, the communication component

- Who refers the research area called “Control Analysis”,
- Says what refers to “Content Analysis”.
- In which channel refers to “Media Analysis”.
- To whom refers to “Audience Analysis”.
- With What Effect refers to “Effect Analysis”.

Example:

CNN News – A water leak from Japan’s tsunami-crippled nuclear power station resulted in about 100 times the permitted level of radioactive material flowing into the sea, operator Tokyo Electric Power Co said on Saturday.

Who- TEPC Operator

What – Radioactive material flowing into the sea

Channel- CNN News (Television medium)

Whom-Public

Effect-Alert the people of Japan from the radiation.

Having found the Lasswellian model 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. He added two more facets of the communicative act, namely the circumstance under which a message is sent, and for what purpose the communicator says something (Fig.2).

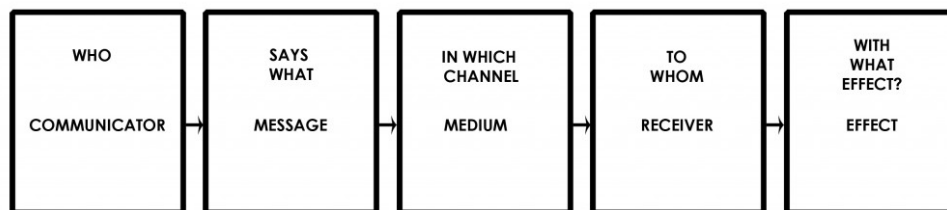


Fig.2: Braddock’s extension of the Lasswell Formula

Braddock stresses that the formula may be misleading in that it directs the researcher to distinct fields of study. In reality, they are to a large extent interrelated.

The advantages of Lasswell model are

- It is easy and simple
- It suits almost all types of communication
- The concept of effects.

Disadvantages include

- Feedback not mentioned
- Noise not mentioned
- Linear Model

The Lasswell formula shows a typical trait of early communication models: It more or less takes for granted that the communicator has some intent in influencing the receiver and, hence that

communication should be treated mainly as a persuasive process. It is also assumed that messages always have effects. Models such as this have surely contributed to the tendency to exaggerate the effects of especially, mass communication. On the other hand, this is not surprising when we know that Lasswell's interest at the time was political communication and propaganda, the formula is well suited. Lasswell has been criticized for having omitted the element of feedback. In this way, too, his model reflects the general view of the time when it was formulated. This criticism however should not obscure the fact that it is even today a convenient and comprehensive way of introducing people to the study of the communication process.

3.4. Shannon & Weaver's Mathematical model

Among all the single contributions to the models today Shannon's is the most important. In the technical side of communication research, Shannon's mathematical formulations were the stimulus to much of the later effort in this area. Did he work for the Bell Telephone Laboratory and 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 the transmitted signal will be destroyed by noise underway from transmitter to receiver?

In 1948, Shannon an American mathematician, Electronic engineer joined Weaver was an American scientist and wrote an article in "Bell System Technical Journal" called "AQ Mathematical Theory of Communication" and also called as "Shannon-Weaver model of communication". Shannon and Weaver (1949) are usually credited with this invention, inspired by and intended for wireless or the telephone transmission, but providing an embryonic model that could be applied to a wide range of situations, ranging from interpersonal conversation to mass communication on a national and even international scale. Their "mathematical" model was meant for calculating the capacity and efficiency of communication. In this version, communication is represented as a linear, one-way process, concentrating on what is physically observable or measurable.

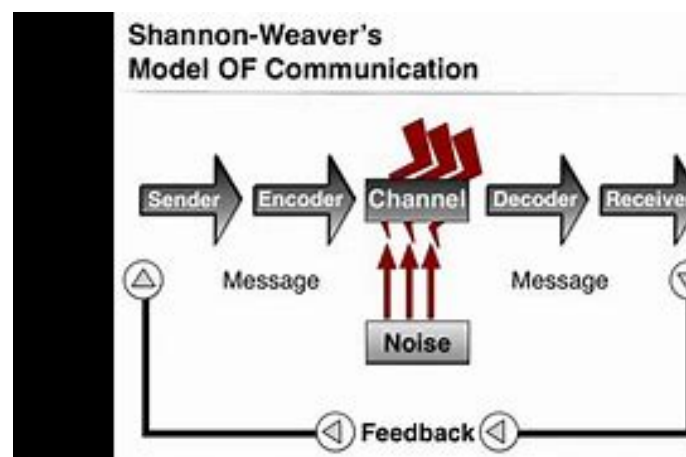


Figure 3

The graphical model, made by Shannon and his co-worker Warren Weaver (1949), has been used analogically by behavioral and linguistic scientists. Technological problems differ from human

ones, but it is easy to find the traces of the Shannon-Weaver model in a number of later models of human communication. This model is specially designed to develop effective communication between sender and receiver. Communication is here described as a linear one-way process. The model states five functions to be performed and notes one dysfunctional factor, noise. Also, they find factors that affect the communication process called "Noise". At first, the model was developed to improve Technical communication. Later it's widely applied in the field of Communication. The model deals with various concepts like Information source, transmitter, Noise, channel, message, receiver, channel, information destination, encode and decode.

The first element in the process, information source, produces a message or a chain of messages. In the second step, the message is converted into signals by a transmitter. The signals should be adapted to 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 communication to realize that sent and received messages are not always identical is a common reason why communication fails. In fact, this bias suited practitioners of mass communication research at the time, since they focused primarily on the effects (intended or not) of messages from the mass media, which were typically considered as strong, direct, and one-directional.

Sender: The originator of the message or the information source selects desired message.

Encoder: The transmitter which converts the message into signals. The sender's message is converted into signals like waves or binary data which is compactable to transmit the message through cables or satellites. For example: In telephone, the voice is converted into wave signals and it transmits through cables.

Decoder: The receptor of the signal converts signals into messages. A reverse process of encoding takes place here.

The receiver converts those binary data or waves into a message which is comfortable and understandable for the receiver. Otherwise, receiver can't receive the exact message and it will affect the effective communication between sender and receiver

Receiver: The receiver is the destination of the message from the sender. Based on the decoded message the receiver gives their feedback to the sender. If the message is distracted by the noise it will affect the communication flow between sender and receiver.

Noise: The messages are transferred from encoder to decoder through channel. During this process the message may be distracted or affected by physical noise like horn sounds, thunder and crowd noise or encoded signal may distract the channel during the transmission process which affects the communication flow or the receiver may not receive the correct message.

The model clearly deals with external noises only which affect the message or signals from external sources. For example: If any problem occurs in a network it might directly affect mobile phone communication or distract the messages

Criticism of Shannon – Weaver model of communication

1. One of the simplest models and it is generally applied in various communication theories.
2. The model which attracts both academics of Human communication and Information theories leads to further development of research in communication.
3. It's more effective in person-to-person communication than group or mass audience.
4. The model is based on "Sender and Receiver". Here sender plays the primary role and the receiver plays the secondary role (receiver the information or passive).
5. Communication is not a one-way process. If it behaves like that, it will lose its strength. For example, Audience or receiver who is listening to a radio, reading books, or watching television is a one-way communication because the absence of feedback.
6. Understanding Noise will help in solving various problems in communication.

3.5 Berlo's Model of Communication

Berlo's approach is rather different from the earlier more straightforward transmission models as he places great emphasis on dyadic (having two elements) communication, and stressed on the role of the relationship between the source and the receiver as an important variable in the communication process. David Berlo's SMCR model of communication (1960) describes the role of various components in the communication process. The four basic components are the source, message, channel and receiver and five channels that need to be considered. The source and the receiver are treated in the same way.

Berlos's SMCR Model of communication

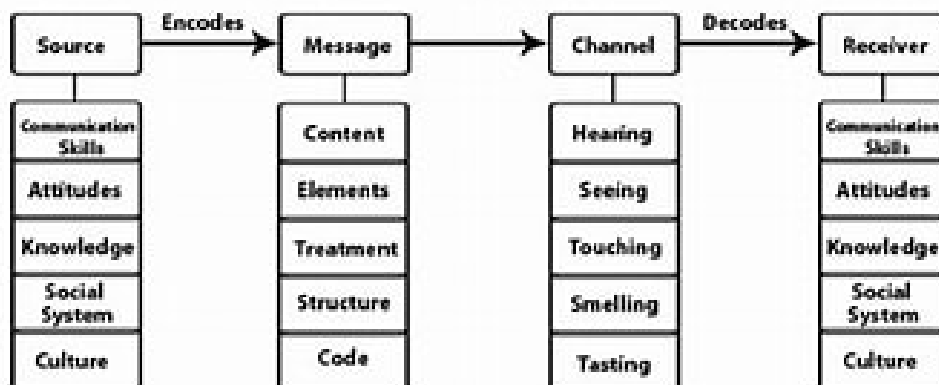


Figure 4

1. **Source:** The source means the message's sender who initiates the communication process by sending information to the receiver. David Berlo describes five factors related to the source. i.e. the source or the receiver need to be understood based on variables such as communication skills i.e. speaking and writing for the source, and listening and reading for the receiver, their attitude, their knowledge, their social system and the culture in which they operate.

- Communication skills meant the ability to speak, read, write, and listen. It also indicates the ability to use nonverbal communication cues during the interaction. Non verbal cues are eye contact, facial expression, body language, gesture, posture, and so more. The communication skill of the source or sender increases the effectiveness of the communication process.
 - **Attitude:** Attitude is the psychological factor of the sender and receiver that affects the meaning of the message. It is also an established perception of a person in which they think or feel about something. Thus, the meaning of the message depends on the source's attitude and the receiver.
 - **Knowledge:** Knowledge indicates the level of actual information, familiarity, and experience on the discussion topic. The topic which is part of the discussion becomes the message of the communication process. Therefore, the communicator feels comfortable discussing if the topic is familiar to them. However, knowledge does not imply the educational qualification or degrees of the sender or receiver. For example, a football player will show more interest in talking about football rather than cricket. On the other hand, a cricket player will surely feel comfortable discussing a cricket game. Here, knowledge indicates familiarity with the subject of the discussion topic or message.
 - **Social System:** Social system refers to the values, beliefs, behaviors, rules and regulations, locations, and religions. These factors influence the method of the communication process as well as the meaning of the message. For example, the speaker is delivering an anti-America message in the American parliament election campaign. It is considerably sure that the audience will not receive and listen to his message attentively. It is an example of a location factor that is also part of the social system.
 - **Culture:** Culture refers to the community or social background where the sender and receiver are from. The meaning of the same message might be identical when people from different cultures interpret it. It is a significant factor from the perspective of nonverbal communication cues. For example, wishing Namashte with folded hands is a common phenomenon in the Indian community. On the other hand, handshaking is a standard greeting among men and women in Western culture. Salam conveys the greeting message in the Muslim community; however, handshaking is another activity that also exchanges the same meaning.
2. **Message:** The message consists of both elements and structure, each of which may be broken down into content, treatment, **elements, structure** and code.
 3. **Channels:** For the channels, Berlo insists that the message may be sent or received through any or all of the five senses such as hearing, **seeing, touching, smelling, and tasting**. There are many types of channels in communication such as telephone, TV, radio, newspapers, etc. But these five factors are part of the human communication process.
 4. **Receiver:** Finally, the Receiver is the person who receives the message or information in the communication process. Berlo added the same factors of the sources, for example,

Communication skills, Attitudes, Knowledge, Social Systems, and Culture, to the Receiver.

It was for the first time that the EFFECT component was initiated in the communication process. Berlo suggested that message received must have some effect, positive or negative, on the audience.

3.6. Summary

A communication model depicts the main elements of the process of human communication in the social context. It takes place between the elements among which flow or exchange of messages is observed. The model provides a platform to organize disparate elements and enable for better understanding. Models play crucial roles in communication than in other social sciences as well as humanities. The early Models of Communication are Lasswell model, Shannon and Weaver's technical model and Berlo's popular model of senses of human communication. In almost all models communication is represented as a linear, one-way process. They focused primarily on the effects (intended or not) of messages which were typically considered as strong, direct, and one-directional. Later these basic models were improved upon to depict a fuller notion of human communication. In the process of reshaping and addition of few more elements mass media was characterized by center-periphery transmission, multiple channels, standardized content and very large audiences. Wilbur Schramm (1954) drew on the work of Charles Osgood to redraw a basic model of communication as a circular process of exchange of messages, requiring a process of interpretation (encoding and decoding) at each stage, with potential interchangeability of sender and receiver roles.

3.7. Self assessment questions

1. Discuss the importance of lasswell model.
2. Shannon and Weaver model prescribes the technical aspects to communication. Elaborate
3. Explain the Berlo model and its significance in communication.

3.8. Suggested reading

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LESSON 4

TYPES OF COMMUNICATION

4.0. Objective of the lesson:

The objective of this lesson is to assist you in understanding the

- Various kinds of communication
- Intrapersonal communication
- Interpersonal communication
- Group communication
- Mass communication

Structure of the lesson:

- 4.1. Introduction
- 4.2. Intrapersonal communication
- 4.3. Interpersonal communication
- 4.4. Group communication
- 4.5. Summary
- 4.6. Model Questions
- 4.7. Suggested reading

4.1. Introduction

In everyday life, human beings are engaged in different types of communication. They may be communicating to themselves, busy introspecting for hours, or talking to a friend or relative. At times, people are found either in a group discussion with friends or attending a sermon by a spiritual Guru. These are nothing but different communication situations which can be precisely classified. Communication is classified into various types based on the number of people involved in the process. It is divided into Intrapersonal communication, Interpersonal, Group and Mass communication.

4.2. Intrapersonal communication

For the majority of people, communication is meant to process interaction with others. This is a great fallacy because communication also takes place between us. In fact, all forms of communication originated from within us in the form of intrapersonal communication, and only then does it lead to communication that involves others. Intrapersonal communication is the usage of language or the cultivation of thoughts internal to the communicator. It includes the active involvement of the individual in the symbolic processing of messages within an individual himself. The individual becomes his or her own sender and receiver, providing feedback to him or herself in an ongoing internal process. It can be useful to envision intrapersonal

communication occurring in the mind of the individual in a model which contains a sender, receiver, and feedback loop.

The thoughts originated, processed, and dealt with in the human mind going on in our minds like thinking whether to say or not to say something is just one example of intra-personal communication. According to some experts, a human being communicates within himself 50,000 times a day, which indeed is a lot of communication, and needs great attention.

Intra-personal communication is also known by many other names like self-dialogue, self-talk, inner monologue, inner dialogue, inner speech, and self-verbalization. The understanding of Intra-personal communication and improving it can tremendously enhance the quality of our lives. The following are some of the effects observed during inter-personal communication. .

4.2.1. It affects the performance

Intra-personal communication begins with thoughts that lead to feeling and finally, ends up in actions. Positive intra-personal communication leads to positive feelings, which in turn generates positive actions. Likewise, negative self-talk will generate negative self-feelings, negative actions and performance. People who affirm their capabilities, strengths and good qualities perform better than those who oppress themselves with negative self-dialogue.

4.2.2. It influences communication with others

There are many examples of people who stammer, cannot express themselves clearly, or face identical handicaps which stem not from any physical defect, but rather from their low self-esteem the result of negative intra-personal communication. They face these problems because in their minds, oppressing dialogues like “I am scared”, “They don’t like me “, and “What will they think?”, “My English is not good “, etc, are repeatedly played in their minds. This type of message makes them feel uncomfortable and lose confidence. This behavior is relayed through body language and leads to negative vibrations with others and blocks effective communication. It is often observed that in world-class communication when before public speeches are organized the speakers affirm and reinforce themselves with positive intra-personal communication. Our intra-personal communication shall have positive or negative implications on our communication with others.

4.2.3. Strategies for improving Intra-Personal Communication

The importance of intrapersonal communication and its impact on an individual’s personality, life, and performance should motivate people to improve it. There are many ways that can improve the process. The following are some of the strategies which can help nurture healthy intra-personal communication styles.

- a. **Awareness** It is unlikely that people consciously indulge in negative intra-personal communication. Rather, they may do so due to ingrained styles of thoughts or due to the

conditions that force the individual. Consciously focusing on thoughts and by closely monitoring how we communicate with ourselves will enable us to know about the nature and the quality of our intra-personal communication.

- b. **Choice** During the intra-personal dialogue, the mode of communication often changes. It is not necessary that people indulge all the time, either in negative or positive self-talk, rather they have a pattern either negative or positive which prevails most of the time. An individual can try to choose thoughts that are positive and consciously stop those which are negative. Through mental discipline, persistence and willpower one can choose self-supporting thoughts thus improving intra-personal communication.
- c. **Action** Intra-personal communication coupled with action means i.e continuously engaging ourselves in self-dialogue which is positive helps an individual become self-supportive and affirmative. At times when one is feeling down, depressed and indulges in negative intra-personal communication, deliberate self-motivation will help in improving the situation.

4.2.4. Intrapersonal communication is often linked to various personal characteristics

Intra-personal communication has strong bearings on an individual's thoughts, feelings and actions. Our actions sum up to our performance and people are either known for their performance or remain unknown because they do not perform. Intra-personal communication can be improved by disciplining our thoughts, taking conscious efforts to indulge in positive self-talk, and avoiding negative self-verbalization, wherein individuals can learn to improve themselves and become proactive people.

4.3. Interpersonal communication

Interpersonal communication may be defined as “a symbolic interaction between people rather than between a person and an inanimate object”. “Interpersonal communication is a symbolic process by which two or more people, bound together in a relationship, provides resources or negotiates the exchange of resources”. Interpersonal communication is analyzed by examining how many people are involved, how physically close they are to one another, how many sensory channels are used, and the feedback provided. Interpersonal communication differs from other forms of communication in that there are few participants involved, the interactants are in close physical proximity to each other, there are many sensory channels used, and feedback is immediate.

An important point to note about the contextual definition is that it does not take into account the relationship between the interactants. Many different relationships with people. Some researchers say that definition of interpersonal communication must account for these differences. These researchers say that interacting with a sales clerk in a store is different than the relationship we have with our friends and family members. Some researchers have proposed an alternative way of defining interpersonal communication called the developmental view which stress on the length of relation. From this view, interpersonal communication is defined as communication that occurs between people who have known each other for some time.

Functions of Interpersonal Communication

Interpersonal communication is important because of the functions it achieves. Whenever we engage in communication with another person, we seek to gain information about them. We also give off information through a wide variety of verbal and nonverbal cues.

Gaining Information. One reason we engage in interpersonal communication is that we can gain knowledge about another individual. One can assess as to they will think, feel, and act if we know who they are. We gain this information passively, by observing actively, by engaging them; or interactively, by engaging among ourselves.

Building a Context of Understanding. People also engage in interpersonal communication to help better understanding of what someone says in a given context. The words exchanged between two individuals mean very different things depending on how they are said or in what context. Content Messages refer to the surface-level meaning of a message. Relationship Messages refer to how a message is said. The two are sent simultaneously, but each affects the meaning assigned to the communication. Interpersonal communication helps us understand each other better.

Establishing Identity. Another reason for engaging in interpersonal communication is to establish identity. The roles played in relationships help establish identity. So too does the face, the public self-image portrayed to others. Both roles and faces are constructed based on how people interact with others.

Interpersonal Needs. Finally, we engage in interpersonal communication because one needs to express and receive interpersonal needs. William Schutz has identified three such needs: inclusion, control, and affection. *Inclusion* is the need to establish identity with others.

Control is the need to exercise leadership and prove one's abilities. Groups provide outlets for this need. Some individuals do not want to be a leader. For them, groups provide the necessary control over aspects of their lives. *Affection* is the need to develop relationships with people. Groups are an excellent way to make friends and establish relationships.

4.3.1. Four Principles of Interpersonal Communication

These principles underlie the workings in the real life of interpersonal communication. They are basic to communication.

Interpersonal communication is inescapable: One can't escape from not communicating. The very attempt not to communicate communicates something. Through not only words but through tone of voice and through gesture, posture, facial expression, etc., we constantly communicate to those around us. Through these channels, we constantly receive communication from others. Even when you sleep, you communicate. Another way to put this is: people are judged by their behavior, not the intent.

Interpersonal communication is irreversible: One can't really take back something which has already been saying. The effect is experienced at least for some time. A Russian proverb says, "Once a word goes out of your mouth, you can never swallow it again."

Interpersonal communication is complicated: No form of communication is simple. Because of the number of variables involved, even simple requests are extremely complex. Theorists note that whenever we communicate there are really at least six “people” involved:

- 1) who you think you are;
- 2) who you think the other person is;
- 3) who you think the other person thinks you are;
- 4) who the other person thinks /she is;
- 5) who the other person thinks you are; and
- 6) who the other person thinks you think s/he is. We don't actually swap ideas, we swap symbols that stand for ideas. This also complicates communication.

Words (symbols) do not have inherent meaning; we simply use them in certain ways, and no two people use the same word exactly alike.

Interpersonal communication is contextual

Communication does not happen in isolation and a context is always noticed in interpersonal communication. The context is also of 5 types.

Psychological context, which is who the particular individual is and what he brings to the interaction. Your needs, desires, values, personality, etc., of the individual, constitute the psychological context. (“You” here refers to both participants in the interaction.)

Relational context is concerned with reactions to the other person which is often a “mix.”

The situational context deals with the psycho-social factor “where the individuals are communicating. An interaction that takes place in a classroom will be very different from one that takes place in a bar.

The environmental context deals with the physical “where” you are communicating. Furniture, location, noise level, temperature, season, time of day is examples of factors in the environmental context.

Cultural context includes all the learned behaviors and rules that affect the interaction. In some cultures where it is considered rude to make long, direct eye contact, it would be avoided intentionally. But if he comes in contact with a person who comes from a culture where long, direct eye contact signals trustworthiness, then misunderstanding might set in.

4.4. Group Communication

Group communication refers to the nature of communication that occurs in groups that contain few individuals. It's an extension of interpersonal communication. Group communication generally takes place in a context that constitutes interpersonal communication interactions within social clusters. Group communication is communication that occurs between various members of a group or members of smaller groups come together. It is estimated that over 11 million meetings are held each day and that at least 40 percent of work-life will be spent attending group meetings and conferences. A recent survey showed that the typical executive

spends about 700 hours per year interacting in groups. That is the equivalent of two of every five days on the job. Thus, knowing how to relate to others in a group setting is not only vital for personal success but also to attain professional success.”

4.4.1. Group and its determinants

In a given situation groups are determined by certain factors.

Size. Most researchers define a small group as having at least three and no more than twelve or fifteen members. A group needs to have at least three members, otherwise, it would simply be a dyad. With three members, coalitions can be formed and some kind of organization is present. Too large of a group of more than twelve or fifteen members inhibits the group members' ability to communicate with everyone else in the group.

Interaction. A group's members must be able to communicate freely and openly with all of the other members of the group. Groups will develop norms and roles which will affect the group's interaction.

Goals. A group must have a common purpose or goal and they must work together to achieve that goal. The goal brings the group together and holds it together through conflict and tension.

Objective. Groups form to accomplish some objectives. The objective may be to complete some kind of task or it may be to promote interpersonal relationships between the group members. Many groups, however, fulfill both of these functions.

4.4.2. Types of Groups

Groups are classified based on their functioning. They are

1. **Social Groups** While all groups will have both social and task dimensions, some groups are predominantly social in their orientation. Examples of these groups would be families and social clubs. These groups provide for our safety and solidarity needs and they help us develop self-esteem.
2. **Work Groups** Work groups function to complete a particular task. In a workgroup, the task dimension is emphasized. The group members pool their expertise to accomplish the task. Examples of this would be workplaces, campus organizations, or juries. There are several types of workgroups, based on the work of Ivan Steiner.
 3. **Additive Work Group:** All group members perform the same activity and pool their results at the end. An example of this would be gathering signatures for a petition drive.
 4. **Conjunctive Work Group:** Group members perform differently, but related, tasks that allow for the completion of a goal. Every group member must complete their task in order for the group task to be completed. An example of this would be an industry, in which each worker performs tasks together to bring out a product.
 - a. **Disjunctive Task:** Members meet to determine the best alternative for a problem or issue. There are two types of disjunctive tasks:

- b. Judgment Task:** Group members must choose one correct answer from all alternatives.
- c. Decision-Making Task:** Group members must choose the best alternative from a set of options. There is no one correct answer for a decision-making group.

5. Contrived or Emergent Groups: Some groups form spontaneously, such as a group of friends. Other groups are contrived, that is, they are formed for a specific purpose. Organized clubs, social groups, or committees are contrived groups.

Communication within a group deals with the spoken and the unspoken, the verbal and the non-verbal, the explicit and the implied messages that are conveyed and exchanged relating to information ideas, and feelings. Social psychologist Robert Bales started research on group communication in the early and mid-1950s. It elaborated the outcomes of the discussions within groups about their decisions, human relations, problems etc. Bales made a series of important discoveries. They are

- Group discussion tends to shift back and forth relatively quickly between the discussion of the group task and the relevance of the relationship among the members.
- Group discussion passes through different phases. It starts from an emphasis on opinion exchange, through attentiveness to values underlying the decision and finally it culminates in decision making. This implication that group discussion goes through the same series of stages in the same order for any decision-making group is known as the linear phase model.
- The most talkative member of a group tends to make between 40 and 50 percent of the comments and the second most talkative member is between 25 and 30, no matter the size of the group. As a consequence, large groups tend to be dominated by one or two members to the detriment of the others.

These discoveries have led to the formulation of the linear phase model. The idea that all groups performing a given type of task go through the same series of stages in the same order was replicated through the 1950s, 1960s and 1970s; with most finding four phases of discussion. B. Aubrey Fisher in 1970 explained about groups going sequentially through an orientation stage, a conflict stage, a stage in which a decision emerges and a stage in which that decision is reinforced. In the 1980s, communication researcher Marshall Scott Poole examined a sample of groups without making these errors and noted substantial differences among them in the number and order of stages. He theorized that groups finding themselves in some difficulty due to task complexity, an unclear leadership structure, or poor cohesion act as if they feel the need to conduct a “complete” discussion and thus are more likely to pass through all.

In a group, two-way communication is possible implying a situation where not only do the groups talk to each other, but that they are listening to each other as well.

This helps in

- Clarification of doubts, confusions and misconceptions
- Both parties understand each other

- Receiving and giving feedback

In the 1980s researcher, Randy Y. Hirokawa (1985) proposed that depending upon task, the quality of a group's decision appears to be associated with the extent to which the group examines the problem it faces, identifies the requirements of an ideal solution and evaluates the positive and negative features of proposed solutions. He demonstrated that these decision functions need not occur in any particular order. Communication researchers Renee Meyers and Dale Brashers have also had some success in correlating group decisions with the pattern of arguments (in the sense of argumentation theory) that occur during discussion.

4.5. Summary

Basing on the number of people involved Communication is basically of four types. They are Intra personal, Interpersonal, Group and Mass communication. Intrapersonal communication is language use or thought internal to the communicator. Intrapersonal communication is the active internal involvement of the individual in the symbolic processing of messages. The individual becomes his or her own sender and receiver, providing feedback to him or herself an ongoing internal process. It can be useful to envision intrapersonal communication occurring in the mind of the individual in a model which contains a sender, receiver, and feedback loop. Interpersonal communication may be defined as "a symbolic interaction between people rather than between a person and an inanimate object". It is a symbolic process by which two people, bound together in a relationship, provide each other with resources or negotiate the exchange of resources". Another important type of communication is group communication. Small-group communication refers to the nature of communication that occurs in groups that range from 2 to 10 individuals. Small group communication generally takes place in a context that mixes interpersonal communication interactions with social clustering. Group communication is communication that occurs between various members of a group. In a group, two-way communication is possible implying a situation where not only do the groups talk to each other, but that they are listening to each other as well.

This helps in

- Clarification of doubts, confusions and misconceptions
- Both parties understand each other
- Receiving and giving feedback

4.6. Self assessment questions

1. List the various types of communication.
2. What is intrapersonal communication? Explain the characteristics of intrapersonal communication?
3. Illustrate the features of interpersonal communication with examples.
4. What are the characteristics of group communication?

4.7. Suggested reading

Emmert, Philip and Victoria J. Lukasko (1984) *Interpersonal Communication*, Wm. C. Brown.

Hartley, Peter (1999) *Interpersonal Communication*, Routledge.

Wright, Charles Robert (1959) *Mass Communication: A Sociological Perspective*, Random House

Hancock, Alan (1968) *Mass Communication*, Longmans.

Bittner R. John (1996) *Mass Communication*, Allyn & Bacon.

LESSON 5

MASS COMMUNICATION

5.0. Objective of the lesson:

The objective of this lesson is to assist you in

- Understanding the meaning of mass communication.
- Understanding the concept of Mass Media
- Have an overview of mass communication
- Understand the elements of mass communication
- Gain an overview of important media theories

Structure of the lesson:

- 5.1. Introduction to Mass Communication
- 5.2. Characteristics of Mass Communication
- 5.3. Mass Media.
- 5.4. Media Organizations
- 5.5. Media Access
- 5.6. Mass Media Formats
- 5.7. Media Convergence
- 5.8. Summary
- 5.9. Self assessment questions
- 5.10. Suggested reading

5.1. Introduction to Mass Communication

Mass communication occurs when a small number of people share messages, ideas, attitudes to a largely anonymous and usually heterogeneous audience through the use of specialized mass media. The units of mass communication include the messages, the media, and the audience. Mass Communication represents the creation and sending of a homogeneous message to a large heterogeneous audience through the media. Mass communication studies the uses and effects of the media by many as opposed to the study of human interaction as in other communication contexts. Mass communication messages are produced by organizations. The medium for these messages permits accurate duplication. The messages are distributed to large audiences at roughly the same time. Face-to-face communication occurs on many channels, with many opportunities to send and receive messages, and with much complexity in the communication process. The art of mass communication is much more difficult than face-to-face communication as adjusting the appeal to all is impossible. Despite this, a successful mass communicator tries to adopt the right methods of expression to establish empathy with the largest possible number of individuals in the audience. The communicator has to perfect two crucial tasks; what to communicate and how to deliver the message to make the greatest possible impact on the audience. The effectiveness of the message leaves a lasting impression.

5.2. Characteristics of mass communication

Mass communication is important for any society to keep the people together. Its characteristics are

1. Presence of a mass medium is the most essential prerequisite for mass communication. Unlike the human voice or a public address system, mass media is capable of reaching worldwide.
2. The communication is impersonal, that is, messages are not addressed to particular individuals. They are meant for a large number of people.
3. Message is the outcome of the efforts of many individuals. These individuals represent a complex organization that usually works for making a profit.
4. The audience in mass communication is relatively large, heterogeneous, and unknown to the source.
5. There is the use of limited sensory channels by the audience. For example, we use only ear or eye while attending to mass media messages unlike in public communication where there is the likelihood of using all five senses.
6. There are many gatekeepers (like news editors and film producers) that influence the flow of information to a receiver or a group of receivers by selecting, changing or rejecting messages.
7. The feedback is delayed and involves a chain or network of individuals. Feedback intended for one person in the chain is likely to reach a different member. To add to this, the source can't make the public as the received feedbacks.

Mass communication differs from other forms of communication, such as interpersonal communication and organizational communication, because it focuses on particular resources transmitting information to numerous receivers. The study of mass communication is chiefly concerned with how the content of mass communication persuades or otherwise affects the behavior, attitude, opinion, or emotion of the people receiving the information. Normally, the transmission of messages to many persons at a time is called Mass communication. But in a complete sense, mass communication can be understood as the process of extensive circulation of information within regions and across the globe. Through mass communication, information can be transmitted quickly to many people who generally stay far away from the sources of information. Mass communication is practiced in multiple mediums such as radio, television, social networking, billboards, newspapers, magazines, books, film, and the Internet. In this modern era, mass communication is being used to disperse information at an accelerated rate, often about politics and other charged topics.

Functionalism

The focus on understanding the effects of mass communications, especially its social consequences and its impact on the maintenance of social order gave rise to a theoretical framework called functionalism. Functionalism focuses on explaining slow, evolutionary change and not sudden changes. The limited capacity of functionalism to be used only in policy research, evaluation and planning has been criticized by many theorists. The focus of functionalism is on how mass communication serves society and fails to account for how humans interact with mass communication and construct meanings from messages. The focus

on maintaining the existing social order and not allowing for any meaningful change has also been criticized.

According to Merton, the functions of mass communication can either be manifest or latent. Manifest functions are the readily observed and intended consequences of the media. Latent functions on the other hand refer to the impacts that are not as easy to be observed or those which are unintended.

Lasswell and Wright's Functions of Mass Communication

1. **Surveillance of the environment:** An important function of the media is to keep up surveillance of all the happenings in the world and provide information to human society. The media has the responsibility of providing news and covering a wide variety of issues that is of some service to society. Media help maintain social order by providing instructions on what has to be done in times of crisis, thereby reducing confusion among the masses. During times of natural disasters, war, health scares, etc., it is the role of the media to create awareness by providing information on what is happening and of ways in which the disaster can be faced. Mass communication/mass media is there to observe and inform. Mass media keeps citizens informed of news and events.
2. **Correlation among parts of the society:** Traditional news outlets once were the only arbiters of what was selected as newsworthy, and determined how information was interpreted to the public. Alternatively, newspapers tapped experts in the field. Most traditional mass media organizations maintained the old, hard-formed principles of journalism. Today, social media platforms such as Twitter and Facebook may indicate that often, no middleman exists, who can correlate events in an objective, interpretative way. Add in complex functionality of social media that selects articles similar to what you already like, and you start living in a clearly delimited social bubble. Therefore, this function of mass communication is even more critical than before.
3. **Transmission of culture and heritage:** By communicating information through the mass media we are transmitting social and cultural values, which aim at sustaining the society; Cultural transmission, however, evolves. What once was taboo can become the norm when enough people embrace it and when the media report on it. Media has the ability to teach various norms, rules and values that exist in a society and ensure its transfer from one organization to the next. Films and television programs often reflect various dimensions of the human life of the society in which they are broadcast and promote the understanding of society's cultural heritage.
4. **Entertainment:** This popular function of the mass media refers to the ability of the media to help relax people and create a means of escape from the stress of everyday life. The entertainment function of mass media has both positive and negative effects. The low quality of content is often criticized but the other benefits like helping people experience new events, stimulating events, and helping people pass their leisure time show how important this function is. Television offers opportunities for people to watch the events that they would otherwise not be able to participate in like the Oscars, Independence Day rallies, Olympics, etc.

5.3. Mass Media

A mass medium' says Wilbur Schramm "is essentially a working group organized around some device for circulating the same message, at about the same time, to a large number of

people”. It excludes the folk media, group media and interpersonal communication such as rumor, education and preaching, where communication is not mediated by a device. Mass media are broadly divided into print media, electronic media and new media. While the print media are older having a history of about 500 years, electronic media are the product of the 20th-century technological revolution. We have already studied that communication through mass media has numerous functions like informing, educating, entertaining, transmitting cultural values etc., Communication needs of people also differ from person to person. Each mass media is powerful in its own right in fulfilling those popular needs. Each media has gone through several stages of development due to pressure and competition from newer communication technologies.

Elements of Mass Media The individual parts of this model are described in more detail. The parts include:

- Content
- Channels Of Distribution
- Audience
- Mass Media Organizations, Other Organizations And Social Institutions

5.3.1. Content

The term “content” refers to the message that is distributed by the mass media programs of the channel. In television, for example, the content includes such as entertainment, advertisements, station breaks, news, and “infomercials.” These categories of content may be further divided. Entertainment, for example, might be divided into “genres” such as situation comedies, detective shows, soap operas, sports, and so on. The content of each medium is subject to analysis and criticism by its readers. “Literary criticism,” “film criticism,” and “television criticism” are all well-established fields of academic study, and some members of mass media organizations make their livings by publishing their critical views. Typically, mass communication operates as a “one-way street” messages flow from the media organizations to their audiences in a way that allows for very little immediate feedback. However, because those who work in media organizations are themselves a part of the society within which their audiences exist, there is a path by which audience response to mass communication messages can feedback to the producers of the messages. For example, the person who edits a newspaper story may be in the audience of a radio broadcast. The radio technician may be in the television audience. The television producer may read the newspaper. Wherein, all of these people may talk to one another about what they have watched and heard and read. Thus, “mass communication” and “interpersonal communication” seem to merge into one another.

5.3.2. Channels of Distribution

A mass medium’s distribution channel facilitates the “flow” of messages for a particular audience. The various mass media act as the distribution channels in the communication process. “Print media includes books, newspapers, and magazines, while radio and television are often called the “electronic” or “broadcast” media. Two other electronic channels are also active participants in mass communication. They are “electronic recorded” media which include such as CDs, cassette tapes, videotapes, and the like these are electronic in nature but are sold and delivered much in the same way as books and “film” or “movies” which are similar to television but which are delivered in special buildings called “theaters.” Though belonging to electronic media, telephones have not traditionally been included in the “mass

media” because they mainly help in person-to-person communication. Computers, especially large computer networks, are considered as potential media. Although they have no true category as yet, computers are sometimes referred to as the “new” media some channels such as posters, flyers, memoranda, filmstrips, slide shows, and video games also supplement the primary media and cater to the communication process.

5.3.3. Audience

An audience is a group of people who receive a particular mass communication message. In some cases all members of the audience are paying attention to the medium at the same time as, for example, the television audience that tuned in just after the space shuttle Challenger exploded. In other cases, however, the attention of the audience is spread out over time. The audience for a particular magazine, for example, may consist of people who read copies of the magazine at various times over a period of a month or more. And, in some cases, the attention of the audience may be spread over a very long period of time. In the early days of mass communication research, the audience was believed to be very passive and innocent.

As studies of the relationship between the audience and the mass communication organizations have progressed, the researchers’ view of the audience has changed. Nowadays, the audience is believed to be active and sophisticated. Some media are best fitted to an audience that consists of individuals, each of whom is more or less alone when the message arrives. Other media are better fitted to an audience that gathers in groups. The relationship between the target audience and the delivery medium is especially important to commercial media organizations because they must compute the cost and effectiveness of the media products. In print media, for example, the price of each book, newspaper, or magazine plays a part in a person’s decision to join or not join the audience. Although many people like to read books, for example, it was only when inexpensive “paperback” books became available that the audience jumped to its present size. Media organizations that use advertising to offset their costs must pay particular attention to their target audience because their advertisers are often interested in presenting their ads to particular groups of people.

5.4 Media Organizations

In face-to-face communication the participants are easily identified — the same is not true for mass communication. The mass media message is created by a team of people, and it is sometimes difficult to establish exactly who is responsible for what. For example, the author of a book, may produce the text, but an editor (or editors) will review and alter those words, designers and graphics specialists will choose typefaces, create illustrations and organize the format of the text, production specialists will manufacture the book, and marketing and sales specialists will oversee its distribution. Although it is traditional to assign “authorship” to the person who wrote the original text, all of these people play a part in the communication process.

Electronic media are complexly organized. In television production, for example, there will be one or more scriptwriters, a number of actors, a producer, a director, camera operators and other technical crew, and a host of others. The show is truly a group project, with no single “author.” A discussion of mass communication must investigate the nature of the organizations that produce it, and it must also investigate the social, political and economic relationships that might exist among the media organizations and their audiences.

With the recognition of the active audience has come the realization that the content of the mass media is actually a product. No less than soap or breakfast cereal or automobiles, mass communication is produced and distributed for human consumption. This means, of course, that the mass media organizations have something to sell, and that the audiences are their customers. Thus, one approach to the study of mass communication is to focus on the economics of media production. Consider, for example, this outline of the economics of commercial television. Notice that the members of the audience buy products from corporations. The remainder of the system has to do with distributing some of that revenue for the purpose of bringing the corporations' products to the attention of the audience.

5.5. Media Access

In order to receive messages from a particular mass communication medium, an audience member must be able to "connect up" to the reception end of the channel. For example, television is not available to people who do not own television sets; CDs are useless to people who do not own CD players, and so on. The extent to which a potential audience is able to make use of a mass medium is called its availability. Language also plays a role, as does geographic location and economic class. A radio broadcast in Spanish, for example, is only available to those who speak Spanish. Similarly, printed media are only available to those who are able to read, and cable television will not be available to those who cannot afford the monthly fee. Media access refers to the ability of members of society to make use of a particular medium to send messages of their own. Newspapers and magazines traditionally provide public access by means of "letters to the editor" or "editorial pages." Television and radio news do not traditionally offer this kind of access. In recent times, however, radio and television shows featuring listener and viewer "call-ins" have become popular, and this provides access to a large number of people. Access and availability have become increasingly important with the advent of cable television and the new computer networked media. As electronic media have begun to replace print media as the major channels for public information, critics have begun to question whether this societal availability and access will be continued. Government control of the broadcast channels limits access to these media to large corporations, and cable television is available only to those who are able to afford the relatively high cost of connection. These issues are now being widely debated in the United States.

There are major connections between the media that is being consumed, via mass communication, and our culture, contributing to polarization and dividing people based on consequential issues.

5.6. Mass Media formats

Mass communication media make it possible to deliver messages to millions of people at roughly the same time. The authors of these messages are usually organizations, and the audiences are composed of individuals. While these media differ in many ways, they all share the characteristics by which scholars define mass communication.

5.6.1. Characteristics of mass media

Mass media are broadly divided into Print media and Electronic media. While the Print media are older having a history of about 500 years, Electronic media are the product of the 20th-century technological revolution. We have already studied that communication through mass media has numerous functions like informing, educating, entertaining, transmitting cultural

values etc., Communication needs of people also differ from person to person. Each mass media is powerful in its own right in fulfilling those popular needs. Each media has gone through several stages of development due to pressure and competition from newer communication technologies. 'A mass medium' says Wilbur Schramm "is essentially a working group organized around some device for circulating the same message, at about the same time, to a large number of people". Such a definition excludes the folk media, group media, and interpersonal communication such as rumor, education and preaching, where communication is not mediated by a device. In this context, we will restrict the current lesson to the characteristics and reach of mass media like newspapers, radio, TV and film.

5.6.2 Print media

Print media disseminates information via publishing, in the narrow sense, meaning on paper, mainly via books, magazines, and newspapers. Traditionally, the term refers to the distribution of printed works such as books and newspapers. With the advent of digital information systems and the Internet, the scope of publishing has expanded to include websites, blogs, and the likes. Newspapers are the major print media in any country and India is no exception. They have been serving the literate society for a long. Despite slow growth in the initial years, newspapers are a full-fledged industry now having the potential to compete with any other form of mass media. Traditionally, newspapers are known for intense local coverage. They serve the interests of a local community with news, comments, photographs and advertising.

The Indian newspaper industry has become the largest in the world crossing the countries like USA and China with 2,700 dailies. There is a 44 percent increase in the number of newspapers in India since 2005. A study titled 'World Press trends 2010' published by the World Association of Newspapers (WAN-IFRA) says that India also has the world's highest paid-for daily circulation, having surpassed China for the first time in 2008. The low cover price model adopted by many Indian publishers forced it to go for over-dependence on advertising. It would be a viable proposition for the reader. Many do not consider this as the best model and it is argued that the reader could pay more. Not only big newspapers small and medium newspapers serve a greater need of the nation and have an important role to play in the Indian democracy. They understand the local sensibilities of each region and in India. So it is important to protect small and medium newspaper houses as they will get wiped out by foreign publishers who are eyeing only profits. In India, China, Brazil and South Africa, print is growing both in terms of circulation as well as advertising revenue. This is likely to continue as our penetration levels are relatively low compared to the advanced economies.

The localization of content and the introduction of specific pullouts, such as wedding supplements and women's sections, is one reason why newspapers continue to pull in advertisers. More than 107 million copies of newspapers were circulated daily across India in 2009, according to the World Association of Newspapers, and it's estimated that one in every five daily newspapers in the world is published in the country. Almost one-third of India's 579 million literate population is said to read a newspaper now. Another reason for increased readership is the low cost of buying a newspaper.

A magazine is a periodical publication containing a variety of articles, generally financed by advertising and/or purchase by readers. Based on the duration magazines are classified as weekly, biweekly, monthly, bimonthly, or quarterly, with a date on the cover that is in advance of the date it is actually published. They are often printed in color on coated paper and are bound with a soft cover. Magazines fall into two broad categories: consumer

magazines and business magazines. In practice, magazines are a subset of periodicals, distinct from those periodicals produced by scientific, artistic, academic or special interest publishers which are subscription-only, more expensive, narrowly limited in circulation, and often have little or no advertising. Magazines can be classified as General interest magazines (e.g. Frontline, India Today, The Week, etc) and Special interest magazines (Women's Era, Sportstar, Business line, etc.)

5.6.3. Broadcast or Electronic media

Broadcasting is the distribution of audio and/or video signals (programs) to a number of recipients ("listeners" or "viewers") that belong to a large group. This group may be the public in general or a relatively large audience within the public. Thus, Radio, Television, or an Internet channel may distribute text or music worldwide, while a public address system in (for example) a workplace may broadcast very limited ad hoc sound bites to a small population within its range.

Electronic media like radio, TV, cinema, etc are essentially entertainment media. They are different from print media in many ways. They provide instantaneous communication and their impact is greater. They need electricity for speed delivery of messages across distance and to the masses that are geographically, culturally, intellectually and emotionally separated from one another. A broadcasting organization may broadcast several programs at the same time, through several channels (frequencies), for example, BBC One and Two. On the other hand, two or more organizations may share a channel and each uses it during a fixed part of the day. Digital radio and digital television may also transmit multiplexed programming, with several channels compressed into one ensemble.

5.6.4. Radio

Radio is a mass medium and therefore ideally suited for India - leveraging its twin advantages of wide coverage and cost-effectiveness. It is dominated by the state-owned All India Radio (AIR), which covers 97 percent of India's area and reaches 99 percent of the population, through a wide network of broadcasting centers and transmitters. Radio has the advantage of reaching out to an otherwise occupying audience who are busy in some other work and listening to the radio. In times of crisis, radio becomes the most reliable medium as news coverage in radio is faster than any other medium. The most important advantage radio offers is its ability to reach a specific audience through specialized programming. Today radio is used for many forms of communication from long-distance satellite communications to personal cell phones that are widely used. There are some innovations in radio communication that makes radio a competent medium even today. Satellite Radio, HD radio (hybrid digital or high definition, Internet radio are some of them. The Community Radio Policy 2006 of India opens up community radio to non-profit organizations like civil society, voluntary groups, registered societies, autonomous bodies, public trusts registered under the Societies Act.

5.6.5 Television

Television touches human lives "more intimately, more seductively, and more persuasively than any other" (Marshal McLuhan, 1980). Television is arguably the most powerful medium in the world today and has created what McLuhan referred to as "the global village". It has a telling effect on the masses. The television with its immediacy and compelling images in brings the day's happenings to one's doorstep and the news happenings are transmitted in

seconds. From the black and white television broadcasting on a single national channel (Doordarshan) in the 1980s to almost 600 channels beaming with almost one-third operating in the general entertainment space, the Indian TV industry has truly come a long way. India stands third after China and the United States in terms of viewers with TV dominating the media and entertainment followed by print media and films. Now television has become more interactive with more space for feedbacks, opinion polls and encouraging citizen journalism. The growth of the industry in the future is also quite visible with new digital content distribution platforms emerging along with news formats of entertainment as computers, mobile phones, and hand-held devices gaining importance. The new digital mediums are also emerging on the distribution front with 37 million digital homes and 28 million of these are on the DTH platform. DTH is expanding its base more in rural areas. Further, cable and internet protocol television (IPTV) are also emerging.

5.6.6. Films

Films are considered a major mass medium because of their mass appeal and influence on society. Any film can become a worldwide attraction, especially with the addition of dubbing or subtitles that translate the dialogue. Films are also artifacts created by specific cultures, which reflect those cultures, and, in turn, affect them. Indian film industry-centered on the Hindi-language industry in Mumbai, known as *Bollywood* is the world's largest. Nevertheless, with modest revenues and low profitability, the industry is known for its cultural values impact is more cultural than economic. In the last decade, however, the Mumbai-based entertainment industry has begun to corporatize, professionalize, and seek broader audiences, including more global audiences. The Indian film industry produces roughly twice the number of movies as the American film industry and sells 2.5 times the number of box office tickets as the U.S market. The Southern film industry is more organized than Bollywood, and the technical talent and the quality of South Indian films is far superior to Bollywood films.

Following the Hollywood model, many film and entertainment companies are moving away from an actor/star-based system to a system more reliant on the production company's brand, and its stable of producers and directors. In doing so, studios can lessen their dependence on actors- who often command fees for as much as 50 percent of the film's budget. Screen penetration and consumer spending are still extremely low in India, with both on the rise. The largest theatre chain in India has less than 200 screens; the world's largest movie exhibitor owns over 6,600 screens. With 12 screens per million people in India, compared to 117 screens per million in the U.S., there is considerable room for growth. Indian entertainment companies are increasingly interested in developing and co-producing Hollywood films intended for Western audiences. Indian film companies are also making inroads in Hollywood.

5.6.7. Internet/ new media

In the beginning of the 21st century, the advent of the World Wide Web marked the first era of technology where individuals have access to media on the lines of mass media. For the first time, anyone with a website can address a global audience, although serving to high levels of web traffic is still relatively expensive. It is possible that the rise of peer-to-peer technologies may have begun the process of making the cost of bandwidth manageable. This rapid growth of instantaneous, decentralized communication is often deemed likely to change mass media and its relationship to society. "Cross-media" means the idea of distributing the same message through different media channels. A similar idea is expressed in the news

industry as “convergence”. Many authors understand cross-media publishing to be the ability to publish in both print and on the web without manual conversion effort. An increasing number of wireless devices with mutually incompatible data and screen formats make it even more difficult to achieve the objective “create once, publish many”.

5.7. Media Convergence

Media convergence is the most contemporary concept in communication. Due to the advent of new communication technologies, every mass medium eventually merges to the point where they become one medium i.e media convergence. Now television and computer are no more separate entities as both would be able to do the job of the other, ultimately making both extinct and creating a new medium from the synthesis. Not only devices media convergence refers to the merging of capabilities of each individual media channel. Media convergence is the ability for an increasingly diverse range of content to be delivered through a range of media channels. Convergence facilitates the expansion of channels to content combinations. Fast emerging technologies such as high-speed networking enable secure digital communication of voice, data, and video to or from anyone, anywhere and anytime. But convergence does not necessarily sound like the death knell of age-old technologies. In fact, it leaves enough room for many technologies to co-exist and one will not replace the other outright. This is because no one technology can meet all the requirements of the marketplace. Convergence is heterogeneous and varied in several different ways. It can be in terms of the actual industries converging, such as communication, entertainment, and computing. Another is converging voice, video, and data over a common infrastructure or within a common computing platform. The Personal Computer has become a collaborative communication and media tool. Another factor driving convergence is the cost of maintaining three separate networks for voice, video, and data. Corporations can realize substantial saving in equipment, staff, and services by using converged networks. Enterprises are looking at cost savings in the WAN as the first leverage point for convergence. Using Voice over-Frame Relay, VOIP and Voice-over-ATM the same WAN lines can be used for voice as well as data, resulting in substantial cost savings. The convergence in India has arrived faster than expected. The convergence revolutionized the facilities like webcasting, video on demand, and internet via cable. The optical fiber cable carries more bandwidth resulting in more signals being carried with superior clarity.

5.8. Summary

Mass communication occurs when a small number of people send messages to a largely anonymous and usually heterogeneous audience through the use of specialized communication media. It represents the creation and sending of a homogeneous message to a large heterogeneous audience through the media. Mass communication media make it possible to deliver messages to millions of people at roughly the same time. The messages are produced by organizations and the medium for these messages permits accurate duplication. The messages are distributed to large audiences at roughly the same time. Scholars tend to identify various mass media by their distribution channels. Books, newspapers, and magazines are often called the “print media,” while radio and television are often called the “electronic” or “broadcast” media. Two other electronic channels of distribution are also recognized as very important: “electronic recorded” media which include such as CDs, cassette tapes, videotapes, and the like these are electronic in nature but are sold and delivered much in the same way as books and “film” or “movies” which are similar to television but which are delivered in special buildings called “theaters”. Some media are best fitted to an audience that consists of individuals, each of whom is more or less alone when the

message arrives. Other media are better fitted to an audience that gathers in groups. In order to receive messages from a particular mass communication medium, an audience member must be able to “connect up” to the reception end of the channel. For example, television is not available to people who do not own television sets; CDs are useless to people who do not own CD players, and so on. The extent to which a potential audience is able to make use of a mass medium is called its availability. An audience is a group of people who are receiving or have received a particular mass communication message. Thus, the power of the media may lie not in its ability to sway people’s opinions, but rather in its role of determining what issues will be considered important enough to discuss. Typically, mass communication operates as a “one-way street” messages flow from the media organizations to their audiences in a way that allows for very little immediate feedback. However, because those who work in media organizations are themselves a part of the society within which their audiences exist, there is a path by which audience response to mass communication messages can provide feedback to the producers of the messages.

5.9. Self assessment questions

1. What is mass communication?
2. Define the elements of mass communication.
3. What are the important features of mass communication?.
4. Briefly enumerate various concepts of mass media.
5. Differentiate between interpersonal and mass communication.

5.10. Suggested reading

Roberts F. Donald (1971) *The Process and Effects of Mass Communication*, University of Illinois Press.

Steinberg, Charles Side (1972) *The Structure and Development of Mass Communication*, Hastings House.

Gordon, Thomas Frank and Verna, Mary Ellen (1958) *Mass Communication Effects and Processes: A Comprehensive Bibliography*, Sage.

Farrar, Ronald T. Published (1995) *Mass Communication –An Introduction to the field*, McGraw-Hill Higher Education.

Dominick R. Joseph (1996) *The Dynamics of Mass Communication*, McGraw-Hill.

Gordon, Thomas Frank and Verna, Mary Ellen (1958) *Mass Communication Effects and Processes: A Comprehensive Bibliography*, Sage.

LESSON 6

Modernization and models of communication

6.0. Objective of the lesson:

The objective of this lesson is to assist you in understanding the

- Modernization of communication.
- Magic Bullet Theory

Structure of the lesson:

- 6.1. Introduction
- 6.2. Communication and Modernization
- 6.3. Mass Society
- 6.4. Large-scale media
- 6.5. Summary
- 6.6. Self assessment questions
- 6.7. Suggested reading

6.1. Introduction

The simple sender channel message receiver model was rapidly modified during the 1950s. The change took account of several important aspects of human communication. One was the need to incorporate an essential component, the occurrence of feedback. Associated with this is the recognition of the non linearity of communication processes. They are typically circular, recurrent and spiraling, since the change brought about by communication initiates a new loop at a different point and on a different plane than the start.

Second major development is related to the fact that receivers normally selectively perceive, interpret and retain messages. The potential inefficiency of a communication link was first recognized in the earlier mathematical model, but the problem is that it was treated as noise in the system, since the main criteria of successful communication are derived from the intentions of the sender. Gerbner incorporated a solution to the problem which recognizes the substantive interest of the sources and nature of apparent inefficiency. He stresses the essentially transaction character of much communication and the dependence of any meaning which is acquired on the assumption and fore knowledge of the receiver and on the context in which communication takes place. This is considered as intersubjectivity of communication, since all communication involves more or less elaborate exchange and the bargaining between sender and receiver. The result of communication is thus a matter of negotiation and can't always be predicted in advance. This thought continued in interpersonal communication and has influenced the development of what we labeled audience centered approach to mass communication.

6.2. Communication and Modernization

During the decades of 1960s and 1970s the focus of interest in research and relevant model making has tended to move away from the search for a general understanding of the whole mass communication process and towards research on specific aspects of this process. Longer term social cultural and ideological effects, the media organization and its relationship to society and audience, the social and psychological basis of audience choice and responses, the structuring of typical content forms, especially news and reality information. These subjects are dealt with in the relevant sections below, but certain broad developments in thinking and research can be summarized in advance.

6.3 Mass Society

One important advance in thinking about the effects of mass communication already been made before the sequence of models presented in this book had begun. The shift in question was a move away from a conception of direct and blanket effects on a mass or aggregate audience and towards a recognition of the mediating part played by the personal contacts in relaying and validating media originated information and ideas.

A second development of more recent origin has been a change in the balance of interest from direct short term effects and towards indirect and long term effects

Third is that more attention has been paid to the structure of mass media organizations an overall media system to collect its properties of media professions and of audience and less to individual communication and receivers.

Fourthly while early communication models dealt with purposeful mass communication and overt content, subsequently there has been more attention paid to latent meaning, unintended bias and the unintended consequences of following production requirements and constraints.

Fifthly in line with the early shift away from sender oriented communication models discussed above there has been a great emphasis on the audience as initiator and interpreter of the communication link in mass communication.

Compared to earlier times there has been an increasing attention to the sources of mass communication and not only its effects.

6.4. Large-scale media

As theorized by Daniel Lerner (1958) and Wilbur Schramm (1964) in their seminal works, communication basically referred to the transmission of information. Modernization largely reduced communication to the mass media. Such reductionism was based on the premise that large-scale media were central agents for the diffusion of modern culture. Also, the media indicated the degree of modernization of any given society. The numbers of television and radio sets and the level of newspaper consumption were taken as proxy of levels of development (Lerner 1958, Inkeles & Smith 1974). Researchers found that where people were more exposed to modern media, they were more likely to hold favorable attitudes toward modernization and development. Among other factors (e.g., urbanization, increased literacy), exposure to mass media was seen as the catalyst of modern attitudes. Especially development communication was

assigned the role of introducing media technologies to promote modernization, and the widespread adoption of mass media such as newspapers, radio, cinemas, and television (Radio for Development; Television for Development).

During the decade of 1970 the focus moved away from general understanding of whole mass communication towards research on specific aspects. They include

- long term social, cultural and ideological effects, the media organizations and its relationship to society and audience, the social and psychological basis of audience choice and response, the structuring of typical content forms, especially news and reality information
- Important advances in mass communication is move away from conception of direct and blanket effects on a mass of aggregate audiences and towards a recognition of the mediating part played by personal contacts in relaying and validating mass originated information and ideas
- A change in the balance of interest from direct short term effects and towards indirect and long term effects
- More attention has been paid to the structure of mass media organizations and overall media system to collective properties of media and professional and of audience and less to individual communicators and receivers
- While early communication models dealt with purposeful mass communication and overt content. Later more attention has been paid to latent information, meaning, unintended bias and the unintended consequences following production requirements and constraints
- In line with early shift away from sender oriented communication models discussed above there has been a greater emphasis on the audience as initiators and interpreter of the communication link in Mass communication
- Compared to earlier times there has been an increasing attention to the sources of mass communication and its effects

In the mid-1970s, main representatives of modernization theories considered it necessary to review basic premises of mass communication. In a widely quoted article, Rogers (1976) admitted “the passing of the dominant paradigm.” Schramm and Rogers recognized that early views had individualistic and psychological biases. It was necessary to be sensitive to the specific socio-cultural environment in which communication took place, an issue that had been neglected in early analyses. Most powerful critiques drew attention to misunderstanding of communication. It was assumed that communication cannot be reduced to a diffusionist, media-centered process. Communication is not about the use of modern technologies to disseminate ideas and values; instead, it fundamentally entails different forms and spaces where people meet to discuss common concerns. More importantly, such a misconception of communication was problematic on conceptual and political grounds. In response to these criticisms, Rogers (1976) suggested that communication should not focus on persuasion (the transmission of information between individuals and groups). He proposed that communication should be a process in which participants create and share information with one another in order to reach a mutual understanding.

Current policies and studies that uncritically embrace the latest information technologies follow in the footsteps of modernization's brand of optimistic techno-futurism. Technologies have proven to be useful to facilitate different types of communication if they are properly integrated into social and political processes that drive change.

6.5. Summary

One of modernization's central ideas was that culture should be considered the independent variable that accounts for specific outcomes (e.g., political, economic, social). Drawing from classic sociological theories, namely Max Weber's and Emile Durkheim's views on culture and social change, modernization posited the existence of a necessary fit between culture and a specific economic and political order. Culture had the capacity to switch developmental tracks. Cultural change was proposed as a precondition for political and economic change. The low rate of agricultural output, the high rate of fertility and mortality, or the low rates of literacy found in underdeveloped countries resulted from the persistence of traditional values and attitudes. Modernization theory concluded that values such as individualism, rationalism, and secularism had been intrinsic to the consolidation of modern capitalism in the west. Because it held up the western experience of development as the model on which non-western countries could break away from poverty and tyranny, it suggested that the rise of "modern" societies in "developing" countries had to follow the same path.

If culture was viewed as the obstacle in the way of modernization, then, instilling "modern" values was crucial for change. Modernization's call for cultural change as the necessary harbinger of social change was embedded in functionalism, then dominant in the social sciences. From this perspective, communication was assigned a crucial role in spearheading cultural changes through the dissemination of "modern" information, values, and innovations through "modern" communication technologies..

In this context a series of advanced models and theories of communication were developed. They include Magic bullet theory; Hypodermic needle theory, Two Step flow theory, Diffusion of Innovations, Gate keeping theory etc have emerged. Everett Rogers's study on the "Diffusion of Innovations" became one of the most influential representatives of modernization thinking. Rogers's intention was to understand the adoption of new, modern behaviors. The premise was that innovations diffuse through five stages: awareness, knowledge and interest, decision, trial, and adoption/rejection. Populations were divided into different groups according to their propensity to incorporate innovations and their timing in actually adopting them. Rogers proposed that early adopters act as models to emulate and generate a climate of acceptance and an appetite for change, and that those who are slow to adopt are laggards. This latter category was assumed to describe the vast majority of the population in the third world. For Rogers, the culture of the peasantry offered important psychological constraints on the incorporation of innovations, and consequently on development. His view on development reflected the transmission bias also found in Lerner and Schramm.

According to Rogers, development communication entailed the transfer of information from a source to a receiver with the intent to change behavior. The goal was to change knowledge and attitude in order to modify behaviors. Diverging from the media-centrism and "magic bullet" theory of effects that underpinned earlier analyses, Rogers and subsequent "diffusion" studies

concluded that the media had a great importance in increasing awareness, but that interpersonal communication and personal sources were crucial in making decisions to adopt innovations (Rogers, 1983).

That modernization has significantly less influence in contemporary development communication is not only a reflection of its overall falling fortunes in the social sciences. It is also the result of the fact that some of its key arguments fit today's sensitivity in the field of communication uneasily. Modernization's unbounded optimism about cultural change, its uncritical view of media technologies, and its confidence about the inevitability of social change seem incompatible with prevalent views in development communication. Current studies and programmatic evaluations advocate the integration of various forms of interpersonal and mediated communication, offer a moderate realism about the contributions of communication to social change, and are skeptical, if not critical, about prescribing other people's experiences to improve the lives of marginalized populations in the global south.

6.6. Self assessment questions

1. Briefly enumerate the evolution of Advanced theories of mass communication.
2. Describe the significance of mass media.
3. What are the important features of hypodermic needle theory?
4. Explain the role of the audience in the mass communication models.

6.7. Suggested reading

Roberts F. Donald (1971) *The Process and Effects of Mass Communication*, University of Illinois Press.

Steinberg, Charles Side (1972) *The Structure and Development of Mass Communication*, Hastings House.

Gordon, Thomas Frank and Verna, Mary Ellen (1958) *Mass Communication Effects and Processes: A Comprehensive Bibliography*, Sage.

Farrar, Ronald T. Published (1995) *Mass Communication –An Introduction to the field*, McGraw-Hill Higher Education.

Dominick R. Joseph (1996) *The Dynamics of Mass Communication*, McGraw-Hill.

LESSON 7

TWO-STEP FLOW OF COMMUNICATION

7.0. Objective of the lesson:

The objective of this lesson is to assist you in

- Understanding the two-step flow of Communication
- Understanding the multi-step flow of Communication

Structure of the lesson:

- 7.1. Introduction
- 7.2. Two-step flow of communication theory
- 7.3. The Opinion Leaders
- 7.4. Characteristics of opinion leaders
- 7.5. Criticism of Two-step Flow Theory
- 7.6. Summary
- 7.7. Self assessment questions
- 7.8. Suggested reading

7.1. Introduction

Passion for a structured life has lent the world many fascinating theories which in turn affected human beings. Through the socio-political-based theory, the field of Advertising has defined some of its capabilities and constraints in the area of mass communication resulting in the two-step flow of communication.

This lesson will address insights into the history and development, the criticisms and praises, recent studies, and current applications of the two-step flow of communication theory.

7.2. Two-step Flow of Communication theory

Previous theories assumed that media directly reached the target of the information. But the two-step flow of communication has put up different concepts in this regard. According to Weiss, “Media content can be a determining influence. The other piece in the communication process is the opinion leader with which the media information is discussed. Consequently, Lazarsfeld and his colleagues developed the notion of a ‘two-step’ flow of media messages, a process in which opinion leaders play a vitally important role. It was first identified in sociology wherein in 1948, Paul Lazarsfeld, Bernard Berelson, and Hazel Gaudet published *The People’s Choice*, a paper analyzing the voter’s decision-making processes during a 1940 presidential election campaign. The study identified the dynamics of the media-audience relationship and revealed that the flow of mass communication is not direct as was previously predicted. It suggested that communication from the mass media first reaches “opinion leaders” who filter the information they gather to their associates, with whom they are influential. This was later developed by Katz and Lazarsfeld and presented in their book *Personal Influence* (1955). The studies by Lazarsfeld

and his associates sparked interest in the exact qualities and characteristics that define the opinion leader. Lazarsfeld *et al* suggested that “ideas often flow from radio and print to the opinion leaders and from them to less active sections of the population.” People tend to be much more affected in their decision-making process by face-to-face encounters with influential peers than by the mass media.

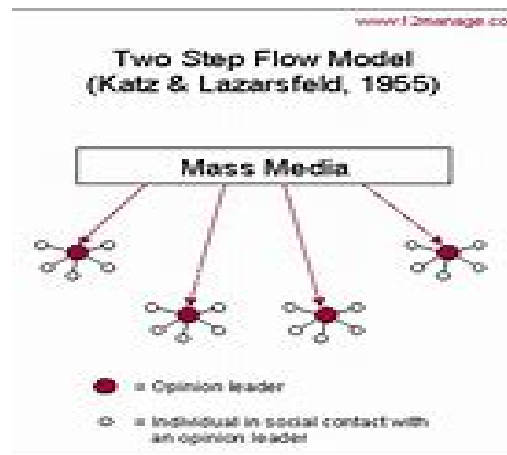


Figure 5

A number of significant conclusions follow from their research

- responses to media messages will be *mediated through our social relationships*,
- the effects of media messages being sharply limited by interpersonal relationships and group membership (this is confirmed also by Hovland who identifies our adherence to group norms as a major factor; see also the more general sections on Social Influence)
- it is misleading to think of receivers as members of a ‘mass audience’ since that implies that they are all equal in their reception of media messages, whereas in fact, some play a more active role than others
- receiving a message does not mean simply responding to it; nor does non-reception imply non-response
- there are some people amongst the media audience who act as *opinion leaders* - typically such people use the mass media more than the average.

7.3. The Opinion Leaders

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

Basically, opinion leaders can be of two types: those who are monomorphic and those who are polymorphic. As mentioned above, opinion leaders impart their influence on a variety of topics.

Some of the most common topics of expertise among these leaders involve everyday decisions. Four such areas of influence are marketing, fashion, public affairs/political life, and movie-going. Perhaps the most famous research on opinion leadership was that done by Elihu Katz and Paul Lazarsfeld showcased in their book “Personal Influence”. They defined opinion leaders as individuals who receive information from the media and pass it along to their peers. They are individuals who are knowledgeable about various topics and whose advice is taken seriously by others. Opinion leaders can be found in all types of groups: occupational, social, community, and others. Katz and Lazarsfeld chose these areas for their study of women in Decatur, Illinois. At various stages of the research, the women were asked to identify people they saw as influential as well as rate themselves on being influential. The study produced some interesting results. It was found that women consult other women on marketing matters, fashion leaders are more prevalent among younger women than society matrons, women look to men for advice in public matters, and those young and single women were considered opinion leaders on movies.

Roles

Certain personal characteristics like high confidence, high self-esteem, the ability to withstand criticism, and a strong need to be unique. Opinion leaders also play important roles in movements of social change. Opinion leaders can bring legitimacy to a social movement. Known as “legitimizers,” these social opinion leaders are judges, politicians, business executives, clergy members, sports figures and entertainers.

Who are opinion leaders and how can they be found?

As mentioned above, anyone can be an opinion leader, depending on the moment in time and the issue at hand. Opinion leaders can be as small-scale as family members or as grand as celebrities. Some well-known examples of social opinion leaders who have helped bring legitimacy to various causes are celebrities such as Robert Redford, Alan Alda, Jane Fonda, Joanne Woodward, Barbara Streisand, the late John Denver, and Michael Jackson, politicians like Vice President Albert Gore, Senator Ted Kennedy, and clergy members Jerry Falwell and Jesse Jackson. These people have donated time, money, and support to such contemporary causes as the environmental, women’s liberation, gay rights, pro-choice, pro-life, and other movements. Unfortunately, unlike celebrities or influential industry executives, everyday opinion leaders, such as those among consumers, can be very difficult to locate.

7.4. Characteristic features of opinion leaders

A study by Robert Merton revealed that opinion leadership is not a general characteristic of a person, but rather limited to specific issues. A later study directed by Lazarsfeld and Katz confirmed the earlier assertions that personal influence seems more important in decision-making than media. The opinion leaders seem evenly distributed among the social, economical, and educational levels within their community, but very similar in these areas to those with whom they had influence.

- Opinion leaders were identified as
- Having the strongest interest in their particular niche.
- They hold positions
- Showcase special competence in their community.
- Generally gregarious
- Social individuals

- External communication
- Accessibility
- Socio economic status
- Innovativeness

Finally, they had/have contact with relevant information supplied from outside their immediate circle. Katz and Lazarsfeld also observed that opinion leaders receive a disproportionate amount of their external information from media appropriate to their niche.

Support to the theory

Although the empirical methods behind the two-step flow of communication were not perfect, the theory did provide a very believable explanation for information flow. The opinion leaders do not replace media, but rather guide discussions of media.

Lazarsfeld and his associates detailed five characteristics of personal contact that give their theory more validity and answer the question as to why opinion leaders are influential.

Non-purposiveness/casualness. People are less likely to have their defenses up in preparation; they are more likely open to the conversation.

Flexibility to counter resistance. In a conversation, there is always an opportunity to counter any resistance which is not possible in mass media.

Trust. Personal contact carries more trust than media. As people interact, they can convey in a better manner through observation of body language and vocal cues to judge the honesty of the person in the discussion. Newspaper and radio do not offer these cues.

Persuasion without conviction. The formal media is forced to persuade or change opinions. In personal communication, sometimes friendly insistence can cause action without affecting any comprehension of the issues.

Menzel introduced another strong point in favor of the two-step flow of information theory and said that the barrage of information humans are flooded with daily, it is not hard to understand why someone might turn to a peer for help evaluating all of it.

7.5. Criticisms of the two-step theory

This model presented graphically is somewhat misleading as it suggests that mass media messages flow first to opinion leaders and from them to the rest. Obviously, that's not the case, as the messages received are modified through social contacts. Katz and Lazarsfeld are perhaps also somewhat misleading when they mentioned that individuals with certain characteristics are opinion leaders. Many opinion leaders have the characteristics they mention, but we also know that some opinion leaders in some subject areas will not have those general characteristics. However, I should mention that Katz and Lazarsfeld certainly did not take the view that opinion leaders were necessarily those formally recognized as such (e. g. celebrities, politicians, etc.) Thus, their studies showed that top-down influence was relatively slight. Influence tended to be

horizontal across a particular socio-economic class, except that in the 'higher' social classes there was a tendency for people to find opinion leaders in the next class up.

Opinion leaders will be more active users of the mass media than others.

Katz and Lazarsfeld may also be misleading in suggesting that people are either active opinion leaders or passive followers of opinion leaders. Apart from the evidence that people can be opinion leaders on some matters and not on all others. There is also the objection that some people may be neither leaders nor followers, but quite simply detached from much media output. Under such circumstances, it is likely that an opinion leader in the community may be especially influential. This was recognized by the Nazi party in its gradual rise to power during the 1920s and 1930s. Nazi agitation and propaganda became increasingly successful at forcing themselves onto the front pages of newspapers, thus becoming an everyday topic of conversation. Where local leaders, enjoying respectability and influence, were won over, further converts often rapidly followed.

7.6. Summary

The **two-step flow model** was propounded by Paul Lazarsfeld and Elihu Katz. Unlike the hypodermic needle model which considers mass media effects to be direct, the two-step flow model stresses human agency. According to Lazarsfeld and Katz, mass media information is channeled to the "masses" through opinion leadership. They have most access to media, and exhibit more literate understanding of media content, explain and diffuse the content to others. The two-step flow model laid the foundation for the diffusion of innovations.

Opinion leadership is a concept that arose out of the theory of a two-step flow of communication propounded by Paul Lazarsfeld and Elihu Katz. This theory is one of several models that try to explain the diffusion of innovations, ideas, or commercial products. The opinion leader is the agent who is an active media user and who interprets the meaning of media messages or content for lower-end media users. Typically the opinion leader is held in high esteem by those that accept their opinions. Opinion leadership tends to be subject-specific, that is, a person that is an opinion leader in one field may be a follower in another field. An example of an opinion leader in the field of computer technology might be a neighborhood computer service technician. The technician has access to far more information on this topic than the average consumer and has the requisite background to understand the information.

7.7. Self assessment questions

Discuss the two-step flow of communication.

1. Who are Opinion leaders? What are their characteristics?
2. Discuss the multistep flow theory of communication.

7.8. Suggested reading

Robertson, T S (1967) The Process of Innovation and the Diffusion of Innovation, Journal of Marketing, 1967, JSTOR.

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LESSON 8

DIFFUSION OF INNOVATION THEORY

8.0. Objective of the lesson:

The objective of this lesson is to assist you in understanding the

- Meaning and definition of communication.
- Scope of Communication
- Communication process

Structure of the lesson:

- 8.1. Introduction
- 8.2. Elements
- 8.3. Diffusion
- 8.4. Diffusion Process
- 8.5. Important Diffusion Studies
- 8.6. Criticism
- 8.7. Summary
- 8.8. Self assessment questions
- 8.9. Suggested reading

8.1. Introduction

Diffusion is the process through which an innovation is communicated through certain channels among the members of a social system. Innovation can be a new idea, product, practice, philosophy or object that is perceived to be new by an individual. In simple terms, the diffusion of innovation refers to the process that occurs as people adopt innovations related to them.

The Diffusion of Innovation Theory was first discussed in 1903 by the French sociologist Gabriel Tarde (Toews, 2003) who plotted the original S-shaped diffusion curve. Later Ryan and Gross (1943) introduced the adopter categories that were later used in the Diffusion of Innovation theory popularized by Everett Rogers. This theory is often regarded as a valuable change model for guiding technological innovation where the innovation itself is modified and presented in ways that meet the needs of adopters found at various levels. It also stresses the importance of communication and peer networking within the adoption process.

8.2. Elements

In 1962, Everett Rogers, a professor of rural sociology, published his seminal work: *Diffusion of Innovations*. Rogers synthesized research from over 508 diffusion studies across the fields that initially influenced the theory such as Anthropology, Early sociology, Rural sociology, Education, Industrial sociology and Medical sociology. Using his synthesis, Rogers produced a theory of the adoption of innovations among individuals and organizations.

Rogers proposes that four main elements influence the spread of a new idea. The characteristics of an innovation, as perceived by the members of a social system, determine its rate of adoption. The four main elements in the diffusion of new ideas are:

- The innovation
- Communication channels
- Time
- The social system (context)

Innovation

Rogers mapped out this process, stressing that in most cases, an initial few are open to the new idea and adopt its use. As these early innovators 'spread the word' more and more people become open to it which leads to the development of a critical mass. Over time, the innovative idea or product becomes diffused amongst the population until a saturation point is achieved. Rogers distinguished five categories of adopters of innovation. They are

- innovators,
- early adopters,
- early majority,
- late majority, and
- laggards. Sometimes, a sixth group is added: non-adopters.

Innovators are the first 2.5 percent of the individuals in a system to adopt an innovation. The interest in new ideas leads them out of a local circle of peer networks and into more cosmopolitan social relationships. Communication patterns and friendships among a clique of innovators are common, even though the geographical distance between the innovators may be considerable. Being an innovator has several prerequisites. Control of substantial financial resources is helpful to absorb the possible loss from an unprofitable innovation. The ability to understand and apply complex technical knowledge is also needed. The innovator shall be able to cope with a high degree of uncertainty about innovation at the time of adoption. While an innovator may not be respected by the other members of a social system, the innovator plays an important role in the diffusion process as well as that of launching the new idea in the system by importing the innovation from outside of the system's boundaries.

Early adopters who generally constitute 13.5 percent of the individuals in a system are a more integrated part of the local system than are innovators. Whereas innovators are cosmopolites, early adopters are localities. This adopter category, more than any other, has the greatest degree of opinion leadership in most systems. Potential adopters look to early adopters for advice and information about the innovation. This adopter category is generally sought by change agents as local missionaries for speeding the diffusion process. Because early *adopters* are not too far ahead of the average individual in innovativeness, they serve as role models for many other members of a social system. The **early adopter** is respected by his or her peers and is the embodiment of successful, discrete use of new ideas. They know as to how to continue to earn this esteem of colleagues and to maintain a central position in the communication networks of the system, he or they must make judicious innovation decisions. The early adopter decreases uncertainty about a new idea by adopting it and then conveying a subjective evaluation of the innovation to near-peers through interpersonal networks.

The early majority is the next 34 percent of the individuals in a system to adopt an innovation. They adopt new ideas just before the average member of a system. They also interact frequently with their peers, but seldom hold positions of opinion leadership in a system. The early majority's unique position between the very early and the relatively late to adopt makes them an important link in the diffusion process. They provide interconnectedness in the system's interpersonal networks. The early majority is one of the two most numerous adopter categories, making up one-third of the members of a system. The early majority may deliberate for some time before completely adopting a new idea. "Be not the first by which the new is tried, nor the last to lay the old aside," fits the thinking of the early majority. They follow with deliberate willingness in adopting innovations but seldom lead.

The late majority in the next 34 percent of the individuals in a system to adopt an innovation. The late majority adopt new ideas just after the average member of a system. Like the early majority, the late majority make up one-third of the members of a system. Adoption may be the result of increasing network pressures from peers. Innovations are approached with a skeptical and cautious air, and the late majority does not adopt until most others in their system have done so. The weight of system norms must definitely favor an innovation before the late majority are convinced. The pressure of peers is necessary to motivate adoption. Their relatively scarce resources mean that most of the uncertainty about a new idea must be removed before the late majority feel that it is safe to adopt.

Laggards are the last 16 percent of the individuals in a system to adopt an innovation. They possess almost no opinion leadership. Laggards are the most localite in their outlook of all adopter categories; many are near isolates in the social networks of their system. The point of reference for the laggard is the past. Decisions are often made in terms of what has been done previously. Laggards tend to be suspicious of innovations and change agents. Resistance to innovations on the part of laggards may be entirely rational from the laggard's viewpoint, as their resources are limited and they must be certain that a new idea will not fail before they can adopt. The original five categories are illustrated in the bell-shaped curve image below. Diffusion studies have demonstrated a mathematically consistent sigmoid pattern (the S-shaped curve) of overtime adoption for consequential innovations when the decisions to adopt are voluntary, with attendant logically related propositions, qualifying this literature as a theory of social change. Many studies have shown a predictable overtime pattern when an innovation spreads, the now-familiar S-shaped cumulative adoption curve. The "S" shape is due to the engagement of opinion leaders in talking about and modeling the use of the innovation for others to hear and see and perhaps try for themselves.

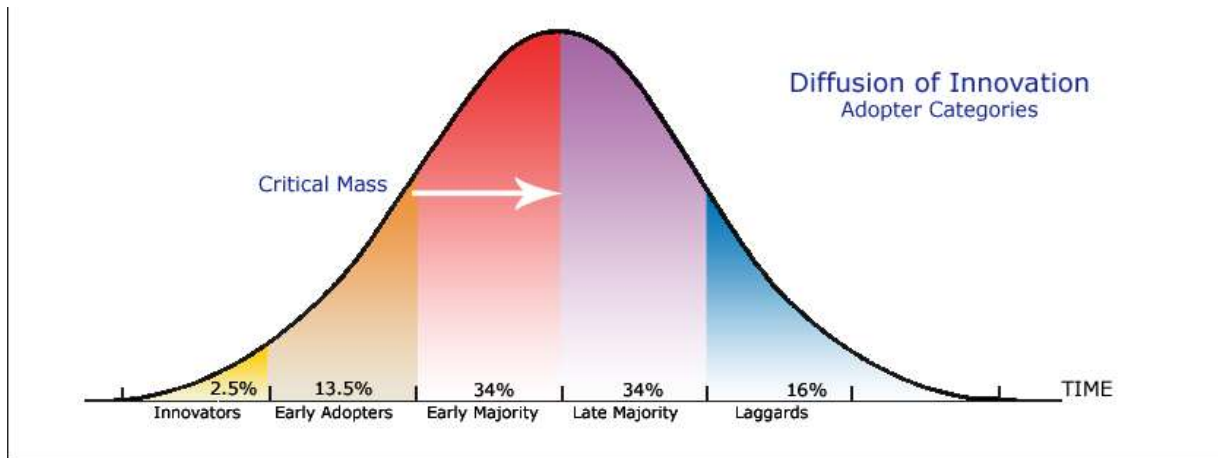


Figure 6

The innovation adoption curve of Rogers is based on the idea that certain individuals are inevitably more open to adaptation than others. It is also called: Multi-Step Flow Theory or Diffusion of Innovations Theory.

The research focus of Diffusion has Five elements:

1. Characteristics of an innovation that may influence its adoption;
2. Decision-making process that occurs when individuals consider adopting a new idea, product, or practice;
3. Characteristics of individuals that make them likely to adopt innovation;
4. Consequences for individuals and society of adopting an innovation; and
5. Communication channels used in the adoption process.

Communication channels

A communication channel is the means by which messages are disseminated from one individual to another. Mass media channels are more effective in creating knowledge of innovations, whereas interpersonal channels are more effective in forming and changing attitudes toward a new idea, and thus influencing the decision to adopt or reject a new idea. Most individuals evaluate an innovation, not on the basis of scientific research by experts, but through the subjective evaluations of near-peers who have adopted the innovation.

Communication Channels refer to the rate and degree that people talk about and spread the news about the innovations. Two types of communication channels were described by Rogers.

They are

Mass Media Channels. These are effective in creating knowledge about the innovation, for instance, system-related videos or DVDs, or television commercials within the mainstream media

Interpersonal Channels. Person-to-person communication is very effective in changing people's attitudes about innovation which ultimately influences their decision to accept or reject the innovation. Peer subjective evaluations of innovation are very influential.

Time

The dimension of time is involved in diffusion in three ways. First, time is involved in the innovation-decision process. The innovation-decision process is the mental process through which an individual (or another decision-making unit) passes from first knowledge of an innovation to forming an attitude toward the innovation, to a decision to adopt or reject, to implementation of the new idea, and to confirmation of this decision. An individual seeks information at various stages in the innovation-decision process in order to decrease uncertainty about an innovation's expected consequences.

Time is involved in three distinct dimensions of the innovation process

Innovation Adoption Process. Including first knowledge of the innovation through to final acceptance or rejection of its utility and ultimate implementation, as discussed earlier.

Innovation Adopter Categories. Time is also critical within the five adopter categories and how they influence one another to support full saturation of the innovation.

Rate of Adoption. Time is also involved when looking at the ultimate rate of adoption, say within an organization, from start to finish, and how many people of the total population have adopted the innovation. This rate of adoption is influenced by the innovation characteristics introduced above.

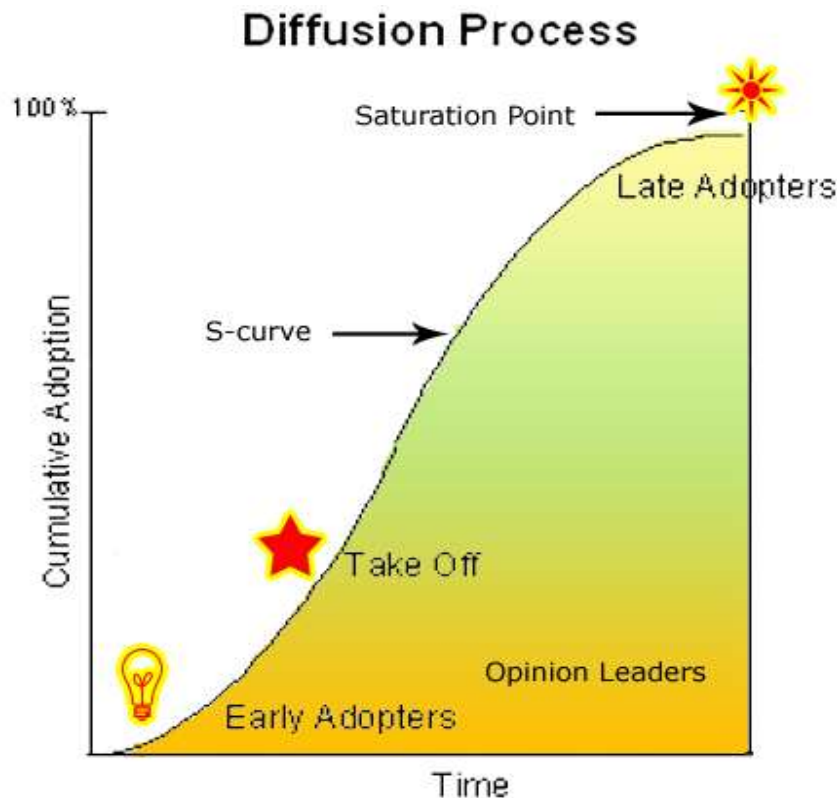


Figure 7

The social system

The fourth main element in the diffusion of new ideas is the social system. A social system is defined as a set of interrelated units that are engaged in joint problem-solving to accomplish a common goal. The members or units of a social system may be individuals, informal groups, organizations, and/ or subsystems. The social system constitutes a boundary within which an innovation diffuses and its effects on the process of diffusion have been studied. The second area of research involved how norms affect diffusion. Norms are the established behavior patterns for the members of a social system. The third area of research has had to do with opinion leaders, the degree to which an individual is able to influence informally other individuals' attitudes or overt behavior in the desired way with relative frequency. A change agent is an individual who attempts to influence clients' innovation decisions in a direction that is deemed desirable by a change agency. A final crucial concept in understanding the nature of the diffusion process is the critical mass, which occurs at the point at which enough individuals have adopted an innovation that the innovation's further rate of adoption becomes self-sustaining.

8.3. Diffusion

This model incorporates the following ideas about the diffusion process

- a) The process distinguishes the three main stages of the whole event into antecedents, process and consequences. The first of these refers to those circumstances of the event or characteristics of the people involved which makes it more or less likely that an individual will either be exposed to information about innovation or will experience needs to which the information is relevant. For instance, innovation adoption is more likely to occur amongst those who are well-disposed towards change, appreciate the need for innovation and who look out for new information. The process is one of the learning, attitude change and decision. Here the perceived characteristics of the innovation play a major part, as do the norms and values of the relevant social system. Sometimes technically efficacious means may be unacceptable on moral or cultural grounds or may present a threat to the existing structure of social relations. The stage of consequences of the diffusion event is mainly taken to refer to the later history of use or disuse if adoption takes place.
- b) Diffusion of innovation will normally involve different communication sources - general mass media, advertising or promotional material, official agencies of change, informal social contacts - and different sources may be important at different stages and for different functions. Thus mass media and advertising may produce awareness and knowledge, official agencies at the local level may persuade, personal influence may be important for the decision to adopt or not an experience to use may provide a main later source of confirmation or otherwise.
- c) There is a need to separate out the distinct functions of 'knowledge', 'persuasion', 'decision' and 'confirmation', which must normally occur in this sequence, even if the sequence needs to be completed. Different kinds of communication processes may also be involved in each case.

8.4. Diffusion Process

Four key steps that effectively summarize the diffusion process are:-

1. Knowledge
2. Persuasion
3. Decision
4. Confirmation

1. Knowledge

A person or members of a community become aware of some new innovation or communication technology, e.g. software programs for home computers. At this first step in the diffusion process, information is passed through some channel of communication, usually mass media or telecommunications media, but sometimes by way of interpersonal contact. Though the individual is exposed to innovation it might lack complete information

2. Persuasion

In this step two of the diffusion process takes place mostly within the mind of the potential adopter. The individual weighs the advantages that the new technology would bring to him personally. Based upon these evaluations and discussions with others, the individual begins to learn toward either adoption or rejection of the innovation. An individual becomes interested in the new idea and seek additional information

The model shows 'Receiver variables' to apply the first or 'knowledge' step, since the acquisition will depend on personality, social characteristics, etc. However, at least some of the receiver variables will be just as important at subsequent steps in the process. The same applies to 'social system variables' which are also related to the knowledge steps in the model, but which may be influential later.

Innovation Characteristics

Why do certain innovations spread more quickly than others? This question ..

The characteristics which determine an innovation's rate of adoption are:

1. Relative advantage
2. Compatibility
3. Complexity
4. Liability
5. Observability

It is important to examine why some innovations are successful, while others never become widely accepted. Five distinct innovation characteristics have been identified by Rogers to explain this mystery. These characteristics include observability, relative advantage, compatibility, trial ability, and complexity and according to Rogers, account for 49 to 87 percent of the adoption variation seen across all categories of adopters. These characteristics also provide a valuable evaluation list for technology project leaders to apply when first considering innovative changes.

Relative advantage is the degree to which an innovation is perceived as better than the idea. The degree of relative advantage may be measured in economic terms, but social prestige, convenience, and satisfaction are also important factors. It does not matter so much if an innovation has a great deal of objective advantages. What does matter is whether an individual perceives the innovation as advantageous. The greater the perceived relative advantage of an innovation, the more rapid its rate of adoption will be.

Compatibility is the degree to which an innovation is perceived as being consistent with the existing values, past experiences, and needs of potential adopters. An idea that is incompatible with the values and norms of a social system will not be adopted as rapidly as an innovation that is compatible. The adoption of an incompatible innovation often requires the prior adoption of a new value system, which is a relatively slow process.

Complexity is the degree to which an innovation is perceived as difficult to understand and use. Some innovations are readily understood by most members of a social system; others are more complicated and will be adopted more slowly. New ideas that are simpler to understand are adopted more rapidly than innovations that require the adopter to develop new skills and understandings.

Triability is the degree to which an innovation may be experimented with on a limited basis. New ideas that can be tried on the installment plan will generally be adopted more quickly than innovations that are not divisible. An innovation that is triable represents less uncertainty to the individual who is considering it for adoption, who can learn by doing.

Observability is the degree to which the results of an innovation are visible to others. The easier it is for individuals to see the results of an innovation, the more likely they are to adopt it. Such visibility stimulates peer discussion of a new idea, as friends and neighbors of an adopter often request innovation-evaluation information about it.

3. Decision

With this step, the individual makes the final decision of whether to adopt or reject. Individual mentally applies innovation to their present and anticipated future situation and then decide whether or not to try it.

4. Confirmation

Once a decision is made, the individual normally seeks validation. Individual decides to continue the full use of innovation. Whether the decision was to adopt or to reject, the person continues to evaluate the consequences of the decision. If the decision was to reject, new information or economic pressures might compel the person to adopt the innovation

8.5. Important Diffusion Studies

- To increase yields Iowa Hybrid corn seed by 20 percent, Slow to adopt – the reason being price, shortage of seeds for the next season, agriculture innovations were rare so farmers were not ready
- Diffusion of news about agricultural innovations such as fertilizer and pesticides
- New drug (tetracycline) amongst physicians
- Innovations related to health information such as family planning
- Advanced knowledge about political and social sciences
- Rise of new media technology

8.6. Criticism

The model represents a ‘dominant paradigm’ of the relationship between communication and development which some believe to be outmoded. The main author of the model E.M. Rogers has himself described the passing of this dominant paradigm and has criticisms of the approach which are consistent with some of the comments.

1. The model is designed from the perspective of an external or superior agent of change, which decides what is beneficial (on technical grounds) and proceeds to promote it by mobilizing large resources. Against this, it can be said that change can and should occur from below by those who need it on their own behalf. The more this is done, the less relevant is the model presented.
2. The model presupposes a linear, relation sequence of events, planned in advance and with criteria of rationality determined externally. This is a common correlation of the external or manipulative approach just mentioned.
3. In the model, persuasion or attitude change is located between 'knowledge' and 'decision'. This need not necessarily be the case. There are other bases of decision making than the formation of a judgemental attitude and there is much debate about the notion that attitude change normally precedes a related behavior change.
4. In real life there is much randomness and many elements of change in decision-making.
5. The model would be more complete if it included certain feedback loops from later to earlier steps. Thus decision-making and confirmation feedback to knowledge and attitude can increase or reinforce these respectively.

Despite this criticism, and even because of them, the model is useful and we only want to emphasize that it is not a complete or unique paradigm for the innovation-diffusion process.

8.7. Summary

After a number of empirical researches Rogers tried to show that when new technological innovations are introduced and they will pass through a series of stages before being widely adopted

- Most of the people will become aware of them, often through information from mass media.
- Innovations will be adopted by a very small group of innovators or early adopters
- Opinion leaders learn from the early adopters and try the innovation themselves
- Later if opinion leaders find the innovation useful, they encourage their friends the opinion. followers Finally after most people have adopted the innovation comes into full force.
- Diffusion theory is an excellent example of the power and the limitations of a middle-range theory. It assigns a very limited role to mass media.
- Media only create awareness of new innovations. Only the early adopters are directly influenced by media content. Others adopt innovations only after being influenced by other people.
- He recommended that diffusion efforts be led by change agents, people who could go out into rural communities and directly influence early adopters and opinion leaders

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|----------------------|------|-------------------------|
| Communication Theory | 8.11 | Diffusion of Innovation |
| Theory | | |

- Media are used to draw attention to innovations and as a basis for group discussions led by change agents. Extremely useful in USAID to spread agricultural innovation in the third world.

8.8. Self assessment questions

1. What is mass communication?
2. Define the elements of mass communication.
3. What are the important features of mass communication.
4. Briefly enumerate various theories of mass communication.
5. Differentiate between interpersonal and mass communication.

8.9. Suggested reading

Roberts F. Donald (1971) *The Process and Effects of Mass Communication*, University of Illinois Press.

Steinberg, Charles Side (1972) *The Structure and Development of Mass Communication*, Hastings House.

Gordon, Thomas Frank and Verna, Mary Ellen (1958) *Mass Communication Effects and Processes: A Comprehensive Bibliography*, Sage.

Farrar, Ronald T. Published (1995) *Mass Communication –An Introduction to the field*, McGraw-Hill Higher Education.

Dominick R. Joseph (1996) *The Dynamics of Mass Communication*, McGraw-Hill.

Katz, E. (1960) 'Communication Research and the image of society'. *American Journal of Sociology*, 65:435-40.

Rogers, E.M. (1976) 'Communication and development the passing of a dominant paradigm', *Communication Research*,3:213-40.

Rogers, E.M. and Shoemaker, F(1973) *Communication of Innovation*. Glencoe: free press.

LESSON 9

GATE KEEPING MODELS

9.0. Objective of the lesson:

The objective of this lesson is to assist you in understanding the

- Meaning and definition of communication.
- Scope of Communication

Structure of the lesson:

- 9.1. Introduction
- 9.2. Gate Keeping
- 9.3. History & Orientation
- 9.4. Core assumptions & Statements
- 9.5. Models of Gate keeping
- 9.6. White's Model
- 9.7. Summary
- 9.8. Self assessment questions
- 9.9. Reference Books

9.1. Introduction

Be it the two-step flow or the multi-step flow of communication, there is no guarantee that the intended message reaches the receiver as it is. Certain intervening factors are likely to act as tools of selection and guide the flow of messages. They might make changes in the original message or block it altogether. These factors are known as gatekeepers in communication. Just like our everyday gatekeeper who allows the visitors as per his will or by following certain guide lines. In this lesson we will learn about the gate keeping function in the media.

9.2. Gate keeping

The media content is processed by passing through many levels in an organization before it finally reaches the audience. On its way at each step the original data might change its volume i.e filtered or reduced in length, edited, censored, and so on. This is treated like a gate being closed for some and allowed for some news and the method of processing of data is called gate keeping. For example, if a bureau reporter is working on visuals during an event the gate keeping on this story begins with the observation of the event by the reporters. This might affect the lives of millions of people, but the team will have time to record only a very small portion of this. Let us say that the team decides to focus on damage being done to the corn crop. This decision filters the available data by including data relating to the corn crop and excluding data relating to other crops and other types of damage.

Within the news organization many people will contribute to the production of this “story.” Editors will select the bits of video to be used in the final presentation; Other editors will decide which evening the story will “run,” and where the story will come in the sequence of stories,

advertisements, and other material running that night. During its stay in the flood zone, the news team may have shot hours of video tape but each gatekeeper would have added to or subtracted from the original data and had an effect on the content and style of the story. Each person will and in his or her own way would help to formulate this particular communication product.

9.3. History and Orientation

Kurt Lewin was apparently the first one to use the term “gate keeping” according to which the gatekeeper is the person who decides what shall pass through each gate section, of which, in any process, there are several. Although he applied it originally to the food chain, he then added that the gating process can include a news item winding through communication channels in a group. He noted that, in the groups he examined, housewives controlled the decision-making process related to food habits and activities by creating behavioral barriers and incentives; Lewin referred to these housewives as gatekeepers.

David Manning White seized upon Lewin’s comments and moulded it to suit the processes in journalism in 1950. In his study he examined copy submitted to a small city daily newspaper for one week period and noted that the editor provided information on why stories were rejected.

In the 1970s McCombs and Shaw took a different direction when they looked at the effects of gatekeepers’ decisions. And added that the gate keeping is related to the new concept, agenda-setting. The gatekeeper concept later slipped into the language of many disciplines such as management of technology, information science, political science, including gate keeping in organizations.

Shoemaker (1991) defined gate keeping as “the process by which the billions of messages generated in the world get cut down and transformed into the hundreds of messages that reach a given person on a given day.” Ten years later he admitted that “The gate keeping process is also thought of as consisting more than just selection. ... it is the overall process through which social reality transmitted by the news media is constructed, and is not just a series of ‘in’ and ‘out’ decisions”.

9.4. Core Assumptions and Statements

Since there is not enough space in a newspaper or magazine or enough time in a television broadcast to report on everything, news organizations act as gate keepers and allow only selected stories through while keeping out others. This process is not value free or arbitrary. In this process agenda-setting helps the gate keeper in determining what is in the news, what events people think are important and what are not. Gate keeping is a media term used to describe the filtering of stars and coverage through television and print. A message has to pass through many gates (filters) before it reaches its audience. This means that a selection of media topics is chosen to be presented to different audiences through different forms of media. Gatekeepers include the owners of a newspaper, reporters on the ground, editors in the desk, the government, the pressure groups concerned with media output, political parties and civil society organizations. The gatekeeper decides which information will go forward, and which will not. In other words a gatekeeper in a social system decides which of a certain commodity – materials, goods, and

information – may enter the system. Media gate keeping showed that decision making is based on principles of news values, organizational routines, input structure and common sense. Gate keeping is vital in communication planning and the gatekeeper's choices are a complex web of influences, preferences, motives and common values. Gate keeping is inevitable and in some circumstances it can be useful.

9.5. Models of gate keeping

- 1) The Mirror Model contends that the news is and should be simply a faithful reflection of reality.
- 2) The Professional Model views news professionals much as artists who must wade through the mire of everything that is happening in the world and select that which is most important and interesting.
- 3) The organization model contends that the determination of what is considered newsworthy is based on the pressures and organizational processes in the news business. Since it is a business, this model tends to focus on pressures to increase the readership or the television audience
- 4) The political model assumes that news decisions are made based on the political biases of the people involved. (Elite democrats think there is a liberal bias; popular democrats think that there is a conservative, pro-business bias.) There has been a lot of debate over the years in political science over just how much effect the media have in affecting people's political opinions and their votes.

There are civil wars and famines going on all over the world right now that we don't think about simply because the media do not report them. In domestic politics, the agenda setting effect has been tremendously important in determining which issue gets public attention and what issues don't. That's why most Americans think that violent crime is increasing and is a major national problem even though it is actually decreasing dramatically all over the country. Health insurance in America was widely viewed as being in crisis in 1992 and when it was getting a lot of media coverage. Yet very few people, other than those without insurance themselves would view it as a crisis now, simply because there is no longer any reporting about average working people who can't afford insurance. Political Scientists Iyengar and Kinder conducted experiments in the 1980s in which they showed people news broadcasts over a period of weeks which had been manipulated so that some people would see more stories about some issues while other people would see more stories about others.

Gate keeping can also be dangerous, since it can lead to an abuse of power by deciding what information to discard and what to let pass. Nevertheless, gate keeping is often a routine, guided by some set of standard questions.

9.6. White's Model

Maletzke's Model of the mass media helps in understanding about a range of factors which influence the gate keeping process. It leads us to consider not only questions such as news values, but also theories of personality and so on. Gatekeepers include reporters, copy tasters, sub-editors, editors and, to a lesser extent media owners. They also include the government and the EU via legislation, as well as the European Council and the United Nations, via declarations on human rights and civil liberties.

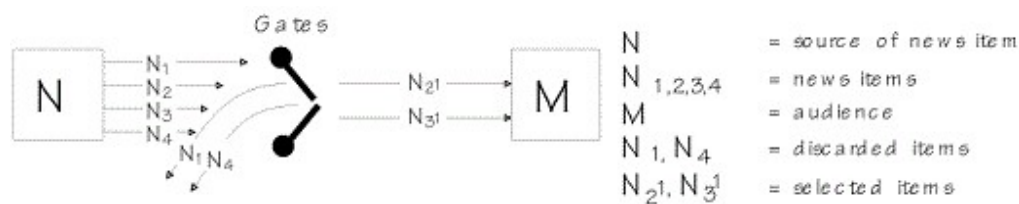


Fig: 8 White's gate keeping model

White's model of graphical representation of the selection of news shows N is the event whereas N_1, N_2 and soon could be news items related to that event. It is assumed that the gatekeeper closes gates for some of these items out and allows others to reach the audience. In the graphic, N_1, N_2, N_3 and N_4 are identified as 'news items'. Doesn't that imply that 'gate keeping' has already taken place before the gate is reached - after all, who determines that these are 'news items'? You might, in fact, also ask yourself what an 'item' is? What is a news 'event'? Is a plane crash the 'event' of the plane hitting the ground? Is it what happened before? How long before? Is it what happened after? How long after? These kinds of questions have no self-evident answer and remind us that a news 'event' is not simply 'out there' waiting to be reported. Gatekeepers include the owners of a newspaper, reporters on the ground, editors in the desk, the government, the United Nations, via declarations on human rights and civil liberties, pressure groups concerned with media output, political parties and single issue groups such as Greenpeace.

Credibility is the objective and subjective components of the believability of a source of message. Traditionally, credibility is composed of two primary dimensions: trustworthiness and expertise, which have both objective and subjective components. That is, trustworthiness is a receiver judgment based on subjective factors. Expertise can be similarly subjectively perceived but includes relatively objective characteristics of the source of message as well (e.g., source credentials or information quality). Credibility is a set of perceptions about sources held by receivers. Source characteristics like age, sex or socioeconomic status may affect the perceptions that the receiver has, and thus, such characteristics become relevant to the study of credibility." Attractiveness, Motives, Similarity, Trustworthiness, Expertness and Origin of the Message are some important credibility variables. The appearance of a communicator may positively or negatively affect his credibility with an audience. Beyond the physical appearance and presentation style of a communicator, the perceived motive of the communicator is an important

factor in determining his or her credibility. According to Carl Hovland, one of the most important variables in assessing source credibility is trustworthiness. For a communicator to be effective, he or she must be perceived as being worthy of trust. Along with trustworthiness, Hovland identifies expertise as another key variable in measuring source credibility. Expertise has to do with the extent to which a communicator is qualified to discuss a particular subject.

Although in communication studies, gate keeping is usually related to the news media, it has obvious applications to other aspects of communication. In interpersonal and intrapersonal communication, the concept is also of some interest. It is a most common phenomenon in organization also where they are arranged along strictly hierarchical lines, in order to get a message to the managing director, you have to go through your line manager, through his/her line manager and so on, each one acting as a gatekeeper, perhaps allowing the message through as it stands, perhaps editing it as it passes through the gate, perhaps totally blocking it.

9.7. Summary

Gate keeping is essentially a process of selection of news. The media product passes through many levels of organizational processing on its way to the audience, and at each step in the process, the original data is filtered. Each step in the process can be thought of as a gate through which the data must pass on its way to the consumer, consequently this situation is known as gate keeping. Editors will select the bits of video to be used in the final presentation; writers will create a script for the commentator to read; graphic artists will create titles, maps, animations and other video enhancements; musicians may create a musical score for the piece and so on. Other editors will decide which evening the story will “run,” and where the story will come in the sequence of stories, advertisements, and other material running that night. An anchorperson will introduce the story and various technicians will insure that it gets “on the air.”

9.8. Self assessment questions

1. What is meant by Source credibility?
2. Explain the various variables of Source credibility.
3. Why is credibility important for the media?
4. What can media do to establish credibility with the audience?
5. Explain the process of Media gate keeping.

9.9. Suggested reading

Bittner, John R (1980) Broadcasting -An Introduction, Prentice Hall.

Agarwaal, S K (1989)Media Credibility, Mittal Publications.

Rivers, WilliamR (1975) The Mass Media - Reporting, Writing and Editing, Harper Row.

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LESSON 10

GALTUNG AND RUGE MODEL OF SELECTIVE GATE KEEPING

10.0 . Objective of the lesson:

The objective of this lesson is to assist you in understanding the

- Selective gate keeping
- News factors
- Approaches to news values

Structure of the lesson:

- 10.1. Introduction
- 10.2. News values
- 10.3. Hypothesis
- 10.4. Criticism
- 10.5. Summary
- 10.6. Self assessment questions
- 10.7. Suggested reading

10.1. Introduction

Many researchers took up studies related to gate keeping and evolved a set of news factors that influence gate keeping in media organizations. Working on those lines in 1973 Johan Galtung and Marie Holmboe Ruge argued that potential news is generated based on the events and some qualities add value to them. These qualities are called news factors. Those events which are perceived to be of high news value by media personnel are generally preferred by those news media houses and this process is considered as selective gate keeping. Every media organization might have its own opinion about a particular event, incident, or information. At the same time, the image portrayed by mass media's image could be different from what really happened, and for a common man it is difficult to assume what might have happened. By combining the hypothetical news factors with some new assumptions a probable picture of reality is deduced. By considering the news factors it can be said that

- The higher the total score of an event or the more news factors an event satisfies, the higher the probability that it will become news.
- If an event is low on one factor it may (or will have to) be high on some other factor to make news.

Galtung and Ruge had also pointed out that "every link in the chain (of communication) reacts to what it receives fairly much according to the same principles. The Journalist scans the phenomena and selects and distorts, and so does the reader when he gets the finished product, the

news pages, and so do all the middle-men". News factors, from this perspective, do not only serve as exclusively journalistic criteria but as general human selection criteria also.

10.2. News Values

Galtung and Ruge proposed one of the best-known lists of news values by studying news and stories. They analyzed international news stories and identified which factors enabled them to reach the top of the news agenda. Although their research was conducted decades ago, the news values proposed by them still hold good by media and are considered readily in finalizing and scheduling them in media. This will refer to most of the characteristics they list. This list of news values provides a kind of scoring system: a story that scores highly on each value is likely to appear first in the television news bulletin or in the front page of a newspaper.

The values are divided into three categories i.e. Impact, Audience identity and Pragmatics of media

- Impact deals with threshold, frequency, negativity, unexpectedness as well as unambiguity
- Audience identity includes specificity of people especially those involving celebrities. Meaningfulness more so of cultural proximity, reference to elite nations and elite reference to elite persons, etc.
- Pragmatics of media coverage that matches the media's expectations receives more coverage than those which contradict them. So is one such story which is already in the news that gathers a kind of momentum? Stories that prevail in competition successfully make their way into media space.

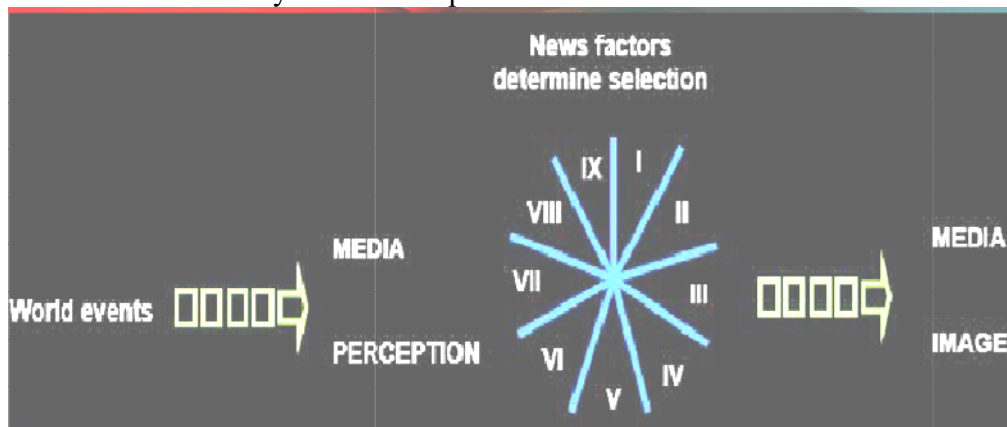


Figure 9

While studying the news story one has to consider the following criteria:

Threshold value: The bigger impact the story has, the more people it affects, the more extreme the effect or the more money or resources it involves, the chances of appearing in media would be brighter.

Time span: If an event such as motorway pile-ups, murder, or a train accident is likely to fit into the immediate bulletin or newspaper pages it might be accommodated but not the one which takes longer to evolve as an event. Long-term trends are unlikely to receive much coverage.

Negativity: Bad news evokes more interest than good news. Information about death, tragedy, bankruptcy, violence, damage, natural disasters, political upheaval, or simply extreme weather conditions get better ratings than positive stories such as royal weddings or celebrations. Bad news stories are more likely to score high on other news values, such as threshold, unexpectedness, unambiguity and meaningfulness.

Unexpectedness: If an event is found to be unusual and rare it is more likely to make it into the news than an everyday occurrence would. As the famous quote goes: "If a dog bites a man, that's not news. But if a man bites a dog, that's news!"

Unambiguity Events that are easy to understand find a place in bulletins and newspapers than those which are difficult to be interpreted. If the event demands to be understood from its complex background it might be set aside and the one that is clear and easy to interpret finds place readily.

Subjectivity: News stories that revolve around individuals make more sense center on a particular person, and if it is looked at a human interest angle are likely to make the front page, particularly if VVIPs and celebrities are involved. Some people claim this news value has become distorted, and that news editors over-rate personality stories, especially those involving celebrities.

Cultural proximity: Events that relate to cultural proximity and the extent to which the audience identifies with the topic become news stories. Stories about people who speak the same language, look the same and share the same preoccupations as the audience receive more coverage.

Reference to the elite: Stories concerned with global powers receive more attention than those dealing with less influential nations. This also relates to cultural proximity. Those nations which are culturally closest to our own will receive most of the coverage.

The media pay attention to the rich, powerful, famous and infamous. Stories about important people get the most coverage.

Consonance Stories that match the media's expectations receive more coverage than those which contradict them. At first sight, this appears to contradict the notion of unexpectedness. However, consonance refers to the media's readiness to report an item, which they are more likely to do if they are prepared for it. Indeed, journalists often have a preconceived idea of the angle they want to report an event, even before they get there.

Continuity A story which is already in the news gathers a kind of momentum – the running story. This is partly because news teams are already in place to report the story, and partly because previous reportage may have made the story more accessible to the public.

Composition Stories must compete with one another for space in the media. For instance, editors may seek to provide a balance of different types of coverage. If there is an excess of foreign news the least important foreign story may be sacrificed and this would be prioritized over an inconsequential item of domestic news. In this way the prominence would be by means its own stature and also where does it stand with those of other competing stories. Here editors' judgment prevails more than anything else.

10.3. Hypothesis

Combinations and permutations of the above factors lead to the following hypothesis. They are

Additivity: When more news factors are associated with one event and information they are most likely to become news.

Complementarity: According to this if the event is weak for one factor and high on another it can be considered to be news

Exclusiveness: If an event is low on all factors it will not become news

10.4. Criticism

This approach has been extremely influential in studies of news content and some confirmation is claimed on the basis of empirical testing. The model mostly was discussed in the context of international news where world events are converted by media organizations into a media image that reaches the audience. But this model was criticized for three reasons.

- According to Rosengren (1974), it is too psycho-logical and depends too much on ideas about selective reception by individual gatekeepers. An alternative approach of a combination of political and government factors governing the news output was created. More account of political and economic factor news reporting can be encouraged.
- This model is untestable and not open to falsification because the additivity and complementarity hypothesis can apply to all cases
- The model has not been adequately tested. Efforts were not made to test it with an appropriate methodology and a good test need extra media data, evidence of other variables, and also independent sources of knowledge about the reality of events. Recent application of the scheme analysis of news on Dutch television has cast some doubt on the general tenability of complementarity hypothesis

Galtung and Ruge's analysis presents pragmatic reasons why certain news stories are not reported. For instance, the farmer's demonstration in November 2020 failed to receive much media attention in South India because most of the agitators hail from northern states like Punjab, Haryana, UP etc. governments of the hostile regime of General Ne Win barred overseas journalists from the country. But contrast, the mass demonstration in 2007 received far more attention because civilians themselves had the technology, with modern mobile phones and camcorders, to send instant messages and pictures out of the country to a waiting international media such as Reuters, BBC and CNN.

10.5 Summary

This model rests on a relatively simple version of the flow of gate keeping as a process of successive selections according to a number of news values or criteria which affect the perception of news events. The main interest is that it develops in some detail one aspect of gate keeping which is neglected or dealt with only in general terms by other models namely the criteria which are applied in deciding whether to select or reject. If these criteria are completely subjective and vary from one gate keeper to another there is no point in considering them from the communication model perspective. However there is reason to believe that selection process is fairly systematic some degree predictable. Galtung and Ruge approach the problem by naming and describing the main characteristics of an original news event which will influence its chances of being picked up initially and of passing the various gates of the kind described in the McNelly model. The model represents the process by which world events are converted by media organization into a media image or picture of the world which is distributed to the audience. The application of the model depends on basic hypothesis about the way in which the variables or news factors alone or in combination affect the selection and rejection process.

10.6 Self assessment questions

1. What is meant by selective gate keeping?
2. Write about news factors prescribed in selective gate keeping?
3. Explain the important hypothesis in gate keeping.

10.7. Suggested reading

1. Bergsme, F. (1978), "News values in foreign affairs on Dutch television", *Gazette*, 24:207-22
2. Galtung, J.; Holmboe Ruge, M. (1965). "The Structure of Foreign News,," *Journal of Peace Research*. 2 (1):64-90

LESSON 11

'NEWCOMB'S ABX AND 'CO ORIENTATION' MODELS

11.0. Objective of the lesson:

The objective of this lesson is to assist you in understanding the

- Balance in communication
- Co- orientation
- Congruity
- Cognitive Dissonance Theory

Structure of the lesson:

11.1. Introduction

11.2. Balance in Communication

11.3. Communication Relationships

11.4. Comment

11.5. Congruity Theory

11.6. Cognitive Dissonance Theory

11.7. Criticism

11.8. Summary

11.9. Self assessment Questions

11.10. Suggested reading

11.1. Introduction

In the early phases of developing a viable model of communication, a number of innovative ideas have evolved in mass communication. F. E. X. Dance (1967) argued for a *helical model* to reflect the fact that communication is an essentially dynamic and exponential process that changes participants, as well as contexts and the future probabilities of communication, as a result of its own operation.

11.2. Balance in Communication

Heider had been concerned with the degree of consistency or inconsistency which might exist between two persons in relation to a third person or object. His theory held that when two people have an attitude of like or dislike towards each other and towards an external object, some patterns of relationship will be balanced and some will be unbalanced. Whenever there is balance, each participant will resist change, and if imbalance sets in attempts will be made to restore 'cognitive' balance.

Heider mainly discussed the cognitive process internal to either of the two participants and Newcomb proposed to apply the theory to communication between two or more people. He postulated the existence of 'strain to symmetry' as a result of which the area of the agreement would be widened by engaging communication. He put forward an assumption that 'communication performs the essential functions of enabling two or more individuals to maintain stimulation orientation to each other and towards the object of an external environment'. Communication is thus a 'learned response to strain' and we are likely to find 'more' communication actively (information giving, seeking and exchange) under conditions of uncertainty and disequilibrium.

It is a simple representation of the dynamics of the communicative relationship between two individuals, but it deals with a wide-ranging body of ideas regarding attitude change, public opinion formation and propaganda.

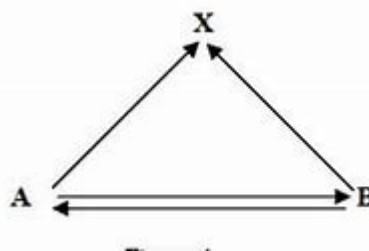


Figure 10

The model shown in fig was formulated by Newcomb (1953) and is an extension of earlier work by Heider. He developed a Co-orientation model as a helpful tool in the relational analysis of dyadic pairs. His model takes the form of a triangle, the points of which represent, respectively two individuals A and B and an object X in their common environment. Both individuals are oriented to one another and to X. The object could be anything physical, an event, an activity, an attitude, or a behavior. The communicator's A and B have a simultaneous co-orientation toward his or her communication partner and towards the object of communication.

Each communicator, A and B has a simultaneous co-orientation towards her or his communication partner and towards the object of communication.

Newcomb (1953) identified four basic components of this relation system:

A's attitude toward X; and

A's attraction to B;

B's attitude toward X; and

B's attraction to A.

Here communication is conceived of as a process that supports the orientation structure and helps in maintaining or improving the symmetry of the relationship between the three elements by transmitting information about any change and by allowing adjustments to occur. The basic assumption of the model is that strain towards consistency of attitude and relationship will promote communication, where conditions permit. The main propositions which can be derived from the model are: that discrepancy between A and B in their orientation towards X will stimulate communication and the effect of this communication will tend to restore balance which is postulated as the 'normal state' of a system of relationships.

McLeod and Chaffee's (1973) co-orientation model builds on Newcomb's paradigm. The co-orientation model assumes that each actor in the co-orientation pair has two sets of cognitions: a "self-perception" of a particular object or attributes of the object, and an "other-perception" of what the other person thinks the object of its attributes. Comparison of these four sets of cognition yield five relationships. These five measures identified by the co-orientation model generate three basic kinds of communication states: Congruency, Agreement and Accuracy.

11.3. Communication Relationships

Congruency is not a true interpersonal variable from the objective social system point of view since it is an indicator of the degree of similarity between a person between own cognitions and her/his perception of the other person's cognitions. The point is that the effect of communication may be either increase or decrease congruency, depending on its initial level and the actual state of the system. Congruency tends to be more important in the early stages of interpersonal processes and consequently has been useful as an independent variable in developing communication theory. The degree of similarity, or cognitive overlap, between the co-orientations of the "organization's definition" and the "stakeholders' definition" is called "agreement". To the extent that the organization and the stakeholder group have the same summary evaluations of the objects, there is agreement. McLeod et al. (1972) argued that agreement is not a satisfactory criterion for communication. It can be argued that personal values, the products of many kinds of individual experiences and constraints, are unlikely to be changed sufficiently by communication alone to produce a complete agreement.

Accuracy is the extent to which one participant's estimate of the other's cognitions matches what the other participant really does think, which seems an ideal criterion for communication. A key assumption underlying the co-orientation model is that a person's behavior is not based simply upon a private cognitive construction of the person's own world, but also a function of the perception of the co-orientation held by others around the person and of the orientation of them. This assumption serves as an important basis of this study because the forest industries are likely to design their services based not only on their own cognitions but also on their perceptions of their end consumers' cognition.

ABX is a system where internal relations are interdependent: If A changes, B and X as well change, or if A changes her relationship to X, B will have to change his or her relationship

with either X or with A. During war people's dependence on the media increases and so too is the government's use of the media. This is because the war X is not only not of crucial importance but is also constantly changing. So government and people (A and B) need to be in constant communication via the mass media.

Subsequently, Newcomb (1959) added some qualifications to his earlier position by noting that communication is likely to be activated under certain conditions:

- a) where there is a strong attraction between persons;
- b) where the object is important to at least one of the participants; and
- c) where the object X has a joint relevance for both.

Newcomb tested and evaluated this theory by research on the development over time of consensus amongst students who began as strangers and spend time together in the same student accommodation.

11.4. Comment

In general, the kind of process indicated by Newcomb's model and predicted by balance theory as a whole supports the view that people are likely to attend to sources of information that are in line with their existing positions and look for information that supports and confirms their actual behavior. It strengthened theories of selective perception and to the expectation that the most likely effects of communication including mass communication will be towards the reinforcement of existing opinions, attitudes and behavior tendencies. There is independent evidence from studies of the effects of mass communication (e.g. in Klapper 1960) which leads to the same conclusion.

11.5. Congruity theory

McLeod and Chaffee's (1973) Co orientation model was built on a new communication paradigm. The co orientation model assumes that each actor has in the co orientation pair has two sets of cognitions. Congruency is an indicator of the degree of similarity between a person's own cognition and his / her perception of the other person's conditions. According to Osgood and Tannenbaum's (1955) Congruity Theory is explicitly oriented to communication and persuasion. Their refinement of Heider treated the Other person (O) as a message Source. The attitude Object is a Concept, and the P in Heider's balance theory is essentially the audience. They quantified two of the three relationships in Heider's triad: the degree of liking of the audience for the Source (PO in Heider's triad) and the audience's attitude toward the Concept (PX in Heider's theory). Both of these relationships were represented by a number (1-7) as well as a direction (plus or minus). Thus, Congruity Theory concerns situations in which a Source makes an assertion about a Concept, and the audience has attitudes toward the Source and the Concept. The only relationship that remains the same is that the assertion of the Source about the Concept is either positive (associative) or negative (dissociative). This theory holds that incongruity (like imbalance) is unpleasant and motivates audiences to change their attitudes.

A second improvement is that Congruity Theory offers a formula for predicting the direction and amount of attitude change (those who are interested in the details of the formula should consult the reading list). The main point here is that Congruity Theory proposes a formula

that predicts the amount and direction of attitude change based on the audience's attitude toward the Source and the audience's attitude toward the Concept.

Congruity theory was tested using a variety of hypothetical situations. Subjects were given a long list of people (potential message sources, like President Eisenhower or Soviet leader Kruchev) and concepts (communism, democracy) and asked to report their attitude toward each one. Later, subjects would be told that Eisenhower or Kruchev had made a statement about a concept, like democracy or communism. The data for their initial attitudes toward source and concept was put into the formula and then their new attitudes (after reading the message) were compared with the attitudes predicted by Congruity Theory. Research revealed that Congruity Theory's predictions were supported generally: attitudes did tend to change in the predicted direction. However, precise amounts of attitude change were often incorrect. These experimental results led the theorists to propose two corrections to the formula. These corrections are called post hoc hypotheses because they do not arise from the theory, but from research conducted after the theory was stated. In a sense, they are "band-aids" trying to fix errors in the theory's predictions.

Strength and Weakness. Congruency tends to be more important in the early stages of interpersonal processes and consequently has been useful in an independent variable in developing communication theory. One important advantage is that Congruity Theory makes specific predictions about the direction and amount of attitude change that will occur from persuasive communication. Research tells us that these predictions are not perfect but fairly accurate. These predictions are even better when the two corrections are made to the formula. Balance theory makes no specific predictions about attitude change, so Congruity Theory's ability to predict the direction and amount of attitude change is a definite improvement. For those who are specifically interested in persuasion, Congruity Theory is much more focused than Balance Theory. Another advantage of Congruity Theory is that it explains why some messages fall flat.

Limitations.

However, this theory has its limitations.

- Like all consistency theories, the Congruity Theory ignores message content.
- The correction it proposes means that the theory is incomplete.
- It predicts that incongruity can change the audience's attitude toward the concept and their attitude toward the source.
- No theory had predicted that the audience's attitude toward the source of the message would change too. Research demonstrated that in fact, attitudes toward both the concept and the source changed.
- It also predicts that more polarized (extreme) attitudes will change less than moderate attitudes. That prediction was also confirmed by their research.

11.6. Cognitive Dissonance Theory

Working on the lines of Heider and Newcomb the social psychologist Festinger (1957) predicted that people will seek out information that confirms their existing attitudes and views of the world or reinforces other aspects of society. It also explained that people will

avoid information that is likely to increase dissonance. If someone dislikes a person he will dislike his or her views, what he or she says is unlikely to cause cognitive dissonance for there is congruence here. Cognitive dissonance is a theory of psychology that translates into “thought conflict”. The theory explains how people reduce psychological discomfort and achieve emotional equilibrium in the face of inconsistent beliefs or behaviors. It claims that people tend to avoid information and situations that are likely to increase dissonance with their existing cognitions, such as beliefs, attitudes, or other value judgments. It rests on the premise that people desire to view themselves as rational and uniform in both thought and action; therefore, they consciously choose how they respond to information or behaviors that challenge their way of thinking. It has been used to understand why people give in to con artists, make risky financial decisions and justify unhealthy habits.

This theory of cognitive dissonance held that decisions, choices and new information have the potential for creating a feeling of inconsistency for an individual. Such dissonance is ‘psychologically uncomfortable’ and will motivate the individual concerned to seek information that supports the choice which has been made. An example that women prefer to watch advertisements about the fashion accessories which they had recently bought more than they read advertisements about other things explains it in a better manner.

Festinger proposed the following basic hypotheses

1. People who experience psychological discomfort arising from cognitive conflict will attempt to reduce the discomfort and achieve consonance, or inner harmony. He proposed three ways to do this:
 - minimize the importance of the dissonant thought,
 - outweighs the dissonant thought with consonant thoughts, or
 - incorporate the dissonant thought into one’s current belief system.

When a person is habituated to drunken driving comes to know that drinking and driving is dangerous, he might

- (1) argue that he never drives more than a mile from the local bar,
 - (2) consider how much he’s saving on taxi fare by driving himself home or
 - (3) accept that his behavior is dangerous and stop driving drunk.
2. When dissonance is present, in addition to trying to reduce it, the person will actively avoid situations and information which would likely increase the dissonance”. For him, “two elements are in a dissonant relationship if, considering these two alone, the obverse of one element would follow from the other”.
 3. The second hypothesis says that people who experience dissonance will try to avoid it in the future by shunning challenging situations and limiting information to that which affirms their current beliefs. This hypothesis explains, in part, why many national news outlets frame events along a political slant. People want to see reality in a way that supports their cognitions, and many organizations have found ways to capitalize on

this desire. Like several other *consistency theories*, Festinger's theory of cognitive dissonance was based on the "law of good gestalt." Accordingly, individuals will try to avoid dissonance and pursue consonance between their many cognitions or even social relations. For instance, if a person, for whatever reason, perceived an argument against a political leader whom he or she otherwise admired, this person would try to resolve the tension between the two conflicting cognitions. Festinger's theory takes an already existing dissonance as the starting point for predictions about subsequent behavior. Cognitive Dissonance theory, however, cannot predict how people will choose to reduce their psychological discomfort when challenged. Attempts to sway people to a different opinion or behavior can sometimes backfire by reinforcing an undesirable attitude.

11.7. Criticism

The theory had *two main theoretical problems*. First, from the state of dissonance, the only search can logically follow, but not the avoidance of information, because the only active search can reduce the state of tension. In a state of consonance, however, only avoidance is reasonable, because every search could create dissonance. Second, the theory did not distinguish between simple cognitions (or "protocols") and hypotheses-cognitions (more general cognition, norms, laws, etc.). However, the theory has become by far the most influential of all theories based on the consistency paradigm. At the same time, it was one of the most controversial ones. Though Cognitive Dissonance Theory was controversial at first, it is now one of the most analyzed and accepted theories in both psychology and communication. Nevertheless, it became widely adopted in communication research, where researchers linked it to findings of selective exposure to media content as, for instance, in the pioneer study *The people's choice* by Paul Lazarsfeld et al. (1944), and treated it as a basic psychological "law" behind these findings of de facto selectivity.

11.8. Summary

Theodore Newcomb developed Co orientation model, a helpful tool in relational analysis of dyadic pairs. This insightful model consists of two communicators A and B and their "orientation" towards some "object of communication", X.

Any subject, behavior, belief, event, object which is the focus of communication for the two participants has the potential to be "object of communication". Each communicator, A and B has a simultaneous co orientation towards his or her communication partner (usually the level of attraction and feelings towards the partner) and towards subject of communication. Newcomb's ABX model is based on psychological review of communication. He saw communication as a way in which people orient to their environment and to each other. Based on the concept of balance, attitude and beliefs and those that is important to an individual. If the balance is disturbed communication is used to restore it.

Congruency is an indicator of the degree of similarity between a person and his own cognition and those of others. Effect of Communication decreases congruency and it is more important in the interpersonal communication. Cognitive dissonance theory explains how people reduce psychological discomfort. Mutual decisions and new information have potential for understand for an individual. This will motivate the individual to seek information to support his choice which has been made. Festinger proposed hypothesis in this regard.

11.9. Self assessment questions

1. Identify the areas of communication where the balance/imbalance is found.
2. Write about Festinger's concept of balance.
3. Explain Congruity theory with suitable examples.
4. Cognitive dissonance is a key concept of communication. Explain.

11.10. Suggested reading

Newcomb, T.(1953) 'An approach to the study of communication acts', Psychological Review, 60:393-404.

LESSON 12

SOCIAL JUDGMENT THEORY

12.0. Objective of the lesson:

The objective of this lesson is to assist the student in understanding the

- As to how social judgment theory emerged
- Judgment process and attitudes
- Latitudes of rejection, acceptance, and non-commitment

Structure of the lesson

12.1. Introduction

12.2. Social Judgment process

12.3. Persuasion

12.4. Latitudes

12.5. Assimilation and contrast

12.6. Theoretical concepts

12.7. Ego

12.8. Political communication

12.9. Health communication

12.10. Summary

12.11. Model Questions

12.12. Reference Books

12.1. Introduction

Social Judgment/Involvement theory explains how two people can react so differently to the very same message. Social Judgment Theory has been evolved based on the outcomes of laboratory experiments done in the field of social psychology. They studied the mental assessment of physical objects, referred to at a given time as a part of psychophysical research. This work involving physical objects was applied to psychosocial work, in which a participant's limits of acceptability on social issues such as religion and politics was studied. Subjects were asked to compare some aspect of an object, such as weight or color, to another, differing object.

12.2. Social Judgment process

Social Judgment Theory (SJT) was proposed by Muzafer Sherif and Carl Hovland (1961) according to which persuasion is a two-step process. In the fifth century B.C. Greek philosopher Protagoras opposed the idea that there were absolute truths. He declared “man is the measure of all things”. Generally, it is observed that people have different perceptions about the same thing. One person perceives a summer day is hot while another believes it is only pleasantly warm. Two friends can see the same TV programme and one might like it and the other hates it. And two people can hear the same persuasive message but have quite different interpretations to it. The researchers discovered that when a standard was provided for comparison, the participants categorized the objects relative to the aspects of the standard. For example, if a very heavy object was used as the standard in assessing weight, then the other objects would be judged to be relatively lighter than if a very light object was used as the standard. The standard is referred to as an "anchor".

12.3. Persuasion

Social judgment theory is based on the premise that the effect of a persuasive message on a particular issue depends on the way the receiver evaluates the position that the message puts forth. Social Judgment theory proposes the idea that persuasion is a two-step process. In the first step, individuals hear or read a message and immediately evaluate as to whether the message falls within their own position. The second step involves individuals adjusting their particular attitude either towards or away from the message they heard.

The judgment process and the comparisons involved in it mediate attitude change, although the causal nature of the judgment process on attitude change is tough to determine. Judgment occurs when a person compares at least two stimuli and makes a choice about them. With regard to social stimuli specifically, judgment processes incorporate both past experiences and present circumstances. Sherif (1965) defined attitudes as "the stands the individual upholds and cherishes about objects, issues, persons, groups, or institutions". Researchers must infer attitudes from behavior. The behavior can be in response to arranged or naturally-occurring stimuli. True attitudes are fundamental to self-identity, are complex, and thus can be difficult to change. But an individual's attitude toward a particular issue or behavior is not adequately reflected by a single alternative or position among those available.

Research in the SJT tradition determines the limits of the position of the receiver “relative to the bounds of possible alternatives defined by the extreme positions on the issue” in terms of the latitudes of acceptance, non commitment, and rejection. In SJT, each receiver judges the range of alternatives individually, and then these judgments can be combined “to reflect the consensus, defined by social norms, prevailing among given people”. Thus, SJT allows for delineating group patterns that emerge from perceptions of individuals. It claim also that the members of the sample in that particular population are affected by these patterns. They “develop and adopt a variety of practices, customs, traditions, and definitions that mark off latitudes for acceptable attitudes and behavior and for objectionable attitudes and behavior among members in various matters of consequence to the group. These shared practices and definitions with their highly evaluative aspects, are the norms of the group.

12.4. Latitudes

All social attitudes are not cumulative, especially regarding issues where the attitude is extreme. This means that a person may not agree with less extreme stands relative to his/her position, even though they may be in the same direction. Furthermore, even though two people may seem to hold identical attitudes, their "most preferred" and "least preferred" alternatives may differ. Thus, a person's full attitude can only be understood in terms of what other positions he/she finds acceptable (or not) in addition to his/her own stand. This continuum illustrates a crucial point of Social judgment theory, referred to as the "latitudes of acceptance, rejection, and non-commitment". These latitudes are composed of a range of preferred, offensive, and indifferent attitudes. The placement of positions along the continuum hinges on the anchor point, usually determined by the individual's own stand. Therefore, one's attitude on a social issue cannot be summed up with a single point but instead consists of varying degrees of acceptability for discrepant positions.

An *own categories questionnaire* is a subjective procedure whereby respondents sort the statements into categories that are meaningful to them. They are then asked which pile comes closest to their own position, which are acceptable, and which are objectionable.

These degrees or latitudes together create the full spectrum of an individual's attitude. This is defined as including the "positions he finds objectionable (including the one 'most objectionable' to him)". The *anchor point* is the position on the ordered alternatives that the receiver holds initially.

According to Sherif and Hovland the latitude of acceptance "is the range of positions on an issue ... an individual considers acceptable to him (including the one 'most acceptable' to him)". The *latitude of acceptance* specifies the positions that he or she finds acceptable. On the other side of the continuum lies the latitude of rejection. The *latitude of rejection* represents the positions that he or she finds unacceptable. This latitude of rejection was considered essential by the social judgment theory developers in determining an individual's level of involvement and thus his/her propensity to attitude change. The greater the rejection latitude, the more involved the individual is in the issue and thus is harder to persuade. In the middle of these opposites lies the *latitude of non-commitment*, a range of viewpoints where one feels primarily indifferent. This *latitude* represents the positions that he or she finds neither acceptable nor unacceptable.

12.5. Assimilation and contrast

The latitudes determine the likelihood of assimilation and contrast. When a discrepant viewpoint is expressed in a communication message, if it falls within the person's latitude of acceptance, the message is more likely to be assimilated or viewed as being closer to the person's anchor, or own viewpoint, than it actually is. The *assimilation effect* is the judgmental distortion where one sees the persuasive message is falling closer to the anchor point than it really does. Persuasion is found to be minimal because the receiver believes that he or she already holds a similar position on the topic. The *contrast effect* is the judgmental distortion where one sees further fall of persuasive message from the anchor point than it really does. When the message is perceived as being very different from one's anchor and thus falling within the latitude of rejection, persuasion is unlikely due to a contrast effect. The contrast effect is what happens when the message is

viewed as being further away than it actually is from the anchor. Messages falling within the latitude of non-commitment, however, are the ones most likely to achieve the desired attitude change. Therefore, the more extreme stand an individual has, the greater his/her latitude of rejection and thus the harder he/she is to persuade. No persuasion is likely because the receiver believes that this message represents a view that he or she rejects outright. *Persuasion* is an attitude change toward or away from the position advocated by the persuader, which is affected by the receiver's initial judgment within the possible continuum of beliefs.

12.6. Theoretical concepts

Social judgment theory developed the concept of attitudes based on the outcomes of Own Categories Questionnaire. In this method of research participants were asked to arrange statements into categories of most acceptable, most offensive, neutral, and so on, by means of inference of their attitudes. This categorization, an observable judgment process, was seen by Sherif and Hovland as a major component of attitude formation. As a judgment process, categorization and attitude formation is a product of recurring instances so that past experiences influence decisions regarding aspects of the current situation. Therefore, attitudes are acquired. Experience, knowledge, and emotion dictate these choices. An *ordered alternatives questionnaire* is a continuum of beliefs that form the complete range of alternative positions on an issue. It is bounded by the most extreme and opposite positions possible, with a neutral position in the center, and there are usually between 7 and 11 beliefs listed. Granberg (1983) opined that some of these statements should be ambiguous in order to facilitate the detection of assimilation and contrast effects.

12.7. Ego

Researchers also assumed that extreme stands would be possible and wide range of latitudes of rejection, were a result of high ego-involvement. When an issue has intrinsic importance or significant consequences for the life of the receiver, he or she is said to be highly ego involved. As *ego* involvement goes up, the latitude of rejection to increase while the latitude of non-commitment decreases. According to Sherif and Hovland work, the level of ego-involvement depends upon whether the issue "arouses an intense attitude or, rather, whether the individual can regard the issue with some detachment as primarily a 'factual' matter". Religion, politics, and family are examples of issues that typically result in highly involved attitudes; they contribute to one's self-identity.

The concept of involvement was highlighted in the Social judgment theory. Sherif and Hovland speculated that individuals who are highly involved in an issue are more likely to evaluate all possible positions that lead to extremely limited or nonexistent latitude of non-commitment. In cases of high involvement individuals will have more restricted latitude of acceptance. Because discrepant positions are less tolerable when a person is highly involved, more messages will fall into the latitude of rejection, which under this condition is wider. This theory opined that messages falling within the latitude of rejection are unlikely to successfully persuade. Therefore, highly involved individuals will be harder to persuade.

12.8. Political Communication

The application of SJT principles to various types of communication and attempted attitude change has long history. SJT has been employed in a wide variety of contexts within the field of communication such as political communication, health communication, group communication, advertising research, public relations, and legal communication etc. O’Keefe (1990) notes that while political campaigns are quite clear in their persuasive messages to get the voters to engage in the overt behavior of voting for their candidate, they are usually more ambiguous in their messages about campaign issues. That is because candidates hope that voters will assume that the candidate’s view and the voters’ views are closer than they actually are. In this case, then, an assimilation effect is desired.

Recently, researchers have studied the *third-person effect* (TPE) in political attack ads via the lens of SJT. Paek et al. (2005) investigated whether people estimated the effects of political attack ads to be stronger on others than on themselves. With regard to political ads they predicted, that lack of credible evidence and social distance between the respondent and the third person would enhance the third-person effect. They claimed that SJT offers theoretical potential for understanding the underlying mechanisms of the TPE and seeing it as a cognitive fallacy that can be corrected through the presentation of credible and relevant information. They found that “credible information on overall message ineffectiveness leads to the reduction of estimated effects on both self and various others and in self–other perceptual gaps when the other is more distant from self.”

12.9. Health Communication

Of late SJT was also applied to health communication campaigns. Smith et al. (2006) merged the social norms approach (SNA) with SJT. SNA predicts that messages of health campaigns providing true, normative information about widely misperceived health behaviors will reduce the gap between inaccurate perceptions and actual practices. Consequently, behaviors originally based on exaggerated norms reduce misconception. At the formative evaluation stage of designing messages informed by SJT, the researcher should measure the boundaries of the latitudes of acceptance, non-commitment, and rejection for true normative information to be conveyed to an audience. This study focused on norms for moderate consumption of alcohol on a college campus, discovering that the three latitudes were significantly different from one another in believability.

SJT predicts that a campaign based on a norm falling in the latitude of non-commitment is most likely to be effective. A series of messages using the true norm, which fell within the latitude of non-commitment, were part of a year-long media-based health persuasion campaign. Subsequent survey data showed significant reductions in the gap in perceived versus actual percentage of alcohol consumption and actual versus the perceived number of drinks; moreover, self-reports of consumption of five or fewer drinks increased significantly. Therefore, using SJT as a guiding force in the message testing stage of the campaign was effective. SJT can also explain the effects of failed campaigns using persuasive messages that fell into the audience’s latitude of rejection. SJT can be assessed in terms of the criteria for a strong scientific theory. It leads to the synthesis of the known facts well and is grounded in findings generated from empirical studies. But all studies can’t be readily explained by the tenets of SJT, so it has established disconfirmation.

12.10. Summary

The theory is unique as it focuses on the assessment of the full gamut of possible positions on a persuasive topic and its delineation of the latitudes of acceptance, non-commitment, and rejection, along with the subsequent possible assimilation and contrast effects from messages aimed at these latitudes. Generally, three zones in which individuals accept or reject specific messages or attitudes are observed. In the latitude of acceptance zone individuals place attitudes, they consider acceptable. The latitude of the rejection zone is where individuals place attitudes they consider unacceptable or objectionable. In the latitude of non-commitment people places attitudes they find neither acceptable nor which are to be rejected. It is a model of judgment, which means that it declares that the audience interprets (judges) a message. SJT is relatively parsimonious: “It does not contain excess baggage”. It has not had the heuristic value of other classic persuasion theories, however.

12.11. Self assessment Questions

1. What is Social judgment theory?
2. Explain latitudes with examples
3. Does ego influence communication process? Explain.

12.12. Suggested reading

- Granberg, D. (1983). Social judgment theory. In M. Burgoon (ed.), *Communication yearbook 6*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage, pp. 304–329.
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LESSON 13

MASS SOCIETY AND MEDIA

13.0. Objective of the lesson:

The objective of this lesson is to assist you in understanding the

- Role of media in the society
- Media and society in the Indian context
- Sunshine journalism

Structure of the lesson:

13.1. Introduction

13.2. Mass Society

13.3. Mass Media

13.4. Media as the fourth estate

13.5. Media as an agenda-setter

13.6. Media as gatekeeper

13.7. Media as a watchdog

13.8. Growth of Indian media

13.9. Media regulation in India

13.10. Summary

13.11. Self assessment Questions

13.12. Suggested reading

13.1. Introduction

Mass society theory proposed by Denis Mc Quail discussed the interdependence of institutions which exercise power in the society and claims that the mass media are deemed to be integrated into sources of social power and authority. The media caters to those who are strong economically and politically. It provides information and the means of entertainment relaxation and diversion to people. The people says the media act as cause and maintainer of mass society. The theory also put forward the images of control and portrays the vertical direction of influence-from above downwards.

13.2. Mass society

In 20th-century neo-Marxist accounts, such as those of the Frankfurt School, mass society was linked to a society of alienated individuals. They were considered to be held together by a cultural industry that served the interests of capitalism. Mass society theory is heavily influenced by the work of the Frankfurt School, in particular Adorno and Horkheimer, and defends the merit of “high culture,” from what is perceived as the decaying effects of mass commoditization of culture. In spite of democratization mass society is characterized by

bonding of interlocking power elites which manipulate the masses. Culture is seen as part of the superstructure of ideas determined by society's economic base.

The Frankfurt view of the audience is monolithic, giving little or no attention to the potential for audience diversity of readings or resistance to media text. They believed in a 'magic bullet' theory of media effects, which assume the direct impact of a media message.

- It deliberately avoids empirical research as they view that positivistic science is a symptom of capitalist techno-rationality.
- Attributes excessive power to media and underrates the importance of social contexts of media consumption.

Mass society theory has been active in a wide range of media studies where it tends to produce ideal visions of what the mass media such as television and cinema are doing to the masses. Therefore, the mass media are necessary instruments for achieving and maintaining mass societies. Mass media gives rise to a national culture that washes over the traditional differences that used to set off one region from another. Mass Society theorists fear that the transformation of people of various backgrounds into a generic mass may end up dehumanizing everyone.

13.3. Mass media

After knowing the normative theories of media in length role of mass media was highlighted in a democratic society. It is established that the media have a very crucial role to play in society especially in the process of democratization. But how the role is pursued and carried out assumes critical importance. Where the media pursue the role in the face of professionalism, truth, fairness and justice, then the society immensely benefits, but when become selfish in pursuance of mainly profits and personal gains, then the society is at a disadvantage.

According to Davis, "The operation of a modern industrial democracy requires that those who purvey information provide information that is, in fact, not a judgmental distortion of reality and fact, but as accurate as humanly possible – or else a society can quickly, with the permissiveness of modern media, be thrown off balance".

Media successfully contribute to society by means of certain roles. They include

- Providing checks and balances in democracy by being the fourth estate
- Setting public agenda
- Gate-keeping role
- Watchdog role

13.4. Media as the fourth estate

The Fourth Estate was therefore derived from the old English idea of three Estates: the Lords Spiritual, the Lords Temporal, and the House of Commons. this phrase refers to the profession of Journalism. The phrase was attributed to Burke when he said that: ...there were Three Estates in Parliament; but, in the Reporters' Gallery yonder, there sat a Fourth Estate

more important than they all... This notion about media as the “Fourth Estate” rests on the idea that it acts as a guardian of public interest, and as a watchdog on the activities of government. The media are therefore important components of the controlling mechanisms and an important part of modern democracy.

According to Nash “there are all kinds of a power center in any democracy: the judiciary, the government mandarins, the elected representatives, the establishment, the business community, the unions. But...what binds it all together is the media. Only through the media can the governing communicate with the governed in any mass sense”.

As a Fourth Estate, the media guarantee the accountability of government officials and defend public interests. In these contemporary times, the media are interpreted as the fourth “power” which checks and counterbalances the “powers” of executive, legislature and judiciary.

13.5. Media as an agenda-setting

Agenda setting is one of the most important roles of the media. It is defined as the process whereby the media determine what we think and worry about. Lippmann, who first observed this function in the 1920s, pointed out that the public reacts not to actual events, but to the pictures in our heads. The effect of agenda-setting is epitomized in the famous Cohen’s quote that the press “may not be successful much of the time in telling people what to think, but it is stunningly successful in telling its readers what to think about.” The media agenda affects the public agenda, and the public agenda affects the policy agenda.

The concept of agenda-setting is for the press to selectively choose what we see or hear in the media. According to Ghorpade, “agenda-setting is a relational concept that specifies a transfer of salience from agenda primers (media) to agenda adopters (consumers).” The power of the news media to set a nation’s agenda, to focus public attention on a few key public issues, is an immense and well-documented influence. While summarizing the extent of agenda-setting influence, researchers understand the correlation between the ranking of issues on the media agenda and the ranking accorded the same issues on the public agenda. To reflect the substantial degree of influence of the media as agenda-setter, comparisons between how the issues are ranked on the media agenda and how the public ranks their importance should yield better correlations.

13.6. Media as gatekeeper

Media acts as gatekeepers at various levels in the information dissemination process in society. Gate keeping has been defined as the controlling of a strategic portion of a channel, so as to have the power of decision over whether whatever is flowing through that channel will enter the group or not. It sets up a series of checkpoints that the news has to pass through before it gets to the public. Through this process, many people have to decide whether or not the news is to be seen or heard. Gatekeepers are also considered as message filters, and they include reporters, writers, editors, producers, and even government officials. The concept involves every aspect of message selection, handling and control.

13.7. Media as a watchdog

Closely linked to the gate keeping role of the media is their watchdog role. The media are traditionally the watchdog of democracy, which is also linked to their status as the fourth

estate. The key assumption of the media as watchdog is that they speak for the people, represent the interests of the people and serve as checks on the government. Analyzing the role of media, Schuepp identifies the responsibilities of a watchdog, thus:

- (a) A watchdog has to protect his owner, give him security and react to possible outside interference with the rights of his owner.
- (b) The watchdog has to know his loyalties therefore the media have to be loyal to the society because they are the watchdog of society and not of government.
- (c) Anybody who threatens democracy, freedom of speech, the basic rights of the people, should be attacked by the watchdog.

According to Kovach, watchdog journalism at its best helps alert a community to changing circumstances affecting their lives. He further notes that the watchdog role goes beyond simple journalism of witness: ...embedded in each watchdog story are the elements of disclosure and judgment, which often point to victims and wrongdoers. By probing below and beyond surface information, by challenging assumptions and assertions, the reporting invites a civic judgment. It need not be an ill-mannered watchdog that barks too often, one that is driven by its own interests rather than by a desire to protect the public interests.

13.8. Growth of Indian media

India witnessed many rapid, unprecedented changes in social, economical and political levels in recent years. These have also transformed the Indian mass media system. The Indian media have grown rapidly in scale, reach, influence, and revenues. The growth in its scale, reach and influence, however, has not been matched by corresponding sensitivity towards non-commercial and non-market dimensions.

At least two huge barriers were identified in the Indian context where one is concerned with the internal discipline of the media and the other relates to the relation between the media and society. The first problem is that of some real laxity in professionalism in achieving accuracy, which can be harmed even without any deliberate intention to mislead or misinform. The second is the bias, often implicit, in the choice of what news to cover and what to ignore, and the way this bias relates particularly to class divisions in India.

Media platforms and devices for consumption today vary between traditional, non-conventional, and experimental. They span traditional print, audio-visual, and digital modes. Convergence between news media, entertainment and telecom has meant that the demarcation between journalism, public relations, advertising and entertainment has been eroded.

Increases in per capita income, discretionary spending capability, the attractiveness of India as a market and as a destination of foreign investment, have all reinforced the centrality of the Indian mass media system.

As a result, media outlets assume importance not only for marketing and advertisement but also for the 'soft power' aspects of business, organizations and even nations. Media entrepreneurship today is a necessary condition for any growing business enterprise, a political party, and even individuals seeking to leverage public influence for private gain.

Furthermore, the trend towards globalization has empowered individual citizens through the increased movement of goods, capital, services and ideas. Economic liberalization and the spread of digital technologies have aided it. New media have brought forth new means of individual empowerment, allowing the expression of individual ideas, opinions and identities.

13.9. Media regulation in India

Media in India is hardly controlled and officially not much regulated. Press Council of India is the sole statutory, quasi-judicial body set up for media regulation in the country. While it aims to preserve the freedom of the press and maintain and improve the standards of press in India. It can't impose any punishments on media organizations and enforce its directions for professional or ethical violations.

Mass media not regulated by government regulations the focus concept of self-regulation by the media organizations, individually or collectively is often discussed. But individual, as well as collective self-regulation, have failed. Collective self-regulation is neither universal nor enforceable and individual self-regulation has also failed due to personal predilections and the prevailing of personal interest over the public interest.

Instead of the advertisers and sponsors who determine the bulk of the revenue stream of our media industry turned out to be effective *de facto* media regulators. An informed debate on the issue of multiple ownership and cross-ownership nor a cogent national media policy that covers print, radio, television, cable, DTH platforms, video and film industry, internet, and mobile telephony is missing in the country. In most developed countries, rules on cross-ownership and multiple-ownership are intended to prevent the emergence of monopolies and cartels and promote competition. Many States in India have a few media groups dominating both the print and electronic media. At the national level, we have seen the emergence of a handful of media conglomerates spanning the entire media spectrum. This affects the molding of public opinion, generating political debate, and safeguarding consumer and public interest.

India is among the few democracies without active media watch groups engaged in objective analyses of the media, discerning prejudices and latent biases, and subjecting the media to a dose of their own medicine. For an industry that has over fifty thousand newspapers and hundreds of television channels, systematic media criticism is non-existent. What this means is that in the absence of government and industry regulation, even civil society has been unable to provide an effective *de facto* media regulatory mechanism.

13.10. Summary

The strength of Indian democracy owes a great deal to free and vibrant press. Vibrant journalism in a democracy is watchdog journalism that monitors the exercise of power in the state, stands for the rights and freedoms of citizens, and informs and empowers citizens rather than entertains and titillates them. Vibrant journalism always springs from the bedrock of professional ethics.

The structural biases such as favoring urban areas over rural ones, metropolitan areas over other urban areas, English-speaking over those speaking other Indian languages, the middle and upper classes over the others who constitute the vast majority of our citizens, and the service sectors over other areas such as agriculture affected media industry also. These biases lead to creating many types of new journalism such as public journalism, citizen journalism,

or sunshine journalism” where the focus is on the glass that is quarter-full rather than that which is three-quarters empty. When media portrayal is of a life that is always good, optimistic, going with the tide of those with discretionary spending power and their causes and pet themes, the role of the media as a defender and upholder of public interest is relegated to the background and its commercial persona takes over, replete with its allegiances to the market and the shareholders.

There is a slow erosion of the institution of the editor in Indian media organizations. When media space is treated as an asset for purpose of revenue maximization strategies, and when media products are sold as jeans or soaps for marketing purposes, editors end up giving way to marketing departments.

13.11. Self assessment Questions

1. Explain the mass society concept in the Indian context.
2. Print media has become popular with regional newspapers. Explain.
3. Mass media is an important constituent of society for development. Elucidate.

13.12. Suggested reading

Marcel, Gabriel 2008 (written in the early 1950s), *Man against Mass Society*, St. Augustines Press

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LESSON 14

MAGIC BULLET THEORY

14.0. Objective of the lesson:

The objective of this lesson is to assist you in understanding the

- Magic bullet theory
- Hypodermic needle theory

Structure of the lesson

14.1. Introduction

14.2. History

14.3 Theory

14.4 Concept

14.5 The War of the Worlds

14.6 The People's Choice

14.7 Assumptions

14.8. Factors

14.9 The Rise of Selective Exposure

14.10. Summary

14.11. Self assessment questions

14.12. Suggested reading

14.1. Introduction

The earliest theories of mass communication imagined that mass media had very strong effects on their audiences. The models illustrated how these theories saw the media message as a kind of “magic bullet.” Sent out by the organization, the magic bullets “hit” the members of the audience in their “minds” and changed their thoughts. The Magic bullet theory, sometimes referred to as the hypodermic-needle model, or transmission-belt model, suggest that an intended message is directly received and wholly accepted by the receiver. These models are rooted in 1930s behaviorism and are largely considered obsolete today. The most famous incident often cited as an example for the hypodermic needle model was the 1938 broadcast of *The War of the Worlds* and the subsequent reaction of widespread panic among its American mass audience.

14.2 History

As radio, movies and advertisements gained vast popularity between the 1930s and 1950s, the media's effects on people's behavior seemed all too apparent and, in some cases, extremely frightening. Newspaper and magazine ads spurred on American consumerism, drawing even thrifty people into glittering department stores. In the mid-1930s media, scholars found the first theory on Media Effects and Media Behaviors. During the second world War, media played a

vital role in both United States and Germany to made influence the people's minds. Adolf Hitler used the media to spread Nazi propaganda in Germany, creating a unified force bent on conquering Europe. Hitler's Nazi used the film industry for Propaganda and they produced lots of movies about their achievements which made a great impact on German's minds. Later United States of America also used its own Hollywood and produced films like "Its Happened one night", "It's a wonderful life" and Mr. Smith goes to Washington" to portray Germany as an Evil force which also made an impact in Americans Minds. President Franklin D. Roosevelt's radio speeches, known as the "fireside chats," inspired millions of citizens to support his New Deal policies in the wake of the Great Depression.

14.3 Theory

To the common observer, people truly seemed powerless to resist the messages that came from the media. For the first time, messages were crafted with the target audience in mind to achieve specific responses. During this time, behavioral scholars began to study media's effects in earnest. Hypodermic Needle Theory was one of the first models to result from these early studies. However, the theory relied on traditional inductive reasoning with observation to support it, rather than modern deductive reasoning backed by methodical testing. Scholars were still trying to establish empirical methods for testing behavioral theories at the time.

Two theories of effects "Magic Bullet Theory" "Hypodermic Needle Theory" are studied simultaneously. The media (magic gun) fired the message directly into the audience's head without their own knowledge. The message that caused the instant reaction from the audience's mind without any hesitation is called "Magic Bullet Theory". The media (needle) injects the message into the audience's mind and it causes changes in the audience's behavior and psyche towards the message. The audience is passive and they can't resist the media message is called "Hypodermic Needle Theory". Both theories dealt with the impact of media messages on the audience's mind and how the audience reacts to the message without any hesitation.

14.4. Concept

"Magic bullet" theory graphically assumes that the media's message is a bullet fired from the 'media gun' into the viewer's 'head'. Similarly, the 'hypodermic needle model' uses the same idea of the 'shooting' paradigm. It suggests that the media injects its messages straight into the passive audience. It assumes receivers as passive and defenseless and takes whatever is shot at them. The magic bullet theory also portrays that the media have direct, immediate and powerful effects on those who pay attention to their contents. The theory assumed that the mass media reach every eye and ear in the same way and brought about the same change of thought and behavior in the entire audience. This passive audience is immediately affected by these messages. The public essentially cannot escape from the media's influence, and is therefore considered a 'sitting duck'. Both models suggest that the public is vulnerable to the messages shot at them because of the limited communication tools and the studies of the media's effects on the masses at the time.

14.5 “The War of the Worlds”

One of the first pieces of evidence that the Magic Bullet Theory was too simplistic came to light during research that was conducted in the wake of Orson Welles’ famous Mercury Theatre of the Air “Martian invasion” radio broadcast in 1938. In 1938, Lazarsfeld and Herta Herzog tested the hypodermic needle theory in a radio broadcast “The War of the Worlds” (a famous comic program) by inserting a news bulletin which made a widespread reaction and panic among the American Mass audience. Through this investigation, he found that media messages may affect or may not affect the audience.

On an October evening in 1938, millions of people settled down to enjoy what had recently become a great American pastime: listening to the radio. However, that night proved to be unique. Listeners tuned in to hear an announcement that Martians had landed in New Jersey and were viciously attacking humans. Although the announcement was part of a radio adaptation of H. G. Wells’ famous novel War of the Worlds—and although listeners were warned that the broadcast was fictional panic erupted within the population. Newly formed mercury theater and Orson Wells joined together and created a fake news bulletin about alien’s invasion in an American city called Grover’s Mill, New Jersey. They broadcast this news bulletin in between the radio programmes called “The War of the Worlds”. It has reached merely 12 million American people and one million have seriously believed it. Due to this broadcast, the whole country was thrown into chaos. Some people fled homes and cities, while others rushed to purchase emergency supplies and began stockpiling food. Thousands of frantic phone calls poured into local police, firefighters and hospitals.

The incident, often referred to as the “Panic Broadcast,” was soon cited as an example of the Hypodermic Needle Theory of communication. Developed in response to the rise of mass communications and the emergence of propaganda techniques in the 1930s, Hypodermic Needle Theory implies that the media has the power to inject highly influential messages directly into passive and susceptible audiences. Since those audiences have no other sources of information by which they can compare the media’s messages, they have no choice but to act on those messages. The theory is known by other names as well: Magic Bullet Theory, Transmission-Belt Model and Hypodermic-Syringe Model.

According to the theory, anyone who listened to the broadcast should have believed that invaders from the planet Mars had landed in southern New Jersey. But, although some did believe it, most did not, and the ways in which they came to not believe were very interesting. Some listeners switched channels to see if the news was being carried elsewhere; some picked up the phone and called friends to see if they were listening and if so, to ask what they thought about it; some paid enough critical attention to the show to recognize that it was fiction.

However, this incident actually sparked the research movement, led by Paul Lazarsfeld and Heta Herzog that would disprove the magic bullet or hypodermic needle theory, as Hadley Cantril managed to show that reactions to the broadcast were, in fact, diverse, and were largely determined by situational and attitudinal attributes of the listeners.

The magic bullet theory is based on the assumption of human nature and it was not based on any empirical findings from research. Few media scholars did not accept this model because it is based on assumptions rather than any scientific evidence

14.6 “The People’s Choice”

At later stages, Lazarsfeld disproved the magic bullet theory and hypodermic needle model theory. Based on their elections studies in "The People's Choice" he tried to understand voting patterns and the relationship between the media and political power. Lazarsfeld and colleagues executed the study by gathering research during the election of Franklin D. Roosevelt in 1940. One of the first studies that disproved Hypodermic Needle Theory was “The People’s Choice,” conducted by researchers Paul Lazarsfeld and Herta Herzog in the 1940s. The study analyzed the effects of media propaganda on people’s voting decisions. Lazarsfeld and Herzog examined voting data during the 1940 election of Franklin D. Roosevelt and discovered that interpersonal sources of opinion influenced voters far more than the media did. In many cases, the media’s propaganda had no effect on the public at all.

He observed that the majority of the public remained unfazed by propaganda surrounding Roosevelt's campaign. Instead, interpersonal outlets proved more influential than the media. Therefore, Lazarsfeld concluded that the effects of the campaign were not all-powerful to the point where they completely persuaded "helpless audiences", a claim that the magic bullet, hypodermic needle model, and Lasswell asserted. These new findings also suggested that the public can select which messages affect and don't affect them. These responses clearly propounded that most people did not accept the media message at face value. Rather, they consider it and give it meaning by comparing it to their prior experiences, and in many cases, they discuss it with their families and friends before drawing conclusions.

The study proved that people could choose which messages to accept from the media, as well as determine the degree to which those messages would affect them. People weren’t the helpless, passive victims of the media as Hypodermic Needle Theory suggested. From his research, Lazarsfeld, along with Elihu Katz, developed the two-step flow model of communication, stating that the media’s messages are first received and interpreted by opinion leaders before they reach the general public. Even the “Panic Broadcast” incident used to support Hypodermic Needle Theory was re-evaluated and declared to show diverse reactions among listeners.

14.7 Assumptions

Unlike most other theories of communication, however, Hypodermic Needle Theory was not based on empirical research. Instead, it was founded on the assumption that humans, controlled by their biological nature, will react instinctively to passing stimuli in similar ways. Hypodermic Needle Theory promotes a few basic assumptions:

1. People receive information directly from the mass media and not through the Intermediary.
2. Humans react uniformly to stimuli.
3. The media’s message is directly “injected” into the “bloodstream” of a population like fluid from a syringe.
4. Messages are strategically created to achieve desired responses.

5. The effects of the media's messages are immediate and powerful, capable of causing a significant behavioral change in humans.
- 6 The public is powerless to escape from the media's influence.
7. The reaction is individual, not based on how other people might influence them
8. The audience is made up of an enormous undifferentiated mass of humanity and each member of audience would react identically to the mass mediated message.
9. The media gatekeepers are highly manipulative and somehow much cleverer than their audiences.

14.8. Factors

Several factors contributed to this "strong effects" theory of communication, including

1. The fast rise and popularization of radio and television
2. The emergence of the persuasion industries, such as advertising and propaganda,
3. The Payne Fund studies of the 1930s, which focused on the impact of motion pictures on children
4. Hitler's monopolization of the mass media during World War II to unify the German public behind the Nazi party.

The bullet theory assumed that audience was passive, waiting for the media to shoot a propaganda message into it, and would roll over in a state of docile surrender when hit, as long as the bullet was sufficiently powerful. Accordingly, researchers did not bother to study the audience. Instead, they analyzed the content of the messages, assuming that content was the secret of a successful propaganda bullet. However, the researchers were due for a surprise. The audience obstinately declined to fall under the spell of the messages. Sometimes they reacted in ways that were opposite to the propagandist's intentions or enjoyed the bombardment without allowing it to change their opinions in the slightest.

The magic bullet theory was not based on empirical findings from research but rather on assumptions of the time about human nature. People were assumed to be "uniformly controlled by their biologically based 'instincts' and that they react more or less uniformly to whatever 'stimuli' came along". As the Magic Bullet Theory was found to be false, researchers proposed alternative theories and conducted experiments to test them out. This led to the creation of new research methods, and to a sizable growth in the study of mass communication. The failure of the "Magic Bullet" theory left mass communication researchers with a puzzle. On the one hand, studies continued to find little reason to believe that mass communication was able to change people's opinions and beliefs. On the other hand, mass communication plays such a large role in the day-to-day lives of industrial societies that it seemed that it must have some kind of large impact on what people think. The conclusion we might draw from this is that the media tend to set the "agenda" the list of items that people will be discussing. Empirical research has since disproved the theory and replaced it with more sophisticated models such as Agenda-Setting Theory.

14.9 The Rise of Selective Exposure

Although Hypodermic Needle Theory was instrumental in increasing the pace of research in the areas of communication and mass media, it has since faded into obsolescence. With so many sources of information available today through a variety of media outlets, people have more control than ever over the messages that influence them. Many people now exercise selective exposure and seek only the information that supports their worldview. Though the media is still very influential today, its influence is far more complex and nuanced than in the early days of mass communication. People can now interact with the media through social networking sites and can even direct the flow of information to others. Factors such as attitudes, beliefs, education and living situation determine whether a person will accept a message from the media. Still, in spite of the media's overwhelming presence in society, the biggest source of information and influence in a person's life continues to be interpersonal relationships.

14.10. Summary

The Magic bullet theory/hypodermic-needle model proposed that a specially designed planned message is received and accepted by the receiver. The models explained as to how the media message acts as a kind of "magic bullet." The magic bullets "hit" the members of the audience in their "minds" and changed their thoughts. These models are rooted in 1930s behaviorism and are largely considered obsolete today. The most popular example for the hypodermic needle model was the 1938 broadcast of *The War of the Worlds* and the widespread panic spread among its American mass audience. But later Lazarsfeld disproved the magic bullet theory and hypodermic needle model theory. Based on the elections studies called "The People's Choice" he tried to explain the voting patterns and the relationship between the media and political power. Lazarsfeld and colleagues executed the study by gathering research during the election of Franklin D. Roosevelt in 1940. One of this first studies that disproved Hypodermic Needle Theory was conducted by researchers Paul Lazarsfeld and Herta Herzog in the 1940s. Further research has since disproved the theory and replaced it with models such as Agenda-Setting Theory.

14.11. Self assessment questions

1. Write about the concept of magic bullet and its impact.
2. Describe the importance of
3. Elaborate the study of "The people's choice".

14.12. Suggested reading

1. Communication theory; Mass communication: Magic bullet or Hypodermic needle theory of communication
<http://communicationtheory.org/magic-bullet-or-hypodermic-needle-theory-of-communication/>
2. Lasswell, H. (1927) "Propaganda technique in the world war"
3. Paul felix Lazarsfeld, Bernard Berelson, Hazel gaudet (1948). *The people's choice: how the voter makes up his mind in a presidential campaign*. Columbia University Press.

LESSON 15

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMUNICATION

15.0. Objective of the lesson:

The objectives of this lesson assist you in understanding the

- Employee/organizational communication
- Communication levels and networks

Structure of the lesson

15.1. Introduction

15.2. History

15.3. Employee/Organizational communication

15.4. Communication levels

15.5. Communication networks

15.6. Communication and Hierarchy

15.7. Communication process, networks and channels

15.8. Principles of successful internal communication

15.9. Post-Positivist Research

15.10 Summary

15.11 Self assessment questions

15.12 Suggested reading

15.1. Introduction

Organizational communication involves the intersection of two complex concepts – organization and communication. “Organizations” are social collectives, embedded in a larger environment, in which activities are coordinated to achieve individual and collective goals. Communication helps individuals and groups coordinate activities to achieve goals, and it’s vital in socialization, decision-making, problem-solving and change-management processes. The discipline of organizational communication involves a range of diverse topical interests. It is the consideration of “how the context of the organization influences communication processes and how the symbolic nature of communication differentiates it from other forms of organizational behavior”. In addition, organizational capabilities are developed and enacted through “intensely social and communicative processes”

15.2. History

As with many disciplines in communication, the study of organizational communication has been traced back many decades even to antiquity. Lost historians of the field place the beginning

of the modern discipline of organizational communication in the middle of the twentieth century. The genesis of organizational communication can be traced to influences from traditional rhetorical theory, investigations of human relations and psychology, as well as from theories of management and organizational studies. From their early years, organizational communication studies have been influenced both by theoretical frameworks from sociology, psychology, rhetoric, anthropology, and even the physical sciences, and by the ongoing practical concerns of those working in organizational settings. These cross-currents of theoretical and applied interest still influence organizational communication scholars in the twenty-first century. Redding and Tompkins (1988) identified three overlapping formative phases in the early history of Organizational communication.

The first of these, “Era of preparation.” occurred roughly between 1900 and 1950. During this time period, concerns revolved around the need for prescriptive and skills-based training that would achieve “effective” communication within organizational settings. Researchers during this period looked at ways to structure messages, make appropriate media choices (e.g., written vs oral), and send messages to the “right person” at the “right time” for business effectiveness. Tompkins and Wanca-Thibault (2001, xxi) found that research questions during this era included “What effects do downward directed mass media communications have on employees?” and “Is an informed employee a productive employee?”

The second phase (1940–1970) “Era of identification and consolidation” was also called by Redding and Tompkins as the “Applied-scientific” phase. During this time period, the discipline of organizational communication has emerged as a unique entity. It has witnessed an era of growth in this field with the development of graduate programs, the publication of seminal research articles, and recognition in professional associations. This time period was marked by attention both to prescriptive advice and understanding in scientific manner. The earlier method was named by practicing managers and is called the “empirical-prescriptive” phase. It emphasized the scientific method as central to the development of knowledge about organizational communication processes. During this time period, empirical attention was focused on communication in supervisor-subordinate relationships, communication processes leading to employee satisfaction, communication networks such as “the grapevine,” and small group decision making.

Redding and Tompkins argue that organizational communication reached “the era of maturity and innovation” in the 1970s. At this point, organizational communication was recognized as an established discipline under the larger umbrella of communication studies, with important links to a wide range of allied disciplines including “administrative science, anthropology, business communication, corporate communication, industrial-organizational psychology, management communication, organizational behavior, political science, social psychology, sociolinguistics, sociology, rhetoric, and even literary criticism”

15.3. Employee communication

When communications and interactions among employees or members of an organization are observed human dimension would be missing. In organizations, there seems to be little real understanding of the relationships between managers, among employees, and interactions between the two. It often turns out to be a weakness. Internal communication also provides

employees with important information about their jobs, organization, environment and each other. Communication can help motivate, build trust, create shared identity and spur engagement; it provides a way for individuals to express emotions, share hopes and ambitions and celebrate and remember accomplishments.

Deetz described two ways of seeing and defining internal communications. The most common approach focuses on internal communication as a “phenomenon that exists in organizations”. A second approach sees internal communication as “a way to describe and explain organizations”. Here, communication is the central process through which employees share information, create relationships, make meaning and “construct” organizational culture and values. This process is a combination of people, messages, meaning, practices and purpose and it is the foundation of modern organizations. The second perspective is gaining wider acceptance as more organizations recognize the crucial role of communication in dealing with complex issues and rapid changes in a turbulent global market.

15.4. Communication levels

In organizations fundamentally, relationships grow out of communication, and the functioning and survival of organizations are based on effective relationships among individuals and groups. In addition, organizational capabilities are developed and enacted through “intensely social and communicative processes”. Communication helps individuals and groups coordinate activities to achieve goals, and it’s vital in socialization, decision-making, problem-solving and change-management processes.

Internal communication occurs on multiple levels.

Interpersonal or face-to-face (F-T-F) communication between individuals is a primary form of communication, and for years organizations have sought to develop the speaking, writing and presentation skills of leaders, managers and supervisors.

Group-level communication occurs in teams, units and employee resource or interest groups (ERGs). In this level the focus would be on information sharing, issue discussion, task coordination, problem-solving and consensus-building.

Organizational-level communication focuses on such matters as vision and mission, policies, new initiatives and organizational knowledge and performance. These formal communications often follow a cascade approach where leaders at hierarchical levels communicate with their respective employees, though social media are changing communications at this level.

15.5. Communication networks

A network represents how communication flows in an organization. Networks can be formal and informal. In a formal communication network, messages travel through official pathways (e.g., newsletters, memos, policy statements) that reflect the organization’s hierarchy. Informal communications move along unofficial paths (e.g., the grapevine, which is now electronic, fast and multidirectional) and include rumors, opinions, aspirations and expressions of emotions. Informal communications are often interpersonal and horizontal, and employees believe they are

more authentic than formal communication. Employees and members use both networks to understand and interpret their organizations.

15.6. Communication and hierarchy

Communications also can be described as vertical, horizontal, or diagonal. Vertical communication can be downward—flowing down the hierarchy of an organization—or upward, i.e., moving from lower to higher levels in the chain of command. Horizontal communication refers to communication among persons who have no hierarchical relationship, such as three supervisors from different functions. Diagonal or Omni directional communication occurs among employees at different levels and in different functions, e.g., a quality control supervisor, accountant and systems analyst. Evolving organizational structures and technologies create opportunities for new and conflicting communication flows. Studies regarding the effectiveness of communication flow often reveal employee dissatisfaction with both downward and upward communications. Findings by the Opinion Research Corporation, which has examined employee perceptions of internal communication for more than 50 years, generally show that more than half of employees are dissatisfied or somewhat dissatisfied with both downward and upward communications. Less is known about the effectiveness of horizontal and diagonal communications.

15.7. Communication process, networks and channels

Internal communication is a complex and dynamic process, but early models focused on a one-way transmission of messages. Earlier Shannon Weaver's S-M-C-R model later Berlo's model emphasized relationships between source and receiver and suggested that the more highly developed the communication knowledge and skills of sources and receivers, the more effectively the message would be encoded and decoded. He also acknowledged the importance of the culture in which communication occurs. Later models emphasized the transactional nature of the process and how individuals, groups and organizations construct meaning and purpose. Today, the model is more complex due to new media and high-speed, multi-directional communication. However, the core components live on in informal communications planning and implementation. Organizational leaders and communication specialists first develop strategies to achieve objectives, construct relevant messages and then transmit them through diverse channels to stimulate conversations with employees and members. Increasingly, formal communications are grounded in receivers' needs and concerns. Employees communicate informally with others inside and outside the organization through high-speed communications, too

15.8. Principles of successful internal communication

Effective internal communication is hard work, but research findings and case studies point to some practices and principles which seem crucial to successful internal communications for organizations, employees and members.

Timeliness. Providing timely and relevant information to individuals, through channels they use and trust, and in the language they understand, remains the basis for successful and strategic internal communications.

Content. Content should provide context and rationale for changes or new initiatives as they relate to the organization, but especially to the relative performance or requirements of employees in local work units. This underlines the importance of the supervisor's front-line role in communication.

Communication channels. In organizations, various channels are used for communication. They are categorized as print, electronic, or F-T-F (interpersonal). Common print channels include memos, brochures, newsletters, reports, policy manuals, annual reports and posters.

New technologies have spurred the use of electronic channels, e.g., email and voice mail, Intranets, blogs, podcasts, chat rooms, business TV, video conferencing, instant messaging systems, wikis and electronic town-hall meetings. Face-to-face channels include speeches, team meetings, focus groups, brown bag lunches, social events and gatherings and management by wandering around.

According to Harris and Nelson, the most used channel is listening, which consumes about half of our communication time. Effective listening helps leaders to improve employee morale, retain employees and uncover and resolve problems. Yet, many studies suggest that most people are not good listeners, and few organizations devote resources to developing listening skills in managers and leaders.

Face-to-face communication is the richest medium and is specifically useful to resolve conflicts or crises, communicate major changes and celebrate accomplishments.

Excellent listening skills reduce errors and misunderstanding, help uncover problems, save time, improve evaluations and facilitate relationship building especially among leaders at all levels in organizations is crucial.

Communicators should blend new and traditional media in ways that help organizations best achieve their goals and enhance relationships with internal and external publics. Social media are fast and powerful dialogue-creating channels that can empower and engage employees and members. They influence and alter traditional media and their uses, but don't eliminate them.

Leaders role. The CEO or senior leader(s) must be a visible and open champion for internal communication. The communication style of leaders should invite open, ongoing and transparent discussion so that people are willing to voice their opinions and suggestions. The actions of leaders at all levels must match their words. This promotes credibility, trust among employees and commits them to follow leaders.

Professional communicators. Professional communicators must see themselves as internal experts on communication who serve as facilitators and counselors to executives and managers and provide strategic support for business plans. They must also be organizational experts and have a better understanding of the organization's structures, challenges and objectives, as well as understand employee issues, needs, marketplace requirements and realities.

Employee's Participation. Encouraging employee participation in decision-making builds loyalty and commitment and improves the overall climate for communication. Participative

decision-making also often improves the quality of decisions. Recognizing and celebrating achievements at all levels helps build shared values and organizational identity. Social events, rites and rituals contribute to and reflect an organization's distinctive culture.

Culture. Ongoing two-way communication is the foundation for employee motivation and organizational success. Two-way (now every-way) communication provides continuous feedback, which is crucial to learning and to processing organizational change.

15.9. Post-Positivist Research

Organizational communication reached "maturity" in the 1970s. Early examples of post-positivist research in organizational communication included extensive attention to topics such as supervisor-subordinate communication, semantic information distance, information flow, upward and downward feedback in the organization, communication climate, and prescribed and emergent communication networks. During the 1970s and 1980s, "systems" perspectives on organizational communication became particularly prevalent. In the final decades of the twentieth century and continuing into the twenty-first, organizational communication research with a post-positivist epistemological and methodological focus has continued. Many organizational communication scholars embrace modified realist stances or more complex ontologies of social constructionism.

Second, post-positivist scholars in organizational communication today advocate and use much more sophisticated methodological choices, including over-time analysis (e.g., stochastic analysis, time-series analysis; longitudinal analysis), complex analysis of communication networks and computer modeling of organizational communication systems.

Third, post-positivist scholars in organizational communication today are engaged with crucial questions that face individuals and organizations in the late modern and postmodern world. These questions include issues of advanced communication and decision-making technologies, issues of globalization, alternative organizational structures and non-profit organizations, and self-organizing systems.

The Interpretive Turn

Burrell and Morgan's (1979) publication of *Sociological paradigms and organizational analysis* systematized the study of organizations to include alternatives to the dominant paradigm of functional analysis. Within organizational communication, however, the "interpretive turn" is most often traced to a conference held in the summer of 1981 in Alta, Utah. During that summer a group of young communication scholars met in a mountain retreat just south of Salt Lake City to consider where the field had been and where it should now be going. A graduate shift in organizational communication from attention to information flow and the forces shaping members' attitudes dominant before the conference . . . to an increased concern with meaning, interpretation, and power in organizing processes afterward is observed.

The interpretive turn also led to a shift in the conceptualization of "organization" and "communication." and considered the role of communication in processes of organizing and sense-making (Weick 1979). This era was also marked by the emergence of interest in a number

of research topics. Perhaps the most important of these in the 1980s was “organizational culture.”

The Critical Turn

During the same time period as the “interpretive turn” in organizational communication studies, many scholars were also turning to a critical approach to organizational communication in which organizations were viewed as systems of power and control.

In organizational communication research, the critical scholarship can be traced to a number of intellectual origins, including Karl Marx’s attention to the commodification of labor and processes of alienation, Frankfurt School critics and their attention to cultural control, Louis Althusser’s attention to the political function of ideology, and Antonio Gramsci’s arguments regarding hegemony and control through consent. Organizational communication scholars also rely heavily on Jürgen Habermas’s work on forms of rationality and communicative competence, Michel Foucault’s discursive approach to power, and Anthony Giddens’s structuration conceptions of the relationship between agency and structure.

With the critical turn in organizational communication scholarship also came a move to feminist sensibilities and scholarship. Ashcraft (2005) argues that feminist research in organizational communication has roots in both the critical turn in social theory and research and the political activism that has served as the heart of feminism in all of its various waves. As Ashcraft (2005, 145) states, “whereas critical organizational scholars prioritized emancipation through ideology critique, feminists literally grounded their emancipator interest in the trenches of practice.”

The critical turn in the discipline of organizational communication has also been associated in recent years with the emergence of postmodern theorizing. Postmodern approaches to organizational communication can be seen through two contrasting lenses. First, postmodern approaches differentiate organizations and communication in the modern epoch (e.g., centralized authority, mass markets, formalization, rationality, standardization, and stability) from the postmodern epoch (e.g., lateral relationships, fragmented and niche markets, consensus-based control, interactivity, and change).

Contemporary Frames

There are a number of ways that current theory and research in organizational communication have been categorized. For example, Conrad and Haynes (2001) identified five “clusters of scholarship” within organizational communication in terms of their underlying concerns with aspects of the dualism between action and structure. Some research privileges structure over action, such as research on information exchange and supervisor-subordinate relationship. Other research privileges action over structure, such as work considering the emergence of culture, symbolism, or ambiguity. Conrad and Haynes also identified clusters of scholarship that attempt to integrate action and structure (e.g., work stemming from Giddens’s structuration theory, considerations of unobtrusive control and identification, and critical theory), as well as research that crosses organizational boundaries and challenges traditional constructs from the 1980s and 1990s.

Mumby and Stohl (1996) identified four central “problematics” within the study of organizational communication. These are the problematics of voice, rationality, organization, and the organization–environment relationship. These problematics highlight the ways in which researchers question traditional ways of thinking about organizational communication and embed their interests in current concerns. For example, pressures toward globalization point to the fluid nature of the organization–environment relationship and the ways in which time and space are reconfigured through new technologies, new organizational forms, and the shifting needs of a global economy. Putnam et al. (1996) provide a particularly insightful framework for considering contemporary theory and research in organizational communication. This framework considers the metaphors of communication and organization and highlights the varying ways the concepts of “organization” and “communication” are framed by theorists and researchers.

15.10 Summary

Like many disciplines in communication, the significance of organizational communication has been established long back itself. From to antiquity modern contemporary times this discipline of organizational communication has updated continuously. The genesis of organizational communication can be traced to influences from traditional rhetorical theory, investigations of human relations and psychology, as well as from theories of management and organizational studies. Organizational communication is the outcome of the intersection of concepts of Organization and communication. Organization is a social collective, in which activities are coordinated to achieve individual and collective goals. Communication helps individuals and groups coordinate activities to achieve goals, and it is vital in socialization, decision-making, problem-solving and change-management processes. The discipline of organizational communication involves a range of diverse topical interests. It is the consideration of “how the context of the organization influences communication processes and how the symbolic nature of communication differentiates it from other forms of organizational behavior”. In addition, organizational capabilities are developed and enacted through “intensely social and communicative processes”

15.11 Self assessment Questions

1. Explain the concept of employee communication.
2. Differentiate between horizontal and vertical communication
3. Write about the concept of management in organizations and the importance of communication.

15.12 Suggested Reading

Ashcraft, K. L. (2005). Feminist organizational communication studies: Engaging gender in public and private. In S. May & D. K. Mumby (eds.), *Engaging organizational communication theory and research: Multiple perspectives*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, pp. 141–169.

Deetz, S. (2005). Critical theory. In S. May & D. K. Mumby (eds.), *Engaging organizational communication theory and research: Multiple perspectives*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, pp. 85–111.

- Farace, R. V., Monge, P. R., & Russell, H. M. (1977). *Communication and Organizing*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Goldhaber, G. M., & Barnett, G. A. (eds.) (1988). *Handbook of organizational communication*.
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- Putnam, L. L., Phillips, N., & Chapman, P. (1996). Metaphors of communication and organization. In S. R. Clegg, C. Hardy, & W. R. Nord (eds.), *Handbook of organization studies*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, pp. 375–408.
- Redding, W. C., & Tompkins, P. K. (1988). *Organizational communication: Past and present tenses*.

LESSON 16

CULTIVATION THEORY

16.0. Objectives of the lesson

The objective of this lesson is to assist you in understanding the

- Meaning and definition of cultivation
- Scope of cultivation in mass Communication
- Role of mass media in cultivation of cognitive tendencies

Structure of the lesson

16.1. Introduction

16.2. History of Cultivation

16.3. Theoretical Framework

16.4. Cultural Indicators Project

16.5. Message and Culture

16.6. Effects

16.7. New technologies

16.8. Criticism

16.9. Summary

16.10. Self assessment Questions

16.11. Suggested reading

16.1. Introduction

Mass media, especially television, transform the cultural process of storytelling into a centralized, advertiser-sponsored system that now tells most of the stories to most of the people, most of the time. Most of the stories are not hand-crafted works of individual expressive artists but in a massive scale produced by bureaucracies according to strict market specifications. The commercial imperatives of television require it to produce stories that reflect and thereby sustain and cultivate – the “facts” of life that most people take for granted. Cultivation theory, developed by George Gerbner and his colleagues, proposes that television viewing makes an independent contribution to the audience’s conceptions of social reality. The central hypothesis guiding cultivation research is that the more time people spend watching television, the more their beliefs and assumptions about life and society will be congruent with the most stable and repetitive messages found in television’s programs.

16.2. History of Cultivation

The theory of cultivation emphasizes the role that storytelling plays in the lifelong process of socialization. The stories of any culture constitute lessons that reflect and cultivate that culture's most basic, fundamental, and often invisible assumptions, ideologies and values. Great portions of what we know come not from personal or direct experience, but from many modes of storytelling. Stories, myths, legends, soap operas, cop shows tend to express and reproduce (i.e., cultivate) a culture's central beliefs about what exists, what is real, normal, good and bad, and what different types of people can expect in life. Early cultivation research was concerned with television violence. Later the investigation expanded to include sex roles, images of aging, political orientations, environmental attitudes, science, health, religion, minorities, occupations, and other topics. Replications have been carried out in Argentina, Australia, England, Germany, Hungary, Israel, the Netherlands, Russia, South Korea, Sweden, Taiwan, and elsewhere. Earlier studies looked at whether individual messages or genres could produce some kind of change in audience attitudes and behaviors. In contrast, cultivation sees the totality of television's programs and asked as to whether that system might promote stability rather than an immediate change in individuals.

16.3. Theoretical Framework

Cultivation theory is not concerned with the impact of a particular program(s) or genre(s). It does not address questions of artistic quality, realism, or individual viewers' "readings" of media messages. It emphasizes on aggregate patterns of images and representations to which entire communities are exposed over long periods of time. Cultivation does not deny the existence or importance of selective viewing, individual programs or differences in interpretations. It focuses on what is most broadly shared, in common, across program types and among large groups of heterogeneous viewers. Thus, Cultivation Theory argues that the systemic consequences of television as technology and institution cannot be found in terms of isolated fragments of the whole. It discusses the broad-based ideological consequences of a commercially supported cultural industry celebrating consumption, materialism, individualism, power, and the status quo along lines of gender, race, class, and age. The fact that some programs may contain some specific messages more than others, that not all viewers watch the same programs, or that the messages may change over time has also been accepted.

16.4. Cultural Indicators Project

The theory of cultivation has been prominent in communication research, Cultivation theory also referred to as the cultivation hypothesis or cultivation analysis was developed by Professor George Gerbner, Dean of the Annenberg School of Communications at the University of Pennsylvania. He started the "Cultural Indicators" project and has generated more information about the "effects". Cultivation theory was established as a component of the Cultural Indicators project, a long-term research program that began in the late 1960s. Each year, starting in 1967, the Cultural Indicators project content analyzed a week-long sample of US network television drama in order to delineate selected features and trends in the overall world television presents to its viewers. In the 1990s, the analysis was extended to new networks, channels, and genres. The project followed a three-pronged research strategy.

- The first stage, called "institutional process analysis," investigates power roles in media industries and the pressures and constraints that affect how media messages are selected and produced.

- The second, called “message system analysis,” quantifies and tracks the most common and recurrent elements in television content.
- The third, “Cultivation Analysis”, studies how television viewing relates to viewers’ conceptions of social reality.

Throughout, message system analysis focused on the most pervasive content patterns that are common to many different types of programs but characteristic of the system of programming as a whole, because these hold the most significant potential lessons television cultivates. The findings from the message system analyses are used to formulate questions about people’s conceptions of social reality, often contrasting television’s “reality” with some other real-world criterion. Survey questions are posed to samples of children, adolescents, or adults, and the differences (if any) in the beliefs of light, medium, and heavy viewers, other things held constant, are assessed.

16.5. Message and Culture

Cultivation is not a linear, unidirectional “effect,” but part of a dynamic, ongoing process of interaction among messages and contexts. Cultivation researchers argue that these messages of power, dominance, and victimization cultivate relatively restrictive and intolerant views regarding personal morality and freedoms, women’s roles, and minority rights. Rather than stimulating aggression, cultivation theory contends that heavy exposure to television violence cultivates insecurity, mistrust, and alienation, and a willingness to accept repressive measures in the name of security, all of which help in maintaining the prevailing hierarchy of social power. Television viewing relates in different ways to different groups’ of life situations and worldviews. For example, personal interaction with family and peers make a difference, as do real-world experiences. A wide variety of socio-demographic and individual factors produce sharp variations in cultivation patterns. These differences often illustrate a phenomenon called “mainstreaming,” which means that heavy television viewing may erode the differences in people’s perspectives which stem from other factors and influences. Mainstreaming represents a relative homogenization of otherwise divergent viewers.

This concept of cultivation promoted the idea that television has become the primary common source of the everyday culture of an otherwise heterogeneous population. It leads to blurring of cultural, political, social, regional, and class-based distinctions, the blending of attitudes into the television mainstream, and the bending of the direction of that mainstream to the political and economic tasks of the medium and its client institutions. It was also established that TV provides a relatively restricted set of choices for a virtually unrestricted variety of interests and publics; its programs eliminate boundaries of age, class, and region and are designed by commercial necessity to be watched by nearly everyone.

16.6. Effects

Cultivation theorists argue that television has long-term effects which are small, gradual, indirect but cumulative and significant. Cultivation theorists distinguish between ‘first order’ effects (general beliefs about the everyday world, such as about the prevalence of violence) and ‘second order’ effects (specific attitudes, such as to law and order or to personal safety).

The findings of the project explained that the prominent and stable over-representation of well-off white males in the prime of life pervades prime time. Women are outnumbered by men at a rate of two or three to one and allowed a narrower range of activities and

opportunities. The dominant white males are more likely to commit violence, while old, young, female, and minority characters are more likely to be victims. Crime in primetime is at least 10 times as rampant as in the real world, and an average of five to six acts of overt physical violence per hour involve well over half of all major characters.

Viewing patterns. Those who watch four or more hours a day are labeled heavy television viewers and those who view less than four hours per day. According to Gerbner heavy viewers are those who watch TV for more than four hours have been ‘cultivating’ attitudes that make them to believe that the world created by television is the real world. The theory suggests that prolonged watching of television can tend to induce a certain paradigm about violence in the world. Gerbner and his colleagues claimed that heavy exposure to television cultivates exaggerated beliefs about the amount of violence in society, along with a sense of insecurity, victimization, and interpersonal mistrust. This cluster of attitudes is referred to as the “Mean World Syndrome”. In a nutshell, heavy viewing of television and the associated violence leads the viewer to believe that the world is a much more dangerous place than it actually is, with a serial killer, rapist, or pedophile lurking around every corner. The overuse of television, thus, according to Gerbner, is creating a homogeneous and fearful populace.

Resonance. The cultivation theorists have also found evidence for what they call resonance. It stresses upon the feeling that the respondent’s real-life experiences are congruent with those of the Television world, thereby leading to a greater Cultivation effect. Resonance describes that the intensified effect is the resultant of two factors i.e. what people see on television and what they experienced in life. This double dose of the televised message tends to amplify the cultivation effect.

16.7. New Technologies

Cultivation theory was developed when television viewing in the United States was dominated by three broadcast networks. Yet, in the early twenty-first century, all US broadcast networks combined attract less than 50 percent of prime-time viewers, and the audience is divided among dozens of specialized cable and satellite channels devoted to specific interests. With the spread of VCRs, digital video recorders, digital broadcasting, video-on-demand, and pay-per-view, along with the ability to download programs on the Internet, mobile phones, and portable music players, audiences now seem to be able to choose from an extraordinary range of diverse content, watching whatever they want whenever they want, in ways that contradict many assumptions of cultivation.

16.8. Criticism

Cultivation theory has been a highly controversial and provocative approach; the results of cultivation research have been many, varied, and often contested. The assumptions and procedures of cultivation analysis have been vigorously criticized on theoretical and methodological grounds. Extensive debates and colloquies continue to engage the scholarly community and have led to a wide variety of refinements and extensions. Some researchers have sought cognitive explanations for how television images are processed, stored, and retrieved within viewers’ heads. A broad range of intervening processes has been examined (e.g., the role of perceived reality, active vs passive viewing, the family and the social context of exposure). Some have criticized the assumption of relative stability in program content over time and across genres and emphasized the differential and specific impacts of exposure to different programs and types. The spread of non broadcast alternative delivery systems such as cable, satellite, and VCRs has been taken into account, and cultivation has been

adapted to the virtual worlds of video games. The most common conclusion, supported by meta-analysis, is that television makes a small but significant contribution to viewers' beliefs about the world. It has been established that even in light viewers' substantial cumulative exposure lead to cultivation. A systematic pattern of small but consistent differences between light and heavy viewers indicated far-reaching consequences.

16.9. Summary

Based on the work of George Gerbner in the 1970s, cultivation analysis looks at the relationship between audiences and how they perceive reality, based on what they have seen or continue to watch on television (Borchers, 47). Gerbner created cultivation theory from his cultivation hypothesis, which states his attempts to understand how "heavy exposure to cultural imagery will shape a viewer's concept of reality", with reference to the viewing of television commercials and programming. Gardner, Dean at The Annenberg School of Communications at the University of Pennsylvania continued his research in cultivation theory over the years. Cultivation theorists argue that television has long-term effects which are small, gradual, indirect, but cumulative and significant. Heavy watching of TV is seen as "Cultivating" attitudes that are more consistent with the world of television programs than with the everyday world. Watching TV may tend to induce a general mindset about violence in the world.

Gerbner argues that the mass media cultivate attitudes and values which are already present in culture; the media maintain and propagate these values amongst members of a culture, thus binding it together. Cultivation research looks at the mass media as a socializing agent and investigates whether TV viewers come to believe the television version of reality the more they watch it. Cultivation theory presents TV as "not a window or reflection of the world, but a world in itself". Heavy viewers tend to believe the world is a nastier place than do light viewers.

16.10. Self assessment Questions

1. Explain the background of cultivation analysis
2. Write about the stages of the cultivation experiment.
3. Differentiate between heavy and small consumption of mass media usage.
4. Discuss the impact of new technology in Cultivation.

16.11. Suggested reading

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LESSON 17

AGENDA-SETTING

17.0. Objective of the lesson

The objective of this lesson is to assist you in understanding the

- Definition of Agenda
- Types of agenda
- Agenda- setting, framing

Structure of the lesson

17.1. Introduction

17.2. History of Agenda-setting

17.3. Agenda Setting and Mass media

17.4. Study of Agenda

17.5. Second Level of Agenda Setting

17.6. Agenda Setting and Framing

17.7. Summary

17.8. Self assessment questions

17.9. Suggested reading

17.1. Introduction

One of the most oft-cited approaches to studying media effects that emerged in the early 1970s is known as the agenda-setting effect (or function) of mass media. University of North Carolina journalism professors Maxwell McCombs and Donald Shaw first tested empirically in the 1968 US presidential election. It originally focused on the ability of the mass media to tell the public what to think *about* rather than *what* to think. This was quite different from previous media effects studies that had focused on what people thought (their opinions and attitudes) and on behaviors such as voting and purchasing various goods and services.

17.2. History of Agenda-setting

In 1963 Bernard Cohen, author of *The Press and Foreign policy*, wrote that the press “may not be successful much of the time in telling people what to think, but it is stunningly successful in telling its readers what to think *about*”. In their original 1968, Maxwell McCombs and Donald Shaw studied the role of media in the presidential election campaign in Chapel Hill, North Carolina. And published in *Public Opinion Quarterly* in the summer of 1972. McCombs and Shaw quoted from Kurt and Gladys Lang’s chapter on the mass media and voting in Bernard Berelson’s *Reader in public opinion and communication*. The theory explained the correlation between the rate at which media tells a story and the extent the people think that this story is important. This correlation has repeatedly been shown to occur. “The mass media focus attention on certain issues. They build up public images of political

figures. They are constantly presenting objects suggesting what individuals in the mass should think about, know about, have feelings about”.

17.3. Agenda Setting and Mass media

The failure of the “Magic Bullet” theory left mass communication researchers with a puzzle. On the one hand, studies continued to find little reason to believe that mass communication was able to change people’s opinions and beliefs. On the other hand, mass communication plays such a large role in the day-to-day lives of industrial societies that it seemed that it must have some kind of large impact on what people think. In recent decades media researchers have been able to demonstrate an indirect, but nonetheless powerful, the connection between what the news media presents and what people think. This connection has been named Agenda Setting. Communication researchers investigated the relationship between the top stories in the news and “what people are talking about,” found that stories tend to appear in the news somewhat prior to their becoming widely discussed among the public at large. The conclusion drawn from this is that the media tend to set the “agenda” of the list of items that people will be discussing. Thus, the power of the media may lie not in its ability to sway people’s opinions, but rather in its role of determining what issues will be considered important enough to discuss. Agenda setting connects the constant use of the media in our society with the results of studies that show that most people form their opinions and beliefs based on face-to-face communication with others. It has become a widely accepted theory of mass communication.

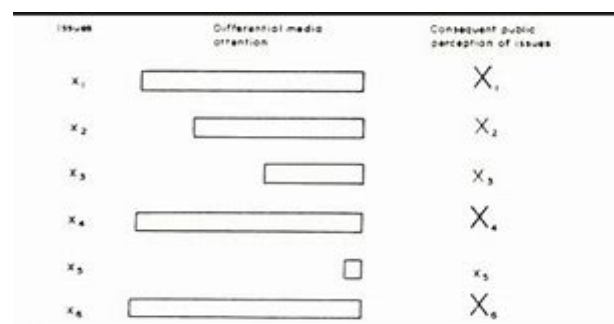


Figure 11

To empirically test this Agenda-Setting effect of mass media, McCombs and Shaw’s content analyzed four local newspapers. Later they compared the rankings of the key issues covered by these news media with the opinions of voters. They conducted a survey and elicited respondents’ answers to the questions by asking them what they were most concerned about at the time (the two or three main things that they thought the government should concentrate on doing something about). This study identified a few very strong correlations between the rankings of issues by the media and by the public leading to the conclusion that the public learns not only about a given issue but also how much importance to attach to that issue from the amount of information in news reports and its position.

Since this initial study of media agenda setting, there have been several hundred studies carried out by scholars in the US and other countries such as Germany, Great Britain, Israel, Italy, Japan, the Netherlands, Spain, Taiwan, and others and concluded the impact of various agendas. The agenda was considered to be of three types.

- **Public Agenda:** Most of the studies have focused the first type wherein the relationship between news media ranking of issues (by amount and

prominence of coverage) and public rankings of the perceived importance of these issues in various surveys was established. Dearing and Rogers (1996) called this type of research that a *Public Agenda-setting*.

- **Media agenda:** It was different from the studies that are concerned mainly with the causes of changes in the media agenda and called as *media agenda setting*
- **Policy agenda:** This type of agenda-setting denotes the impact of media agendas on public policy agendas.

The evidence from scores of such public agenda-setting studies is mixed. But on the whole, it tends to support a positive correlation and often a causal relationship between media agendas and public agendas at the aggregate (or group) level. Especially for relatively unobtrusive issues that do not directly impact the lives of the majority of the public, such as foreign policy and government scandal. At the individual level, the evidence is not as strong. The individual rank orders of issues are not necessarily the same as the aggregate ranking compiled from many individual answers to the question about the most important issue facing the country (or state or city or community).

17.4. Study of agendas

In addition to examining the relationships between media and public agendas at the aggregate and individual levels, it is also possible to study single issues over time using either aggregate (group) or individual-level data. McCombs (2004) has described these four different approaches (entire agenda, aggregate level; entire agenda, individual level; single issue, aggregate level; and single issue, individual level) in terms of a four-cell typology, which he calls the Acapulco typology because it was first presented at the annual conference of the He calls the first perspective (studying an entire agenda at the aggregate or group level) “competition” because it examines an array of issues competing for media and public attention. It was the approach used in the original 1968 Chapel Hill study, and it has been the most common approach employed in agenda-setting research since that time. It has also yielded notably stronger correlations between media and public agendas than studies using individual-level data to compare media and individual persons’ agendas (an approach that McCombs calls “automaton”). He notes that another way of thinking about his approach is in terms of the ability of the news media to mobilize a constituency public for a particular issue.

Probably the second most common approach to studying agenda setting has been the use of aggregate data to study media coverage and public concern about single issues over time (an approach that McCombs calls “natural history”). Using media content and aggregate public opinion data over time, it is possible to track the rise and fall of media attention to and public concern over particular issues and to get a sense of whether increased media attention precedes, coincides with, or follows an increase in public concern essential information for inferring a causal relationship.

Using this approach Funkhouser (1973), correlated news media coverage of major issues during the 1960s with public opinion and real-world conditions during the decade. It is also possible with this approach to see if the relationship between media attention and public concern over a particular is linear or nonlinear. It is something that has been explored in relatively few agenda-setting studies. William Gonzenbach and Lee McGavin on a methodological analysis of agenda setting in McCombs et al. 1997, explored the use of time-series analysis in studying agenda setting and cites several studies employing nonlinear

analysis by David Fan, Jonathan (Jian-Hua) Zhu, and Russell Neuman. The methods of nonlinear approaches can be seen in the equations and analysis of some agenda-setting studies, and that one of the most significant contributions of agenda-setting research is to take a leading role in re-examining assumptions about linear relationships.

One of the earliest and most thorough studies to do this was by Hans-Bernd Brosius and Hans Mathias Kepplinger (1992), who questioned the linearity assumption of much agenda-setting research and who proposed four nonlinear models of the relationship of media coverage and public opinion. They are *threshold* - a certain level of media attention is necessary to affect public concern); *acceleration* - public concern increases or decreases faster than media coverage); *inertia* - public concern increases or decreases at a slower rate than media coverage); *echo* -unusual peaks in media coverage have long-term effects on public concern. The third perspective or approach to studying agenda setting is to use individual-level public data to study a single issue over time. It has been called “*cognitive portrait*” by McCombs (2004) and is less common than the natural history approach using aggregate public data. Examples of the cognitive portrait approach include experimental studies in which the salience of a single issue for each individual person is measured before and after exposure to news programs where the amount of exposure to various issues is controlled. Shanto Iyengar has done a number of these studies in this area. With a cross-sectional and longitudinal analysis of individual differences Jian-Hua Zhu, William Boroson has also analyzed single issues over time by disaggregating public opinion data by educational and income levels. This approach seems to have fallen in between the natural history and cognitive portrait approaches.

The fourth approach, called “*automaton*,” has been the least studied. It involves comparing entire rankings of issues for each individual person with various media rankings of issues, and typically these correlations are much lower than those found when comparing an aggregate ranking of issues with media rankings. This is not surprising because it would be a return to a “hypodermic needle” or very powerful media effects model that has not received much support from empirical studies since 1940s.

17.5. Second Level of Agenda Setting

In majority of studies to date, the unit of analysis on each agenda is an *object*, a public issue. But objects have *attributes* or characteristics. When the news media report on public issues or political candidates, they describe these objects. Due to the limited capacity of the news agenda, however, journalists can only present a few aspects of any object in the news. A few attributes are prominent and frequently mentioned, some are given passing notice, and many others are omitted. In short, news reports also present an agenda of attributes that vary considerably in salience. Similarly, when people talk about and think about these objects – public issues, political candidates, etc. The attributes ascribed to these objects also vary considerably in their salience.

These agendas of attributes have been called “the second level” of agenda-setting to distinguish them from the first level, which has traditionally focused on issues (objects), although the term “level” implies that attributes are more specific than objects, which is not necessarily true. The perspectives and frames that journalists employ draw attention to certain attributes of the objects of news coverage, as well as to the objects themselves.

17.6. Agenda Setting and Framing

Tankard et al. (1991, 3) have described a media frame as “the central organizing idea for news content that supplies a context and suggests what the issue is through the use of selection, emphasis, exclusion and elaboration.” Entman (1993, 52) argues that “to frame is to select some aspects of a perceived reality and make them more salient in a communicating text, in such a way as to promote a particular problem definition, causal interpretation, moral evaluation and/or treatment recommendation for the item described”.

McCombs has suggested that in the language of the second level of agenda-setting, “framing is the selection of a restricted number of thematically related attributes for inclusion on the media agenda when a particular object is discussed.” He argues that there are many other agendas of attributes besides aspects of issues and traits of political candidates, and a good theoretical map is needed to bring some order to the vastly different kinds of frames discussed in various studies. This he sees as a major challenge and opportunity for agenda-setting theory in its exploration of the second level. Not all scholars agree that second-level agenda setting is equivalent to framing, at least not to more abstract, or macro-level, framing. Gamson (1992) has conceived of framing in terms of a “signature matrix” that includes various condensing symbols (catch-phrases, tag lines, exemplars, metaphors, depictions, visual images) and reasoning devices (causes and consequences, appeals to principles or moral claims). Some would argue that second-level agenda setting is more similar to the first part of this matrix than to the second because it is easier to think of condensing symbols as attributes of a given object, but more difficult to think of reasoning devices as attributes.

Nevertheless, there are similarities between second-level agenda setting and framing, even if they are not identical processes. Both are more concerned with how issues or other objects (people, groups, organizations, countries, etc.) are depicted in the media than with what issues or objects are most (or least) emphasized. Both focus on the most salient or prominent aspects or themes or descriptions of the objects of interest. Both are concerned with ways of thinking rather than objects of thinking, and with the details of the pictures in our heads rather than the broader subjects. But one primary difference between the two approaches, in addition to those mentioned above, is that second-level agenda-setting research has been more concerned with the relationship between media and audience ways of thinking than has framing research, which has concentrated more on how the media cover and present various subjects.

17.7. Summary

In the dissatisfaction of the magic bullet theory, Maxwell McCombs and Donald Shaw introduced agenda-setting theory in the *Journal Public Opinion Quarterly*. The theory was derived from their study that took place in Chapel Hill, NC, where the researchers surveyed few undecided voters during the 1968 presidential campaign on what they thought were key issues and measured that against the actual media content. The ranking of issues was almost identical. The conclusions matched their hypothesis: The mass media positioned the agenda for public opinion by emphasizing specific topics. Subsequent research on agenda-setting theory provided evidence for the cause-and-effect chain of influence being debated by critics in the field.

Agenda Setting: Agenda setting is giving priorities to alternative policy issues. Whereas early communications studies had shown a mixed picture about the ability of media to influence opinion on a given issue, Cohen (1963) and others showed that the media had a

much greater capacity to influence which issues were perceived as important. That is, the media agenda (policy rankings by importance in the media) influences both the public agenda (rankings in opinion surveys) and the policy agenda (rankings in legislative bodies). The study demonstrated a cause-and-effect relationship between media agenda and public agenda. Since the theory's conception, more than 350 studies have been performed to test the theory. The theory has evolved beyond the media's influence on the public's perceptions of issue salience to political candidates and corporate reputation.

Framing: The importance and interpretation people attach to potential items on the public agenda are strongly influenced by how the media present news stories. Entman (2004), for instance, attributes differential foreign policy perceptions to how the media cheered American victories in Grenada and Panama but took scant note of the success of far more difficult missions in Haiti and Kosovo. Another example cited by Entman is the media labeling an incident in which a U.S.S.R aircraft shot down a civilian aircraft as an "attack," while labeling as a "tragedy" a similar incident in which an American aircraft shot down a civilian Iran Air airplane. Earlier work by Entman (2001) focused on framing examples related to racial issues in the U.S.

Priming: Where framing centers on political loading of the presentation of news, consciously or not, priming has not to do with drawing attention to certain issues even in a neutral manner. For instance, priming survey respondents with information about a street crime may affect the views expressed on crime policy as compared to the same survey administered without priming.

17.8. Self assessment questions

1. What is meant by agenda?
2. Write about various types of agendas.
3. Describe the significance of agenda framing.
4. Differentiate between media agenda and government agenda

17.9. Suggested reading

Denis McQuail and Sven Windahl, 1986. "Communication Models" for the study of mass communications. Published by Longman, London and New York.

LESSON 18

SOCIOLOGICAL THEORIES OF COMMUNICATION

18.0. Objective of the lesson:

The objective of this lesson is to assist you in understanding the

- Sociological theories of Communication
- Structuration theory
- Theory of communicative action
- Social systems as self-organizing

Structure of the lesson:

18.1. Introduction

18.2. Structuration theory,

18.3 Theory of communicative action

18.4 Social systems as self-organizing.

18.5. Summary

18.6. Self assessment questions

18.7. Suggested reading

18.1. Introduction

Networks of communication evolve in terms of reflexive exchanges. The codification of these reflections in language, that is, at the social level, can be considered as the operating system of society. Under sociologically specifiable conditions, the discursive reconstructions can be expected to make the systems under reflection increasingly knowledge-intensive. This sociological theory of communication is founded in a tradition that includes Giddens' (1979) structuration theory, Habermas' (1981) theory of communicative action, and Luhmann's (1984) proposal to consider social systems as self-organizing. The study also elaborates on Shannon's (1948) mathematical theory of communication for the formalization and operationalization of the non-linear dynamics. The development of scientific communications can be studied using citation analysis. The exchange media at the interfaces of knowledge production provide us with the evolutionary model of a Triple Helix of university-industry-government relations. The construction of the European Information Society can then be analyzed in terms of interacting networks of communication. The issues of sustainable development and the expectation of social change are discussed in relation to the possibility of a general theory of communication.

18.2 Structuration theory

Anthony Giddens' Structuration is a theory of social action, which claims that society should be understood in terms of action and structure; a duality rather than two separate entities. In his book, *Central Problems in Social Theory* (1979), Giddens has defined structure which

inherently explained Structuration. The actor always does some activity, and while doing the activity he is actually doing Structuration, i.e., reproducing structure. Social Structure is also only ever the outcomes of practices which have previously happened, and it makes practices possible (the duality of structure), and it is not separate from action. Giddens believes that human beings are thoughtful and creative and thus cannot be wholly predicted in advance. He draws a wide range of action theories, including Goffman, to argue that individuals always have some form of agency to transform a situation; even slaves have the capacity to act in different ways.

Structuration Theory: Meaning and Major Features

Completing his study of 19th century sociological theory Giddens developed his own theory of structuralism in 1986. It has been a part of big project in which he worked for about 30 years. He discussed the concepts with classical and modern social theory. Structuration theory is the outcome of his prolonged discussion with foundational theorists. He says that actions of an actor are taken in continuity with the past. In fresh action he produces his existing structure. The continuity of the past and the reproduction of the present structure is what he calls as “Structuration”. Every process of action is a production of something new but at the same time exists in continuity with the past supplies the means of its initiation. It is not to be conceptualized as a barrier to action but as essentially involved in its production, even in the most radical processor of social change which like any others occurs in time. Giddens has placed great emphasis on individual action. As a leading theorem of the theory of structuration the following every social actor knows a great day conditions of reproduction of the society of which she is a member. Action has two things actor and social structure. Classical theorists have argued all through their work that the social structure subordinates the activities of actor. For these classical thinkers actor or individual is always given a next seat. This problem has been raised by Giddens as dualism.

Structuration is an attempt to overcome the dualism is that he sees as plaguing other theories a dualism that he sees as plaguing other theories - a dualism that gives priority either to actors of the social structure structures are created by humans but they in turn constrain and enable human action. The dominance of functionalism and system theory in US has put the individual or the actor in background. This was not acceptable to Giddens. He tried to bring the individual back into social theory.

Giddens emphasizes that it takes more than Karl Marx Weber, Emile Durkheim to create a foundation for a theory that wants to highlight the special character of modern society. It takes a different and new type of sociological theory that goes beyond the foundational problems in classical sociology.

Giddens theory of Structuration is over to several sources. He has emphasized on

1. Human agency- agent structure dualism
2. Social practice
3. Reflexivity
4. Structure

He makes a bold observation. According to him structure actor relationship is no longer conceived as a dualism. Neither the actor determines the structure nor does the structure determine the actor. He advances the theory of duality of structure. The concept of duality of

structure connects the production of social interaction performed by knowledgeable agents with reproduction of social systems across time and space.

Two major criticisms come out of structuration. One group of critics Thomson, Archer, Layder and Livesay points out that Giddens puts too much emphasis on the actor and enabling side of the agent at the expense of the constraining element i.e. structural frames. Giddens doesn't specify how enabling or constraining structures are. The other side of the criticism concerns the applicability of the theory in relation to empirical analysis.

Though the structuration theory is interesting and perhaps transcends some dualistic problems at a theoretical level, it is less fruitful in empirical research. The abstract level of the theory weakens its fruitfulness.

18.3 The Theory of Communicative Action

In his two-volume 1981 book philosopher Jürgen Habermas established a concept of communicative rationality, and *Life world and System: A Critique of Functionalist Reason*. Habermas creates the two level concept of society and lays out the critical theory for modernity. After writing *The Theory of Communicative Action*, Habermas expanded it by using it as the basis of his theory of morality, democracy, and law. The work has inspired many responses by social theorists and philosophers, and in 1998 was listed by the International Sociological Association as the eighth most important sociological book of the 20th century.

Through the two volumes of book *The Theory of Communicative Action* in the first volume *Reason and the Rationalization of Society* Habermas established a concept of communicative rationality, and in *Life world and System: A Critique of Functionalist Reason* he created the two level concept of society and lays out the critical theory for modernity.

Based on lectures initially developed in "On the Pragmatics of Social Interaction" Habermas was able to expand his theory to a large understanding of society. The Theory of Communicative Action has three interrelated concerns: (1) to develop a concept of rationality that is no longer tied to, and limited by, the subjectivistic and individualistic premises of modern philosophy and social theory; (2) to construct a two-level concept of society that integrates the life world and systems paradigms; and, finally, (3) to sketch out, against this background, a critical theory of modernity which analyzes and accounts for its pathologies in a way that suggests a redirection rather than an abandonment of the project of enlightenment.

The Theory of Communicative Action, Volume 1 sets out "to develop a concept of rationality that is no longer tied to, and limited by, the subjectivistic and individualistic premises of modern philosophy and social theory." With this failure of the search for ultimate foundations by "first philosophy" or "the philosophy of consciousness", an empirically tested theory of rationality must be a pragmatic theory based on science and social science. This implies that any universalist claims can only be validated by testing against counterexamples in historical (and geographical) contexts – not by using transcendental ontological assumptions. This leads him to look for the basis of a new theory of communicative action in the tradition of sociology. He starts by rereading Max Weber's description of rationality and arguing it has a limited view of human action. Habermas argues that Weber's basic theoretical assumptions with regard to social action prejudiced his analysis in the direction of purposive rationality, which purportedly arises from the conditions of commodity production. Taking the definition

of action as human behaviour with intention, or with subjective meaning attached, then Weber's theory of action is based on a solitary acting subject and does not encompass the coordinating actions that are inherent to a social body.

This 'purposive rational action' is steered by the "media" of the state, which substitute for oral language as the medium of the coordination of social action. An antagonism arises between these two principles of societal integration language, which is oriented to understanding and collective well being, and "media", which are systems of success-oriented action.

Following Weber, Habermas sees specialisation as the key historical development, which leads to the alienating effects of modernity, which 'permeate and fragment everyday consciousness'.

Habermas points out that the "sociopsychological costs" of this limited version of rationality are ultimately borne by individuals, which is what György Lukács had in mind when he developed Marx's concept of reification in his *History and Class Consciousness* (1923). They surface as widespread neurotic illnesses, addictions, psychosomatic disorders, and behavioural and emotional difficulties; or they find more conscious expression in criminal actions, protest groups and religious cults. Lukács thought that reification, although it runs deep, is constrained by the potential of rational argument to be self-reflexive and transcend its occupational use by oppressive agencies. Habermas agrees with this optimistic analysis, in contrast to Adorno and Horkheimer, and thinks that freedom and ideals of reconciliation are ingrained in the mechanisms of the linguistically mediated sociation of humanity. Habermas finds in the work of George Herbert Mead and Émile Durkheim concepts which can be used to free Weber's theory of rationalisation from the aporias of the philosophy of consciousness. Mead's most productive concept is his theoretical base of communication and Durkheim's is his idea of social integration. Mead also stressed the social character of perception: our first encounters are social.

From these bases, Habermas develops his concept of communicative action: communicative action serves to transmit and renew cultural knowledge, in a process of achieving mutual understandings. It then coordinates action towards social integration and solidarity. Finally, communicative action is the process through which people form their identities.

Following Weber again, an increasing complexity arises from the structural and institutional differentiation of the life world, which follows the closed logic of the systemic rationalisation of our communications. There is a transfer of action co-ordination from 'language' over to 'steering media', such as money and power, which bypass consensus-oriented communication with a 'symbolic generalisation of rewards and punishments'. After this process the life world "is no longer needed for the coordination of action". This results in humans ('life world actors') losing a sense of responsibility with a chain of negative social consequences. Life world communications lose their purpose becoming irrelevant for the coordination of central life processes. This has the effect of ripping the heart out of social discourse, allowing complex differentiation to occur but at the cost of social pathologies.

According to Habermas, life worlds become colonised by steering media when four things happen

1. Traditional forms of life are dismantled.
2. Social roles are sufficiently differentiated.
3. There are adequate rewards of leisure and money for the alienated labour.

4. Hopes and dreams become individuated by state canalization of welfare and culture.

Habermas is now ready to make a preliminary definition of the process of communicative rationality: this is communication that is "oriented to achieving, sustaining and reviewing consensus and indeed a consensus that rests on the inter subjective recognition of criticisable validity claims". With this key definition he shifts the emphasis in our concept of rationality from the individual to the social. This shift is fundamental to The Theory of Communicative Action. It is based on an assumption that language is implicitly social and inherently rational.

Habermas proposes three integrated conditions from which argumentative speech can produce valid results:

- The structure of the ideal speech situation (which means that the discourse is) immunised against repression and inequality in a special way.
- The structures of a ritualised competition for the better arguments.
- The structures that determine the construction of individual arguments and their interrelations".

Habermas then discusses three further types of discourse that can be used to achieve valid results in addition to verbal argument: these are the aesthetic, the therapeutic and the explicative. Because these are not followed through in The Theory of Communicative Action the impression is given that these are secondary forms of discourse.

Aesthetic discourse. Aesthetic discourses work by mediators arguments bringing us to consider a work or performance which itself demonstrates a value.

Therapeutic discourse. Therapeutic discourse is that which serves to clarify systematic self-deception. Such self-deceptions typically arise from developmental experiences, which have left certain rigidities of behaviour or biases of value judgment.

Explicative discourse. Explicative discourse focuses on the very means of reaching understanding – the means of (linguistic) expression. Rationality must include a willingness to question the grammar of any system of communication used to forward validity claims. Verbal language certainly has the prominent place in his model of human action. Oral contexts of communication have been relatively little studied and the distinction between oral and literary forms is not made in The Theory of Communicative Action.

Criticism. It is Luhmann's philosophical and epistemological bent and his claim to deal with every social and societal phenomenon within a holistic super-theory which makes his writings unwieldy for a scientific community accustomed to conducting empirical research and handling specific hypotheses and data. He published his major theoretical framework in 1984 under the title *Social Systems*, which "is not an easy book. It does not accommodate those who prefer a quick and easy read, yet do not want to die without a taste of systems theory" as he expressed it with discernible irony. Rather, abstraction and complexity characterize Luhmann's work. Based on this framework, Luhmann discussed several societal systems, such as economy, politics, religion, love, arts, education, health (care), law, science, mass media, and diverse problems of modern society, such as ecological communication, risks of modern society, power, organizations, etc.

After 30 years of theorizing social and societal systems, Luhmann published his magnum opus "*The Society of Society*" in 1997, completing his work before he died in 1998. His

systems theory has been applied worldwide and in different scientific disciplines, such as sociology, political science, jurisprudence (sociology of law), family therapy, educational science, literature, communication research (particularly journalism research). There are many connections to similar theoretical approaches, like second-order cybernetics

18.4. Self-Referential System

Niklas Luhmann (1984) conceives society in functional terms and applies Maturana's and Varela's autopoiesis-concept sociologically. He says that social systems are not alive because one cannot induce from a collection of living systems that the collection itself is alive. Luhmann says that a system can only differentiate, if it refers to itself and its elements. It generates a description of itself and a difference of systems and environment. Selfobservation means that a system/environment-difference is introduced into the system. All social systems can observe themselves. Luhmann distinguishes three types of self-reference:

They are

Basal self-reference. The referring self is an element, there is a difference between element and relation in the system. Such a system produces the elements that constitute the system with the help of the elements. This means a self-constitution of the system and its elements, the elements refer to themselves in order to reproduce themselves.

Processual self-reference (reflexivity). One can speak of such a type of self-reference, if there is a difference of before and afterwards in the system. In this case, the referring self is a process; a process is constituted by a difference between before and afterwards. Communication is a process, reflexivity is a type of meta-communication, a communication-process about communication. Reflexive processes are necessary for a differentiation of structures.

Reflexion. Such a type of self-reference exists if there is a difference between system and environment, the system refers to itself. This is the type of a systemic self-reference. Luhmann argues not individuals, but communications are the elements of a social system. A communication results in a further communication, by the permanent (re)production of communications, a social systems can maintain and reproduce itself. "Social systems use communications as their particular mode of autopoietic reproduction. Their elements are communication which are recursively produced and reproduced by a network of communications and which cannot exist outside such a network". For Luhmann, human beings are sensors in the environment of the system. He says that the old European humanistic tradition conceives humans within and not on the outside of social systems. Systems theory would have no use for the subject and the human being

Criticism. Luhmann's sociology tries to describe society as it is in functionalist terms, not as it could be or should be in critical terms. He says himself that he does not have an agenda of a social problems-approach and it has been criticised that he wants to deny critical and oppositional thinking their legitimacy. His attitude is conservative: he is not interested in the way thing could function in another way, they only have to function. Luhmann sees the task of sociology in locating disfunctionalities and eliminating them. Berger says that this also is a critical theory, but critical against all possible opposition. Luhmann does not provide an adequate theory for analysing concrete social systems or political decisions (Beyerle 1994: 150), there is a lack of concreteness. He does not explain how one communication can exactly produce other communications without individuals being part of the system. It was also argued that the subject is substituted by a type of spirit (Geist) in form of self-

referentiality. This results in an idealistic conception of society. Conceiving society without individuals furthermore means to abstract from motives and interest that influence social processes.

18.5 Summary

In the course of reflexive actions the networks of communication have been found to evolve. Among those few the codification in the form of language can be considered as the operating system at the societal level. With the result of specific social conditions, these discursive reconstructions redesign the systems and make them increasingly knowledge-intensive. This sociological theory of communication consists of Giddens' Structuration theory, Habermas' Theory of communicative action, and Luhmann's proposal to consider Social systems as Self-organizing. Shannon's (1948) mathematical theory of communication for the formalization and operationalization of the non-linear dynamics have also been considered as important elements in this context. The construction of the European Information Society is an example of these processes of socializations. They can be analyzed on the basis of interaction among networks of communication. Sustainable development and the expectation of social change are also discussed in relation to the possibility of communication theories.

18.6 Self assessment questions

1. Trace the evolution of Sociological theories of Communication
2. Explain the importance of Structuration theory
3. Elaborate the Theory of Communicative action with suitable examples.
4. Social systems as self-organizing is observed in European society. Elucidate

18.7 Suggested Reading

Fultner, Barbara (2011), "Introduction; Communicative action and formal pragmatics", in Fultner, Barbara (ed.), Jürgen Habermas: Key Concepts (Book), Durham: Acumen, pp. 1–12, 54–73,

Habermas, Jürgen (1996) [1992]. *Between Facts and Norms: Contributions to a Discourse Theory of Law and Democracy* (Book). Translated by William Rehg. Cambridge, Massachusetts: The MIT Press.

LESSON 19

VERBAL AND NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION

19.0. Objective of the lesson:

The objective of this lesson is to assist you in understanding the

- Verbal Communication.
- Nonverbal Communication

Structure of the lesson:

19.1. Introduction

19.2. Verbal vs Nonverbal Communication

19.3. Oral Communication

19.4. Written Communication

19.5. Nonverbal Communication

19.6. Importance of Non-verbal communication important?

19.7. Behaviors

19.8 Functions of Non-verbal Communication

19.9 Cultural Differences in Non-verbal Communication

19.10. Summary

19.11. Self assessment questions

19.12. Suggested reading

19.1 Introduction

Human communication is a multichannel reality comprising verbal, para verbal, and nonverbal signals. When we talk to others or write to them, communication takes place between us. But for such a communication, language is essential. According to Mehrabian, these *three elements* account differently for our liking for the person who puts forward the message: words account for 7%, tone of voice accounts for 38%, and body language accounts for 55% of the liking. They are often abbreviated as the “3 Vs” for Verbal, Vocal & Visual.

For effective and meaningful communication about emotions, these three parts of the message need to support each other - they have to be “congruent”.

19.2 Verbal vs Non verbal Communication

Communication with the help of words is known as verbal communication. Similarly when we meet our friends, we shake our hand with them. This also conveys some meaning. This is an example of non-verbal communication. Communication without any use of words is called non-verbal communication. There is ample empirical evidence that the visual communication channel plays a prominent role, not only in face-to-face interactions but in mediated communication as well. Beyond so called discourse and dialog functions closely tied to speech production and conversation, such as illustrative gestures or turn-taking signals, nonverbal behavior constitutes the major basis for the perception of persons and the formation of social impressions. Mehrabian found that among various tools of communication the receiver trusts the predominant form of communication i.e. non-verbal (38 + 55%), rather than the words (7%). He conducted experiments dealing with communications of feelings and attitudes (i.e., like-dislike), and established that disproportionate influence of tone of voice and body language becomes effective only when the situation is ambiguous. Such ambiguity appears mostly when the words are spoken are inconsistent with the tone of voice or body language of the speaker (sender).

19.3. Oral Communication

Human beings are gifted with language use either in speech or in writing. Verbal communication is made through words, either spoken or written. Communication takes place more orally than in writing. Communication through spoken words is known as oral communication, which may be in the form of lectures, meetings, group discussions, conferences, telephonic conversations, radio messages, etc. In written communication, the message is transmitted through written words in the form of letters, memos, circulars, notices, reports, manuals, magazines, handbooks, etc. Scholars in this field usually use a strict sense of the term “verbal”, meaning “of or concerned with words,” and do not use “verbal communication” as a synonym for oral or spoken communication. Thus, sign languages and writing are generally understood as forms of verbal communication, as both make use of words although, like speech, both may contain paralinguistic elements and often occur alongside nonverbal messages. Oral communication has some advantages. It provides immediate feedback and clarification. Further information can be gathered in no time. It is time-saving. It is also a most effective tool of persuasion. Hence, it is effective. Oral communication suffers from some drawbacks also. Sometimes, there is no saving of money or time. Meetings go on for hours together. Other conditions are necessary to make oral communication effective. Oral communications cannot be remembered for a long time. Sometimes, oral communication may lead the misunderstanding. There may be a communication gap.

19.4. Written Communication

To make communication clear and effective, man has to arrange words, sentences and paragraphs properly. Speech is more flexible as it is heard and sooner or later forgotten but for writing, the writer has to make a considerable effort. Writing has fewer cycles wherein a message is sent, and received. Written communication is essentially a creative activity and it consumes more time than oral communication. Written communication has advantages. It provides legal defense. It gives access to a large audience. It is accurate, unambiguous and permanent. Written communication has some drawbacks as it involves also mounting paperwork, ineffective in the hands of those who are not competent to handle it. There is no immediate feedback. It is time-consuming and clarification not available immediately.

19.5. Nonverbal communication

(NVC) is usually understood as the process of communication through sending and receiving wordless messages. Such messages can be communicated through gesture; body language or posture; facial expression and eye contact; object communication such as clothing, hairstyles or even architecture; symbols and info graphics; prosodic features of speech such as intonation and stress and other paralinguistic features of speech such as voice quality, emotion and speaking style.

Nonverbal communication is distinguished from unconscious communication, which may be verbal or nonverbal. “Nonverbal communication involves those nonverbal stimuli in a communication setting that are generated by both the source (speaker) and his or her use of the environment and that has potential message value for the source or receiver (listener). It can occur through any sensory channel—sight, sound, smell, touch or taste. Basically, it is sending and receiving messages in a variety of ways without the use of verbal codes (words). It is both intentional and unintentional. Most speakers/listeners are not conscious of this.

Non-verbal communication may be ‘Visual’, ‘Aural’ or ‘Gestural’. Sometimes you look into some pictures, graphs, symbols, diagrams, etc. and some message is conveyed to you. All these are different forms of visual communication. For example, the traffic policeman showing the stop sign, a teacher showing a chart of different animals is visual communication. Bells, whistles, buzzers, horns, etc., are also instruments through which we can communicate our message. Communication with the help of these types of sounds is called ‘aural’ communication. For example, the bell used in schools and colleges to inform students and teachers about the beginning or end of periods, sirens used in factories to inform the change of work—a shift of the workers are examples of aural communication. Communication through the use of various parts of the human body, or through body language is termed gestural communication. Saluting our national flag, motionless position during the singing of the national anthem, waving of hands, nodding of the head, showing anger on the face, etc. are examples of gestural communication.

19.6. Importance of non-verbal communication important?

Basically, it is one of the key aspects of communication (and especially important in a high-context culture). It has multiple functions:

- Used to repeat the verbal message (e.g. point in a direction while stating directions).
- Often used to accent a verbal message. (e.g. verbal tone indicates the actual meaning of the specific words)
- Often complement the verbal message but also may contradict. E.g.: a nod reinforces a positive message (among Americans); a “wink” may contradict a stated positive message.
- Regulate interactions (non-verbal cues convey when the other person should speak or not speak).
- May substitute for the verbal message (especially if it is blocked by noise, interruption, etc) — i.e., gestures (finger to lips to indicate the need for quiet), facial expressions (i.e. a nod instead of a yes).

19.7. Behaviors

Categories are considered to provide an idea of the behaviors that constitute nonverbal communication. There are seven classes, also known as codes of nonverbal signals. Codes are distinct, organized means of expression that consist of both symbols and rules for their use. Although these codes are presented within classes, they occur together and are naturally integrated with verbal expression.

The nonverbal codes include:

Kinetics – messages sent by the body, including gestures, facial expression, body movement, posture, gaze and gait

Vocalic (i.e., paralinguistic) – vocal cues other than words, including volume, rate, pitch, pausing, and silence

Physical appearance – manipulable cues related to the body, including hairstyle, clothing, cosmetics, and fragrance

Haptics – contact cues, such as frequency, intensity, and type of touch

Proxemics – spatial cues, including interpersonal distance, territoriality, and other spacing relationships

Chronemics – the use of time as a message system, including punctuality, amount of time spent with another, and waiting time

Artifacts – manipulable objects in the environment that may reflect messages from the designer of users, such as furniture, art, pets, or other possessions

While these categories provide a framework from which to conceptualize nonverbal communication, it is, in reality, a combination of cues and codes that work together to produce a certain meaning. It is inefficient to look at one cue or code for specific meaning.

19.8. Functions

A better way to grasp the integration of nonverbal codes is to consider their functions. In general, nonverbal communication helps people accomplish various goals.

- we use nonverbal communication to create impressions. Physical appearance cues weigh heavily on this function, but kinetics, and other use cues all can contribute to how others form perceptions of competence and character.
- It is used to manage interaction. Facial expression, vocalic, and even proxemics are used to signal turn-taking in conversations as well as leave-taking.
- It is a primary means of expressing emotion. In fact, some experts have identified nonverbal expression to be part and parcel of emotional experience. In addition, each cultural community has its own display rules for emotional expression appropriateness.

- Nonverbal communication allows people to send relational messages. We convey affection, power, respect, and dominance through nonverbal cues.
- Deception is conveyed and detected via nonverbal cues. Finally, nonverbal communication also is used to send messages of power and persuasion. Leadership is conferred on the basis of nonverbal cues.

The functional approach to nonverbal communication, then, illuminates how people use it. In this way, nonverbal cues can be considered in conjunction with each other in patterns. Several cues contribute to a single message or thread of messages, making treatment focused only on a single nonverbal behavior (e.g., eye gaze), a less effective means of achieving the functional goal of sending messages such as friendship, willingness, sadness, or anger.

Cues. A cue is a type of communication used by an adult to let a child know what is expected of him/her in a given situation. Cues are a type of receptive communication. Based on nonverbal cues, humans are prone to make inferences about the emotional states, intentions, and even personality attributes of other people. Impressions on the basis of nonverbal behavior are formed within extremely short time periods, and even minimal variations in posture, movement, or facial expression can have a deep impact on the emotional attitudes of an observer.

Touch cues are ways an adult can touch a child to communicate the desired action. For example, an adult may gently pull a child's arm upward with a grasp at the wrist to cue the child to lift their arm during a dressing routine.

A sensory cue is some sensory input used to help a child anticipate an event: For example, the smell of lotion before it is applied to the child's arm or the sound of water splashing before placing the child in the bathtub.

Object cues are some concrete piece of a routine that is used to represent that routine.

When deciding what cues to use with a child, it is important to remember to select cues that the child can easily discriminate one from the other. Otherwise, the cues may be confusing to the child.

Signals. Signals are a form of expressive communication. They are movements the child uses to communicate needs, desires and feelings to adults. Signals may start as behavior that the child is not intentionally using to communicate. But because an adult consistently responds to this behavior, the child begins to understand that producing this behavior causes a particular event to occur. For example, a child may inadvertently clap hands with an adult. If hand clapping is enjoyable for the child and the adult consistently responds by hand clapping with the child, the child may signal for more hand clapping by clapping the adult's hand again.

Symbols. Symbols are representations of an event, action, object, person, or place that can be used to communicate about the event, action, object, person, or place. They can be used for both receptive and expressive communication. Objects, parts of objects, pictures, print, actions, gestures, signs, and speech can all be symbols. They may start as cues and signals. If a child recognizes a cue out of context, that cue may be acting as a symbol. The more a symbol resembles what it represents, the more concrete that symbol would be. The less a symbol resembles what it represents, the more abstract that symbol is. An example of a concrete symbol would be a spoon, used during lunch, to represent mealtime. A less concrete (or more abstract) symbol would be a small line drawing of a person eating.

The spoken phrase “time to eat” would be the most abstract because those sounds don’t look, smell, or feel like food or the action of eating. Concrete symbols are more easily associated with what they represent than are abstract symbols. When determining how closely a symbol resembles an event, action, object, person, or place it is important to consider how the child perceives that event, action, object, person, or place. For example, a symbol based on visual similarities may not be as concrete for a person with a visual impairment as it would be for an individual who is fully sighted. A symbol based on action may be abstract for an individual with a physical impairment such that he/she had never performed that action.

19.9. Cultural Differences in Non-verbal Communication

Non-verbal communication is especially significant in intercultural situations. Probably non-verbal differences account for typical difficulties in communicating.

General Appearance and Dress. All cultures are concerned about how they look and make judgments based on looks and dress. Americans, for instance, appear almost obsessed with dress and personal attractiveness.

Body Movement. We send information by expressing an attitude towards a person (facing or leaning towards another), emotional status (tapping fingers, jiggling coins), and desire to control the environment (moving towards or away from a person). More than 700,000 possible motions are noticed generally that it is impossible to categorize the mall! But just need to be aware as body movement and position are key ingredients in sending messages.

Posture. Consider the following actions and note cultural differences:

Bowing (not done, criticized, or affected in the US; shows rank in Japan)

Slouching (rude in most Northern European areas)

Hands in the pocket (disrespectful in Turkey)

Sitting with legs crossed (offensive in Ghana, Turkey)

Showing soles of feet. (Offensive in Thailand, Saudi Arabia)

Even in the US, there is a gender difference on acceptable posture?

Gestures. The number of gestures is so big that it is impossible to categorize them. But it is necessary to recognize: 1) incredible possibility and variety and 2) that an acceptable in one’s own culture may be offensive in another. The amount of gesturing varies from culture to culture. Some cultures are animated; other are restrained. Restrained cultures often feel animated cultures lack manners and overall restraint. Animated cultures often feel restrained cultures lack emotion or interest. Even simple things like using hands to point and count differ.

Pointing: the US with index finger; Germany with a little finger; Japanese with entire hand (in fact most Asians consider pointing with the index finger to be rude)

Counting: Thumb = 1 in Germany, 5 in Japan, middle finger for 1 in Indonesia.

Facial Expressions. While some say that facial expressions are identical, the meaning attached to them differs. The majority opinion is that these do have similar meanings worldwide with respect to smiling, crying, or showing anger, sorrow, or disgust. However, the intensity varies from culture to culture. Many Asian cultures suppress facial expressions as much as possible. Standards on what is attractive in dress and on what constitutes modesty. The dressing is used as a sign of status? Many Mediterranean (Latino/Arabic) cultures exaggerate grief or sadness while most American men hide grief or sorrow.

Some see “animated” expressions as a sign of a lack of control.

Too much smiling is viewed in as a sign of shallowness.

Eye Contact and Gaze. In the USA, eye contact indicates: degree of attention or interest, influences attitude change or persuasion, regulates interaction, communicates emotion, defines power and status, and has a central role in managing impressions of others.

Western cultures—see direct eye to eye contact as positive (advise children to look a person in the eyes). But within the USA, African-Americans use more eye contact when talking and less when listening with reverse true for Anglo Americans. This is a possible cause for some sense of unease between races in US. A prolonged gaze is often seen as a sign of sexual interest.

Arabic cultures make prolonged eye-contact.—believe it shows interest and helps them understand the truthfulness of the other person. (A person who doesn’t reciprocate is seen as untrustworthy)

Japan, Africa, Latin American, Caribbean — avoid eye contact to show respect.

Touch. Touch is culturally determined! But each culture has a clear concept of what parts of the body one may not touch. The basic message of touch is to affect or control —protect, support, disapprove (i.e. hug, kiss, hit, kick).

Traditional Korean (and many other Asian countries) don’t touch strangers especially between members of the opposite sex. But the African-American sees this as another example of discrimination (not touching him because he is black).

USA—Handshake is common (even for strangers), hugs, kisses for those of opposite gender or of the family (usually) on an increasingly more intimate basis. Differences between African-Americans and Anglos in the USA are noted. Most African Americans touch on greeting but are annoyed if touched on the head (good boy, good girl overtones).

Paralanguage. Vocal characterizers (laugh, cry, yell, moan, whine, belch, yawn) send different messages in different cultures (Japan—giggling indicates embarrassment; India – belch indicates satisfaction).

In Vocal qualifiers (volume, pitch, rhythm, tempo, and tone). Loudness indicates strength in Arabic cultures and softness indicates weakness. These qualifiers indicate confidence and authority to the Germans,; indicates impoliteness to the Thais; indicates loss of control to the Japanese. (Generally, one learns not to “shout” in Asia for nearly any reason!). These qualifiers have gender-based significance as well as women tend to speak higher and more softly than men.

Vocal segregates (un-huh, shh, uh, ooh, mmm, humm, eh, mah, lah) indicate formality, acceptance, assent, uncertainty.

19.10. Summary

Human communication can roughly be divided into verbal communication and nonverbal communication. Verbal communication includes all the verbal aspects of communication, such as words and phrases. NVC, on the other hand, includes aspects such as gestures, movements of the head and body, posture, facial, expressions, direction of gaze, proximity and spatial behavior, bodily contact, orientation, tone and pitch of voice, clothing and adornment of the body.

Nonverbal communication is often regarded as “body language,” but this designation falls far short of its true nature and potential. In its broadest definition, nonverbal communication is, according to Hecht, DeVito, and Guerrero, “all the messages other than words that people exchange in interactive contexts.”

To further define what qualifies as nonverbal communication, experts have identified several perspectives, including those that assume all human behavior is potentially communicative, communicative only if intentionally sent, and communicative if behaviours reasonably function as messages within a given speech community.

Defined as such, nonverbal communication includes those behaviours that are mutually recognized and socially shared codes and patterns with a focus on message meaning.

19.11. Self assessment questions

1. Discuss the importance of Oral Communication.
2. List out the non-verbal communications.
3. Write about the importance of non-verbal communication.
4. Trace the significance of culture in non-verbal communication.

19.12. Suggested reading

McQuail, D (2000). *McQuail's Mass Communication Theory*, Sage Publications, Amazon U.K.

McQuail, D and Windahl, S (1993). *Communication Models for the study of Mass Communication*, Prentice Hall, Amazon, U.K.

LESSON 20

DEPENDENCY THEORY

20.0. Objective of the lesson:

The objective of this lesson is to assist you in understanding the

- Importance of Social structure
- Concept of Dependency

Structure of the lesson:

- 20.1. Introduction
- 20.2. Modern Theory
- 20.3. Degree of dependence
- 20.4. Process of Creating Dependence
- 20.5. Criticism
- 20.6. Critics of Media Dependency Theory
- 20.7. Summary
- 20.8. Self assessment questions
- 20.9. Suggested reading

20.1 Introduction

Media dependency theory proposed a systematic approach to the study of the effects of mass media on audiences. It also dealt with the interactions between media, audiences, and social systems. American communications researchers Sandra Ball-Rokeach and Melvin DeFleur introduced it in outline in 1976 wherein the principal focus was on the structural conditions of a society that govern the likelihood of occurrence of effects from the Mass media. Basically, it is a social structural model and originated from the ideas about the nature of modern mass society. The mass media also considered as an information system is crucially involved in maintenance, change and conflict processes at the social as well as the group and individual levels of social action.

20.2 Modern Theory

The most important and original ideas expressed by the model are centered on contemporary societies. According to this audience members depend on mass media information resources for their knowledge of and orientation to what is happening in their own society. The degree and dependency will depend on the number of structural conditions but the most important of these relate to the degree to which the society is subjected to change, conflict, or stand and secondly to the degree that the mass media do. In fact, mass media is found to serve mankind's unique and Central information functions. The model consequently shows a strong relationship between

three main sets of variables and specifies the man kind's effects which are dependent on the interaction of these three.

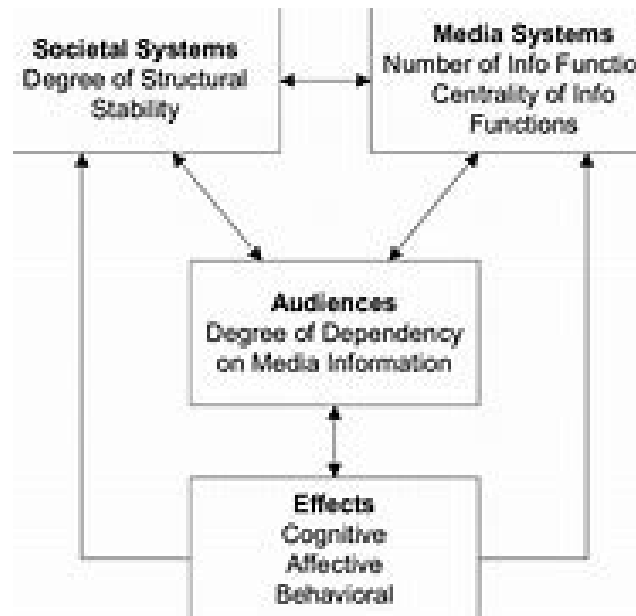


Figure Ball-Rokeach and Melvin DeFleur's Dependency model

20.3 Degree of dependence

The degree of dependence is directly proportional to three factors. They are

Individual. The media have the ability to satisfy the audience needs of individuals. An individual will become more dependent on media if the medium satisfies his/her needs. Otherwise, the volume of media dependence decreases.

Social Stability. The audience reconsiders their beliefs, practice and behaviors when strong social change, conflicts, riots or elections will force to re-evaluate and make new decisions. During this period media dependency is dramatically increased because there is a strong need for information, support and advice

Active audience. In any society during the process of communication active audience chooses the media dependence on their individual needs and other factors such as economic conditions, society and culture. If alternative source fulfil the audience needs, then it will reciprocally decrease the media dependence

Process of Creating Dependence

Media attracts individuals by offering the content which is able to fulfil the audience needs for understanding, entertainment and information.

There is much difference in the level of strength in the Dependence relationship. Cognitive motivations encourage the individuals to maintain the level of attention and Affective motivation serves the individuals to enhance the level of satisfaction.

Both Cognitive and Affective motivation intensifies the involvement of the audience and takes it to higher level to enable the information process.

The discussion which accompanies this model specifies some of the effects which might be usefully studied by this approach. These can be summarised as follows

a) Cognitive

- Creation and resolution of ambiguity
- Attitude formation
- Agenda-setting
- Expansion of people's beliefs system
- Value clarification

b) Affective

- Creating fear, anxiety
- Increasing or decreasing morale (alienation)

c) Behavioural

- Activation or deactivation
- Issue formation or issue resolution
- Reaching or providing strategies for action (eg. Political demonstration)
- Causing altruistic behavior (eg. Donating money to charities)

In interpreting the model, it is important to bear in mind that the three main components of the audience media system and social system are all interrelated although the nature of this relationship varies from one society to another. Each component can also vary in ways that are directly relevant to the differential occurrence of effects.

The social system varies according to the degree of stability. It may be firmly established but going through some temporary crisis or as with some developing countries, it may be in a condition of rapid change. Alternatively, it may be strongly established, but experiencing a fundamental challenge to its legitimacy and survival. Under such conditions, there are likely to be new objects to be defined. They include attitudes to be adjusted, old values to be reasserted or new ones to be promoted. All of which stimulate information giving and receiving.

The audience will vary in relation to the social system and to changes in social conditions. Some groups will stand to gain and there will also be a varying dependence on Mass media as a source of information and guidance. In general social elites will have more control over the media. More access to them and also be less dependent on them than the nonelites. They will tend to have access to other more expert sources of information. Unless specifically organized inappropriate ways nonelites will have to rely on mass media or poorly informed personal sources.

The Mass media will vary in quantity, diversity, reliability, and authority. Under some conditions or in some societies the media will be more central for providing social-political information than in others. There can also be a diversity of functions for the media which will be fulfilled in varying degrees.

20.5 Criticism

The dependency model has many advantages as an approach to the study of general media effects.

1. It is open to a wide range of effect possibilities as has been indicated. The authors themselves claim that it avoids a seemingly untenable all or none position of saying either that the media have no significant impact on people or society or that the media have an unbounded capacity to manipulate people and society. We may refer to this as a contingency model, in the sense that any given effect is dependent on a more or less unique set of circumstances that hold in a given situation.

2. It directs attention to structural conditions and historical circumstances rather than to individual and personality variables. It is thus more suitable for dealing with Sociological questions than most other overall communication models.

3. It takes account of the fact that effects on the audience may also lead to effects on the social system and on the media system itself. Thus experience of media performance can lead to demands for change or reform of the media, to be carried out either through the political system or by the free market mechanism, by the emergence of alternative media.

A weakness of the model is that it overstated the real independence of the different elements and especially of the media system from the social system. The former tends to be presented as if it were a neutral non-political source available to meet whatever need might arise. It is more likely that a media system will be quite closely associated with or even incorporated into the dominant institutions of society.

20.6 Critics of Media Dependency Theory

- It describes the media role during social changes and crisis
- Theory is more flexible and descriptive
- Power of media dependency is not clearly described
- It's difficult to prove scientifically or experimentally

20.7. Summary

According to this theory, there is an internal link between media, audience, and a large social system. The audience learning from the real-life is limited, so they can use media to get more information to fulfill their needs. Extensive use of media generates dependent relations in the audience. Also, Media can able to create a dependent relationship with target audiences to achieve their goals by using its media power.

20.8 Self assessment questions

1. Write about various types of effects proposed in dependent theory.
2. Explain the concept of Societal system and Media system.
3. Write about significance of audience independent theory.

20.9 Suggested reading

Ball-Rokeach, S. and DeFleur, M.L. (1976) 'A dependency model of mass media effects'.
Communication Research, 3: 3-21.

LESSON 21

NORMATIVE THEORIES OF MEDIA

21.0. Objective of the lesson

The objective of this lesson is to assist you in understanding the

- Normative theories of media
- Their practical applications in contemporary society

Structure of the lesson

- 21.1 Introduction**
- 21.2 Normative theory**
- 21.3. Types of theories**
- 21.4 Four theories**
- 21.5 Post normative theories**
- 21.6 Summary**
- 21.7. Self assessment questions**
- 21.8. Suggested reading**

21.1 Introduction

It is universally agreed that the media is expected to carry out three basic functions, to inform, to educate and to entertain. However, several scholars, best known among them Dennis McQuail, have sought to create a more complex study of the press theories, especially in terms of their explanation of ideas to operate with a specific system of social values. It shows how the press operated under various political environments. The normative theory of the press affirms how things should or ought to be, how to value them, which things are good or bad and they are referred to as normative theories. By this we mean press functions according to dominant criteria, in some cases an ideal, in others a necessity; and they constitute guidelines to media structure and performance within the environment in which it operates.

21.2 Mass media theories

Baran (2002) opines that mass communication theories are explanations and predictions of social phenomena that attempt to relate mass communication to various aspects of our personal and cultural lives or social system. And to understand mass communication theories, he says many important ideas have to be considered among which mass media functions are also important. Several scholars, best known among them Dennis McQuail, have sought to create a more complex study of the press theories, especially in terms of their explanation of ideas to operate with a specific system of social values. It shows how the press operated under various political environments. These theories of the press affirm how things should or ought to be, how to value them, which things are good or bad they are referred to as normative theories. By this we mean functions which should be according to dominant criteria, in some cases an ideal, in others a necessity; and they constitute guidelines to media structure and performance within the environment in which it operates.

- They explain how people learn from the mass media
- They explain the role of mass media in shaping the people's values and views

21.3 Types of theories

The following are the types of theories as given by McQuail

- Social Science Theory
- Working Theory
- Common Sense Theories
- Normative Theories

These theories are generalizations derived from systematic observation and objective analysis of mass media variables, employing methods associated with empirical research in social science.

Social Science theories. These theories are powerful and have universal relevance because they follow the scientific method. Theories in this category are unchangeable. They are subject to evolution as new facts emerge from repeated tests and analyses.

Working theories. They are derived by “experience in carrying out certain activity by which it is possible to arrive at the conclusion that is not the product of test or experiment and observation. McQuail calls them working theories because they consist mainly of guidelines, techniques, tradition and convention that guide the work of media production and give consistency over time. Traditions, conventions, values, and criteria in the media endure over them, and are subjected to observation and analysis by scholars. They begin to take on the nature of theory and then become working theory. For instance journalists all over the world appear to have the same news judgment values.

Common Sense theory. These theories are derived without any elaborate study or observation to establish a truism. They rely solely on common sense, the obvious result or implication of action; this is intelligently understood for what it is without necessarily performing an experiment. According to McQuail (2005), this encompasses the knowledge of the media that people possess as media consumers, though such people may lack expertise which will enable them to crystallize those experiences into reliable or even valid generalization Normative Theories.

Normative theory. It describes an ideal way for a media system to be controlled and operated by the government, authority, leader and public. At first, the word “Normative Theory” was pronounced in the USA during the height of the “cold war” with Communism and the Soviet Union. Often they are called Western theories of mass media. These theories are different from other communication theories because normative theories do not provide any scientific explanations or predictions. They identify the structure and functioning of local media and how they perform in that specific environment in which they operate. It is often found that the press is influenced by the conditions in which they operate and also based on the outcomes of it. The

theories of the Press also disclose the normative behavior of the media institutions and their role in society.

It is universally agreed that the media is expected to carry out three basic functions, to inform, to educate and to entertain. However, several scholars, best known among them Dennis McQuail, have sought to create a more complex study of the press theories, especially in terms of their explanation of ideas to operate with a specific system of social values. It shows how the press operated under the various political environments. The normative theory of the press affirms how things should or ought to be, how to value them, which things are good or bad. They are referred to as normative theories. By this we mean functions as they should be according to dominant criteria, in some cases an ideal, in others a necessity; and they constitute guidelines to media structure and performance within the environment in which it operates.

Normative theories were first proposed by Fred Siebert, Theodore Peterson and Wilbur Schramm in their book called “Four Theories of the Press” in 1956. It classified media systems into four categories viz. Authoritarian, Libertarian, Communist media and Social responsibility theory. Since the 1960s a rich expansion of thought has taken place regarding normative theories of public communication, models of democracy, and the roles of journalism in democratic societies. The media world has become far more complicated, and its growth has increasingly widespread. Normative theories explain how the media ‘ought to’ or can be ‘expected to’ operate under the prevailing set of political-economic circumstances. As every society tries to control its mass media in accordance with its own policies and needs, they formulate their own separate press theories also. Therefore, the media system that exists in a country is directly related to the political system in that country. In fact, it was established that the political system determines the exact relationship between the media and the government. In addition to the original four theories later Denis Mc Quail (1980) added Development media theory and Democratic participant media theory. The first one talks about the participation of the audience in media. The second talks about media as a tool for development at the local level. According to him these theories ‘may not correspond to complete media systems’ but become part of the discussion of press theory and provide some of the principles of contemporary media policy and practice.

21.4 Four theories

The earlier “four theories of the press” came from many sources rather than a single source. According to Siebert, Peterson and Schramm, the basic assumption of normative theory is that the press always takes on the form and coloration of the social and political structure within which it operates (cited by Anaeit et al, 2008). These normative theories separately explain the possible outcomes of political and economic circumstances under which it works from time to time. They have evolved from two opposing viewpoints. They are

1. Radical libertarian (first amendment absolutist) and technocratic control. The first absolutist takes the idea of “free press” as literal and opposes government regulation while technocrats do not trust the media and believe in the use of regulators to act in the public interest.
2. Propaganda and mass society theorists are used to justify media regulation.

Media practitioners, social critics and academics were also involved in developing these normative theories. They are basically different from other communication theories because normative theories of press are not providing any scientific explanations or prediction. The theories do not give any kind of scientific predictions or explain them scientifically. They just provide explanation as to how that kind of press affects audiences. The theory also talks about control and censorship of press. Normative theories are more focused in the relationship between Press and the Government than press and the audience. These theories explain the ownership of the media and who controls the press or media in the country rather than understanding the impact on the audience. Media must always be credible, truthful and reliable. Although very few countries have a media that falls under a clear category and there is often a mixture of two or more theories, understanding these theories can help us get the bigger picture of the effect of the environment in which media operates on it.

The following are some questions that help to understand the concepts of the normative theories. They are

1. Can media publish or broadcast any type of content and earn more profits in the shortest time? (Special reference to concepts like Yellow journalism / Talbots)
2. Do media provide any public service even if no immediate profits can be earned?
3. Can the media participate in resolving any issues of public interest and solving social problems?
4. Is it essential for media to protect the consumers from the culprits, business frauds and corrupt bureaucrats by serving as a watchdog?
5. What do people expect from media during a time of crisis?
6. Should media broadcast highly-rated content even if it has a high level of violence?
7. Does a newspaper publish content related to unethical business to encourage the company for generating higher advertisement revenues?

These questions are linked and concerned about the media's day-to-day activities.

Examples:

- In 1996, the NBC news department accused an innocent man of Atlantic Olympic bombing.
- In 1998, ABC radio falsely announced the death of the great comedian "Bob Hope" after receiving the error message from the associated press.
- Past few years how wiki leaks releasing the classified documents in online media and its effect.

21.5 Post normative theories

There are other theories that have emerged after the normative theories to better their aspects. Some of these post normative theories are the Western concept, Revolutionary Concept Theory, Transitional Media Approach, etc.

Western concept. This theory combines the aspects of both Libertarianism and Social Responsibility

Revolutionary Concept Theory. It explains how in a system mass media are used to promote revolution

Transitional Media Approach. This is less category based and has a more flexible approach to evaluating media systems than traditional normative theory

21.6 Summary

A Normative theory describes an ideal way for a media system to be controlled and operated by the government, authority, leader and public. The word “Normative Theory” was pronounced in the USA during the height of the “cold war” with Communism and the Soviet Union. Often they are called as Western theories of mass media. They identify the structure and functioning of local media and how they perform in that specific environment in which they operate. It is often found that the press is influenced by the conditions in which they operate and also based on the outcomes of it. The theories of the Press also disclose the normative behavior of the media institutions and their role in society. They are basically different from other communication theories because normative theories of the press are not providing any scientific explanations or predictions. Six theories were proposed under this concept of mass media. They include Authoritarian, Libertarian, Communist media and Social responsibility theory. Denis Mc Quail (1980) added Development media theory and Democratic participant media theory to the original set of four theories. The first one talks about the participation of the audience in media. The second talks about media as a tool for development at a local level.

21.7. Self assessment Questions

1. What is a normative theory?
2. Define the background of normative theory.
3. What are the important features of normative theory?
4. Briefly enumerate various normative theories.

21.8 Suggested reading

Roberts F. Donald (1971). *The Process and Effects of Mass Communication*, University of Illinois Press.

Steinberg, Charles Side (1972). *The Structure and Development of Mass Communication*, Hastings House.

Gordon, Thomas Frank and Verna, Mary Ellen (1958). *Mass Communication Effects and Processes: A Comprehensive Bibliography*, Sage.

Farrar, Ronald T. Published (1995). *Mass Communication: An Introduction to the field*, McGraw-Hill Higher Education.

Dominick R. Joseph (1996). *The Dynamics of Mass Communication*, McGraw-Hill.

Gordon, Thomas Frank and Verna, Mary Ellen (1958). *Mass Communication Effects and Processes: A Comprehensive Bibliography*, Sage.

LESSON 22

AUTHORITARIAN AND LIBERTARIAN THEORY

22.0. Objective of the lesson:

The objective of this lesson is to assist you in understanding the

- Authoritarian theory
- Libertarian theory

Structure of the lesson:

22.1. Introduction

22.2. Authoritarian Theory

22.3. Tenets

22.4. Principles

22.5. Applications

22.6. Censorship

22.7. Indian context

Libertarian theory

22.8. Introduction

22.9. Basic Assumptions

22.10. Liberal perspective

22.11. Assumptions

22.12. Principles

22.13. Criticism

22.14. Summary

22.15. Self assessment questions

22.16. Suggested reading

22.1 Introduction

This theory stemmed from the Authoritarian philosophy of Plato (407 - 327 B.C), who thought that the State was safe only in the hands of a few wise men. Thomas Hobbes (1588 - 1679), a British academician, argued that the power to maintain order was sovereign and individual objections were to be ignored. Engel, a German thinker further reinforced the theory by stating that freedom came into its supreme right only under Authoritarianism. The world has been witness to authoritarian means of control over media by both dictatorial and democratic governments.

22.2 Authoritarian Theory

The authoritarian theory was the first among the normative theories noted across the globe. This theory had evolved in the 16th and 17th centuries and spread throughout Europe with the invention of the printing press. This theory was mainly based on the absolute power of the monarchy (truth). Long before the democratic societies could think of matters pertaining to freedom of speech, there existed a thought that the emergence of media should not challenge the writ of the government which was more in dictatorial form and less they looked like democracies. The media was forced to remain under state control. It had such features which, in non-democratic governments still rule on media.

It was essential that the Press supports the monarchy and couldn't criticize it. This approach was designed to protect the established social order, setting clear limits to media freedom and ensuring that it is not the media that must talk about people and their problems in any manner. According to this theory, mass media, though not under the direct control of the State, had to follow its bidding.

The theory postulates that the truth revealed to the rulers would be disseminated to the mass through the medium of the press. It was established that the rulers control the Press. The press can't criticize, or challenge the authority that would undermine the sovereign power. The theory believed that the dissemination of plurality of opinion would lead to challenging the authority, and the press would not work for the welfare of the state.

The Authoritarian theory describes that all forms of communications are under the control of the governing elite or authorities or influential bureaucrats. Authoritarians control the media to protect and prevent the people. Authoritarians control the media to protect from national threats through any form of communication (information or news). In fact, the press is an instrument to enhance the ruler's power in the country rather than creating threats. The authorities have the right to permit any media and control it by providing licenses to the media and making certain censorship. If any media violate the government guidelines the authority has all right to cancel the license and revoke it. The government has all rights to restrict the press when any sensitive issue comes up in society to maintain peace and security in the nation.

Generally, this type of situation is found in such places wherein the government is in the hands of a tyrant ruler or ruling elite who exercise repressive powers over the people. It shall lay down the laws and guide as to what the media can communicate. The media works at the behest of the state and acts as a mouthpiece of the government. If they try to be independent at their disposal towards issues especially in discussing the policies either they would face shut down or would be censored at the cost of their editorial independence. In this context, the state tries to justify its control as a means to protect the social order and is best suited to that situation. Most of the time the controls rest with the king and the royal members, in turn, guide the media in his or her own way.

Free speech is often regulated and criticism of those in the power is considered to be highly subversive. The critics may even be punished, even jailed for violation of charters or licenses of

media could have been revoked. Censorship of media in its varied forms is also noticed. The attitude of rulers towards the media would be mostly erratic and arbitrary leading to monarchism. It is also observed that the rulers would entertain viewpoints of others also but is not guaranteed and could be curtailed as and when they perceive that there is a possible threat for them. Cultivation of a homogenous, national culture is the last priority for the rulers in authoritarian culture as it only requires acquiescence to governing elite.

The authoritarian theory considers humans as subservient to the state and believes that the ruling elite should guide the masses, whose intellectual ability was held in low esteem. Public dissent and criticism were considered harmful to both government and people and would not be tolerated by the authority. On the other hand, the press becomes a tool for disseminating the state's position to the public. It informs the public what is right and wrong based on the state's perception and interpretation of the issues, and provides an official line with regard to the policy statements of the ruling elites. The state determines the objectives, uses the press as a means to realize them in their area of operation. The press becomes a means to an end rather than an instrument of criticism of either means or ends.

Authoritarians used various devices to enforce their dictum on the press by means of strict procedures of licensing, censorship of material before publication, the granting of exclusive printing rights to their favored press, and the swift as well as harsh punishment to those who resort to criticism of the government. In fact, in certain societies, the press is not only prohibited from criticizing the government but is also required to promote the policies of the government in the name of the good of the state as well as the public over there. This might include omitting certain news reports that would be embarrassing or harmful to the government and explaining other events in a light favorable to the ruling powers.

22.3 Tenets

Tenets envisaged in this theory include the following. They are

- I. The government consists of a very limited and small ruling class and media are not allowed to print or broadcast anything which could undermine the established authority of the government.
- II. Any offense to the existing political values should be avoided and the government may punish anyone who questions the state's ideology.
- III. The government is infallible and the media professionals are therefore not allowed to have any independence within the media organization.
- IV. Foreign media are subordinate to the established authority, in that all imported media products are controlled by the state.

Steps were taken to control the freedom of expression. The result was the advocacy of complete dictatorship. The theory promoted zealous obedience to a hierarchical superior and reliance on threat and punishment to those who did not follow the censorship rules or did not respect authority. Censorship of the press was justified on the ground that the State always took precedence over the individual's right to freedom of expression.

22.4 Principles

The main principles of the theory are

- Direct governmental control of the media is observed in this model. The societies depict typical pre-democratic conditions, where the government consists of a very small ruling class.
- No printing that could undermine the established authority or offense to the existing political setup is allowed.
- The government may punish anyone who questions the state's ideology and the professionals are not allowed to have any independence within the media organization.
- Registration of the media by the state is very common practice.
- Media should always be subordinate to the state and authority
- Media should avoid offense to the majority or dominant moral and political values
- Unacceptable attack on authority, deviations from official policy or offenses against moral codes should be considered as criminal offenses
- Journalists and other media professionals have no independence within their media organizations
- Media should do nothing which could undermine established authority or disturb the order
- There will always be a possibility of censorship to enforce the policies of the state.

22.5 Applications

This theory essentially applies to authoritarian societies, but can surface in less authoritarian societies also particularly in times of war, terrorism etc. It depends on the medium/ media of press subject to a greater control in some countries. These assumptions mentioned above help in understanding the basic premise of the theory. It explains the principles on which this theory is based and the approach which the authoritarian society used to follow. The biggest examples of this theory are Fascist regimes, some African countries, communist countries, Aspects of apartheid, etc.

However the media

- Here, Journalists or any media persons should not have any rights to comment, discriminate or stand against the government. Sometimes, an authority gives considerable freedom to minority thoughts and cultural issues to promote them if it doesn't make any threats to authority or ruler.
- King is the authority and has all rights to control the communication and no one can raise questions against the king.

Eg. "The French king Louis XIV was concentrated in his person parliamentary, law-making and judicial power. He was the authority of Supreme Court as well as he can condemn a man to the death penalty without any rights appeal".

- During World War II, Hitler and Mussolini are the two major authorities who controlled the press in Germany and Italy. Press was under the control of the authority and no press could question them or publish against these two dictators.
- Few countries blocked wiki leaks website from its country to maintain the internal security because the wiki leaks are not ready to compromise with government censorship and realizing classified documents against the government.

22.6 Censorship

Censorship is suppression of any communication that may be considered harmful to the people, King, government and its nation. Especially these censorship methods are much familiar in the press which is directed against the freedom of speech and freedom of expression. In some other cases, the censorship helps to protect the rulers and authorities from sensitive issues.

The authorities have all rights to permit any media and control it by providing license to the media and making certain censorship. If any media violate the government policies against the license, then the authority has all right to cancel the license and revoke it. The government has all right to restrict any sensitive issues from the press to maintain peace and security in the nation.

For right Nikolai Yezhov, standing near Stalin was removed from this photograph after he was shot dead in 1940. These types of sensors are common during Stalin's reign.

There are different types of censors like

- ❖ Political censor
- ❖ Moral censor
- ❖ Religious censor
- ❖ Military censor
- ❖ Corporate censor

But in the case of mass media the government imposes such restrictions that the press won't be able to write/ speak freely especially if it jeopardizes the interest of the governments. The media can function within the limits of freedom of speech in the name of censorship.

22.7 Indian context

The Authoritarian system of the press is still in operation in many parts of the world. In Communist countries, in nations that are under dictatorial control, and in some third world countries, a free press is little more than a theory without practice. Notably, both dictatorial and democratic regimes resort to such authoritarian control of media. And censorship is more rigidly enforced in times of war and during internal and external emergencies. The classic example was the emergency period (1975-77) in India where the publications were closed and censored on the belief that the Press was acting in association with the Opposition parties to dethrone the government. The popular newspaper *Indian Express* owned by Ramnath Goenka was subjected to all kinds of hardship during the Emergency and the government attempted to stall the

publication of the paper. However, Goenka pooled all his resources to fight for freedom of the Press by opposing the censorship laws until Emergency was lifted. In India, the Official Secrets Act (1923) has been used by authorities to deny free access to information, thereby hampering the freedom of press. However, The Right to Information Act has challenged that denial and has become a helpful tool in the hands of journalists seeking information. Many a time central governments tried to bring out press bills to control the mass media but couldn't take a shape.

Libertarian theory

22.8 Introduction

Libertarian theory operates in contrast to the authoritarian approach to media. The founding fathers of this theory (Milton, Locke, Mills) propounded that in this system media informs, entertains, sells and helps in discovering the truth. It is a free marketplace of ideas where anyone can publish his/ her views and expressions but cannot defame or be obscene. There shall be minimum checks and balances by the government. The libertarians had a very modern approach which was quintessential to serve the purposes of the modern society based on rise of democracy, religious freedom, expansion of economic freedom, the philosophical climate of the enlightenment, undermined authoritarianism, emphasis on personal freedom and democracy. The reason behind the said philosophy was that people are rational and can distinguish between truth and falsehood, and between good and evil and therefore, be allowed to express their views and expressions.

The early Libertarians argued that if individuals could be freed from arbitrary limits on communication imposed by church and state, they would "naturally" follow the dictates of their conscience, seek truth, engage in public debate, and ultimately create a better life for themselves and others. They believed strongly in the power of unrestricted public debate and discussion to create more natural way of structuring society. In AEROPAGETICA, a powerful libertarian published in 1644 by John Milton asserted that "in a fair debate good and truthful arguments will always win out over lies and deceit. If this is true it followed, then a new and better social order could be forged using public debate."

These libertarian principles were also adopted in the "Bill of Rights". (First 10 amendments to the U.S. constitution). It asserted that all individuals have natural rights no government, community, or group can unduly infringe upon or take away. The ability to exercise dissent, to band together with others, to resist laws that people find to be wrong, to print or broadcast ideas, opinions and beliefs- all of these rights are proclaimed as central to democratic self-government. Unfortunately, most early libertarians had an unrealistic view of how long it would take to find the "truth" and establish an ideal social order. In the 18th century it became clear that "truth" couldn't be quickly or easily established, some libertarians became discouraged. They drifted between libertarian and authoritarian views. But despite the priority given to communication freedom, one sees a number of restrictions on communication, accepted by media practitioners and media consumers. Examples can be Libel - laws to check the publication of information that will damage reputations; Laws against offensive language, pornography, information that would interfere with a defendant's right to a fair trial, etc. Whenever new media technologies are invented, it is necessary to decide how they should be regulated.

The Libertarian theory or Free press theory is based on the fundamental rights of an individual to freedom of expression, which is regarded as the main legitimate principle for print media in liberal democracies. The libertarian doctrine is a development of the philosophical principles which provide the basis for the social and political structure within which the media operate. Liberalism, the social and political system, has a set framework for the institutions which function within its orbit. Press, like other institutions, is conditioned by the principles underlying the society of which it is a part. For the last century, a large part of the civilized world has professed to adhere to the principles of liberalism. The libertarian theory that evolved in the 16th century was refined in the 18th century as libertarian principles found their way into nations' constitutional frameworks. In theory, the libertarian press is the exact opposite of the authoritarian press. Libertarians assume that human beings are rational and capable of making their own decisions and that government exists to serve the individual. Unlike the authoritarians, the libertarians hold that the common citizen has the right to hear all sides of an issue in order to distinguish truth from falsehood. Since any government restriction on the expression of ideas infringes on the rights of citizen, the government can best serve the people by not interfering with the media. In short, the press must be free of control. It considers that people are rational and have the right to all angles of an issue to decide between truth and falsehood. The government can't interfere in matters of mass media. The prime duty of the press, according to Rivers, is a broker of information, gathering it from the halls of government and disseminating it among people, then carrying their reactions and taking it back to the people. In order to discharge its duties, the Press has the freedom to gather and disseminate news to make the citizens well informed, and no pre-censorship is justified.

22.9 Basic Assumptions

This theory is regarded as a western theory. The underlying principle of the libertarian theory of the press is that the press should be free to perform its functions but in the authoritarian theory, the press was under governments' licensing, and censorship (Siebert et al, 1963). The media is free to write, and publish and will provide a truthful, comprehensive, and intelligent account of the day. In the same line of thought, but a slightly different angle, McQuail (1987), writes that, Libertarians basically follow dictates of their conscience, seek truth, engage in public debate and create a better life for themselves. The strength of the free press theory lies certain principles.

The qualities inherent in a free press are

1. By gathering public information and checking the government, the press makes self-government and democracy possible.
2. An unfettered press ensures that a diversity of views and news are read and heard.
3. A system of free expression provides autonomy for individuals to lead free and productive lives, and,
4. It enables an independent press to serve as a check on abuses of power by the government

While discussing the emergence of libertarianism and its transition from authoritarianism Fred Siebert credits it to the efforts of four men, John Milton in the 17th century, John Erskine and Thomas Jefferson in the 18th century, and John Stuart Mill in the 19th century.

Advocates of this theory were Lao Tzu, an early 16th-century philosopher, John Locke of Great Britain in the 17th century, John Milton and John Stuart Mill. Milton referred to a self-righting

process if free expression is permitted "let truth and falsehood grapple." In 1789, the French, in their Declaration of the Rights of Man, wrote "Every citizen may speak, write and publish freely." Out of such doctrines came the idea of a "free marketplace of ideas." George Orwell defined libertarianism as "allowing people to say things you do not want to hear". Libertarians argued that the press should be seen as the Fourth Estate reflecting public opinion. What the theory offers, in sum, is power without social responsibility?

22.10 Liberal perspective

Classical liberal perspective envisages the following:

- a) Free market as the foundation of free media;
- b) Freedom to publish without prior restriction independence from government;
- c) Public has access to a wide diversity of opinion (only limitation on freedom to publish is public willingness to pay);
- d) Market-based diversity promotes public rationality, free marketplace of ideas and information as a self-righting mechanism, minimises bias and exposes weak arguments and evidence.

Another strand in liberal tradition presents Media as representative agency or as a watchdog protecting the public (individual's rights), overseeing the state wherein the Watchdog reveals and abuses in the exercise of state authority. This role overrides all other functions of the media and dictates the form in which the media should be organized, i.e. the free market. As newspapers gradually lost their party affiliations, journalists worked to establish their independence as searchers after objective truth. Independence from government control and influence if media is subject to public regulation it will lose its bite as a watchdog.

Press is the source of information and platform for the expression of a range of divergent opinions; enables people to monitor government and form ideas about policy. But, society is seen as an aggregation of individuals' media. As representative role conceived primarily in terms of articulating public opinion, which is the sum of individual opinion. How should media relate to representative structures as distinct from individuals role of media in mediating class and other conflict in society?

However, Freedom of the press can be abused. Absolute freedom is anarchy. Abolition of censorship; but, also the introduction of press laws designed to protect individual rights (protection of reputation, privacy, moral development of individuals or groups, security of the state) could override the right of the press.

22.11 Assumptions

This theory also entails certain assumptions that help in understanding the basic premise of this theory:

- a) Press should be free from any external censorship;
- b) Publication and distribution should be accessible to any individual or group with a permit or license;

- c) Attacks on governments or parties should not be punishable;
- d) No coercion to publish anything;
- e) Freedom of access to information.
- f) libertarian view rests on the idea that the individual should be free to publish whatever he or she likes attacks on the government's policies are fully accepted and even encouraged
- g) no restrictions on import or export of media messages across the national frontiers
- h) journalists and media professionals have full autonomy within the media organization.

Libertarians argued that the press should be seen as the Fourth Estate reflecting public opinion. 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 United States, Great Britain and few Western European nations. Gradually, the Right of the press and libertarianism gained ground and became part of constitutional doctrine both in the United States and later in England. Notably, the first amendment to the American Constitution states that "Congress shall make no law..... abridging the freedom of speech or of the press. It is thus simply an absolute right of the citizen".

Wiki leaks website published all sorts of confidential or restricted files in public space and especially classified documents. These articles are providing brief knowledge about the government and its activities which helps people to identify what is happening in the society and its gives great choices to elect a better president in the future. Sometimes these documents may work against the government and its authority that is why most of the country is not willing to allow libertarian thoughts because it may affect their power and kingdom.

22.12. Principles

In nutshell, the theory can be expressed using the following principles

1. Publication should be free from any prior censorship.
2. Attacks on any government, official or political party, should not be punishable, even after the event.
3. There should be no compulsion to publish anything.
4. No restriction should be placed for gathering the information for publication.
5. The act of publication and distribution should be open to a person, a group without license or permit.
6. There should be no restriction on getting or sending information overseas.
7. Journalists should have professional autonomy within their organization.
8. However, in various countries Libel, gag orders, regulations prohibiting false advertising, child pornography and offensive language are also observed. Laws have been designed to regulate freedom of press so that other rights are guaranteed.

22.13 Criticism

The theory has been criticized on the following lines

1. Freedom of press will give more freedom to media to reveal the reality of the society without any censorship or any authority blockades.
2. Is reliable with U.S media traditions.
3. It gives more value for individuals to express their thoughts in media.

4. Theory excessively positive about media's willingness to meet responsibilities which may lead people into negative aspects.
5. Is too positive about individual ethics and rationality.
6. Ignores the need for reasonable control of media.
7. Ignores dilemmas posed by conflicting freedoms.

The Libertarian theory is also criticized on the following grounds.

- It is very unclear to what extent the theory can be held to apply to the public broadcasting, which now accounts for a large part of media activity in many societies.
- The theory has been most frequently formulated to protect the owners of the media and can't give equal expression to the arguable rights of editors and journalists within the press. The marginalized groups do not have access to and indeed can't afford the means or the tools of free expression. What happens on the ground is that media merchants and media monopolies (Eg. the big newspaper chains, the television companies) exploit that freedom to expand their empire. The theory thus protects media owners rather than the right of editor and journalists or of the public. What the theory offers, in sum, is 'power without social responsibility'?
- The theory seems to design to protect opinion and belief and has much less to say on 'information'.
- The theory prescribes compulsory control but provides no obvious way of handling many pressures to which media are subject to.

22.14 Summary

The Libertarian theory is one of the "Normative theories of the press". The theory originally came from libertarian thoughts from 16th century in Europe. The libertarian thoughts are exactly against or opposite to the authoritarian theory which means the authoritarian theory says "all forms of communication works under the control of the government or elite like a king". International trade and urbanization undermine the power of a rural aristocracy resulting in various social movements including the Protestants reformation that demands individual's freedom and their own lives and free thoughts. Libertarian theory sees people are more than enough to find and judge good ideas from the bad. The theory says people are rational and their thoughts lead them to find out what is good and bad. The press should not restrict anything even negative content may give knowledge and can make better decisions whilst worst situation.

22.15 Self assessment questions

1. Write about the concept of Authoritarianism.
2. What are the significant features of Authoritarian theory?
3. Discuss the importance of liberalism.
4. In which countries the Free Press Theory is prevalent?

22.16 Suggested reading

Chaudary, Comparative Mass Media Systems. New York: Longman 1983. McLeod, Jack M., and Jay G. Blumler. "The Macrosocial Level of Communication Science." Hand Book of Communication Science. Ed.

McQuali, Denis. Mass Communication Theory: An Introduction. London: SAGE publications, 1987.

Theodore Peterson, and Wilbur Schramm. Four Theories of the Press. Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1963.

LESSON 23

COMMUNIST MEDIA THEORY AND SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY THEORY

23.0. Objective of the lesson:

The objective of this lesson is to assist you in understanding the

- Communist Media Theory
- Social Responsibility theory

Structure of the lesson

23.1. Introduction

23.2. Communist Media Theory

23.3. Principles

23.4. Criticism

Social Responsibility Theory

23.5. Introduction

23.6. Basic Elements

23.7. Criticism

23.8. Summary

23.9. Self assessment questions

23.10. Suggested reading

Communist Media Theory

23.1 Introduction

According to authoritarian theory, the media is controlled and censored by the ministries in the country but libertarian is fully free without any intervention of any authority or government, Social responsibility theory – press freedom on one hand but on the other hand they controlled the press by raising a question and Soviet media theory, the whole control of the media is under the leader of the nation.

23.2 Communist Media Theory

The Soviet Constitution guarantees both free speech and free press. In addition, the principal tenet of Soviet political life is one of unity. The rise of the working class, the revolution, was a movement of unity within the Soviet society. Joining together of the people into the classless society had become the philosophy of the Soviet state. Thus, freedom from the Soviet point of view was freedom from the oppression of an upper, middle and lower class.

Communist Media Theory has roots in the communist revolution of the 20th century. After the 1917th revolution, the Soviet Union was restructured with a new political system based on Marxist-Leninist principles. The newly formed communist party by Lenin showed much interest in the media which served the working class in the country and their welfares. So the Soviet theory originated from Marxist, Leninist and Stalinist thoughts, with a mixture of Georg Wilhelm Friedrich Hegel ideology is called “Soviet Media Theory” is also known as “The Communist Media Theory”. The same theory was developed and followed by Adolf Hitler’s Nazi in Germany and Benito Mussolini in Italy. Soviet media theory is imitative of Leninist principles which based on Carl Marx and Engel’s ideology. The government undertakes or controls the total media and communication to serve working classes and their interest. The theory says the state has absolute power to control any media for the benefit of people. They put end to the private ownership of the press and other media. The government media provide positive thoughts to create a strong socialized society and as well facilitate information, education, entertainment, motivation and mobilization. The theory describes that the whole purpose of the mass media is to educate the greater masses of working-class or workers. Here, the public was encouraged to give feedback that would create interest towards the media.

Schramm explains mass communication in the soviet media theory as an instrument of the state. Media do not have independence of their own. Their integrity shall always be on the lines of the state. They are “kept” instruments and they follow the party line and the state directives in toto and can’t deviate from them at any point in time. Not just mass media Mass communication is also completely integrated with other instruments of the state, such as the school, the police and even assemblies act as instruments protecting the communist philosophy. Yet while the press is considered as an instrument of unity, it is also considered an instrument of revelation to provide enlightenment and to prepare the masses for unity and eventually revolution. The press is an “agitator, propagandist and organizer.

Under the Soviet-communist theory Broadcasting is not much found to serve the public but to inform it. Programming is again the instrument of the state, and the medium is important to it because of the large number of people that broadcast.

23.3 Principles

According to this theory the following principles are observed

- Media should depict the one and only objective view of society as per the Marxist-Leninist principles.
- Media should not be privately owned.

- It should serve the interests of the working class and be controlled by them only
- Media should respond to wishes and needs of their audience
- Media should serve for the desired norms, education, information, motivation and mobilization by means of socializing
- Society has a right to punish for the anti-societal publication
- Media should support progressive movements in and outside the country.
- Journalists' aims and ideals should coincide with the best interests of the society.

With the revolution in Russia in 1917, and the practice of Marxism, there appeared a very different approach to dealing with media. The media was tied to overall communist ideas and defined in a very different way. The theory to control media possessed following features:

- a) Closely tied to the communist ideology.
- b) The media is a collective agitator, propagandist and educator in the building of communism.
- c) No private ownership of the media.
- d) The government is superior to the media institutions.
- e) The media is supposed to be serious.
- f) The soviet theory does not favor free expression but proposes a positive role for the media, society and the world.
- g) Press contributes to the success of the state.
- h) Only legal party members can publish and no one can criticize the party.
- i) Government has "influence" over the press.
- j) closely tied to a specific ideology—the communist
- k) media organizations in this system are not intended to be privately owned and are to serve the interests of the working class
- l) both the soviet and the authoritarian acknowledge the government as superior to the media institutions.
- m) The mass media in the Soviet model are expected to be self-regulatory with regard to the content of their messages

The Soviet media theory subjects media to the ultimate control of the State. Within these limits, the media are expected to be self-regulatory. They must act with responsibility, evolve, and

follow norms of professional conduct. However, as per this theory, the media are not subjected to arbitrary interference as in the case of the authoritarian theory.

23.4. Criticism

Soviet media theory seems to be similar to the authoritarian theory but the core idea is different from each other. Like Authoritarian theory, Soviet media theory is also one-way communication. No feedback is allowed from the public but soviet media theory encourages two-way communications. Simultaneously the whole media is controlled or works under the leadership.

Private Ownership is not allowed which leads to the press without any restrictions and it can serve people without any authoritative blockade Soviet media theory allows some restrictions based on the nation on national interest rather than communist theories like soviet media theory, journalism or press should support the leadership rather than a watchdog.

If the leadership is wrong the whole nation will suffer a lot.

Social Responsibility Theory

23.5 Introduction

The social responsibility theory is a critique of libertarian theory. It attempts to balance the liberal stress on the freedom of the press. In the book “Four theories of Press” (Siebert, Peterson and Schramm) it’s been stated that “pure libertarianism is antiquated, outdated and obsolete.” That paved way for the replacement of Libertarian theory with the Social responsibility theory. The theory lies between both authoritarian theory and libertarian theory because it gives total media freedom on one hand but the external controls on other hand. Here, the press ownership is private.

Social responsibility theory allows free press without any censorship but at the same time the content of the press should be discussed in public panels and media should accept any obligation from public interference or professional self-regulations or both. In the mid-20th century, most of the developing countries and third world nations have used this social responsibility theory of press which is associated with “the Commission of the Freedom of Press” in the United States. In 1947, a non-governmental commission on freedom of the press was set up by *Time* magazine when the magazine refused to publish a letter written by a reader. In this context, the commission was set up to study the relationship between the press and society, and Robert M. Hutchins, chancellor of the University of Chicago headed the commission. The commission pointed out that Press freedom had become increasingly endangered on account of monopolistic tendencies. The commission viewed that the media must be responsible towards society because the media utilize public property. For example, the radio is using the public space to air its programs or to discharge its duty.

The Hutchins Commission suggested that if the press or radio did not recognize and fulfill its responsibilities, some organizations must assume the task of checking the press to do so. The commission proposed the creation of an independent agency that would review press performance and report annually.

The social responsibility theory moves beyond the simple “Objective” reporting (facts reporting) to “Interpretative” reporting (investigative reporting). The total news is complete facts and truthful but the commission of the freedom press stated that “No longer giving facts truthfully rather than give a necessary analyzed or interpretative report on facts with clear explanations”. The theory helped in creating professionalism in media by setting up a high level of accuracy, truth, and information. The commission of the press council also included some tasks based on the social responsibility of media, which are as follows:

1. Formulate the code of conduct for the press.
2. Improve the standards of journalism.
3. Safeguarding the interests of journalism and journalist.
4. Criticise and charge some penalty for violating the code of conduct.

23.6 Basic elements

Social responsibility theory appealed to the idealism of individual media practitioners and tried to unite them in the service of cultural pluralism. It encouraged them to see themselves as front-line participants in the battle to preserve democracy in a world drifting inexorably towards totalitarianism.

Dennis Mcmail (1987) summarized the basic elements of the theory as follows

- Media should accept and fulfill certain obligations to society
- The obligations are mainly to be met by setting high or professional standards of informativeness, truth, accuracy, objectivity and balance.
- In accepting and applying these obligations, media should be self-regulating within the framework of law and established institutions.
- The media as a whole should be pluralist and reflect the diversity of their society, giving access to various points of view and to right of reply.
- Society and the public have the right to expect high standards of performance and interventions
- The media should avoid whatever might lead to crime, the violence of civil disorder, or give offense to minority groups. For this theory to work successfully, it would demand a pluralist media in a pluralist commodity and is only responsible through multiple ownership.

23.7 Criticism

Critics of social responsibility theory are of the belief that

- Media will not play monopoly because the audience and the media scholars will realize questions if media published or broadcast anything wrongly or manipulated any story
- Media shall be concerned with all class audiences rather than focus on higher classes in society.
- Media may work autonomously but the certain thing is controlled by the government and other public organizations.
- Media should reflect the divergence of society
- Media should avoid whatever might lead to violence, crime and civil disorder.
- Journalists and media professionals should be accountable to society as well as employers.

However, a way of satisfying the demands of this theory is the establishment of public service broadcasting in many parts of the world. This will ensure cultural and political pluralism.

The theory allows

1. Everyone to say something or express their opinion about the media.
2. Community opinion, Consumer action and professional ethics.
3. Serious invasion of recognized private rights and vital social interests.
4. Private ownership in media may give better public service unless the government has to take over to assure the public to provide better media service.
5. Media must take care of social responsibility and if they do not, government or other organizations will do.

However, Altshull debunking the theory said “the painful reality is that the term social responsibility is a term devoid of any meaning. Put another way, it’s a term so vague that almost any meaning can be placed upon it. As such it too serves the ultimate end of social control”. According to him, the journalist will not have the freedom to work in the job and it enables him to ignore the economic realities of his or her trade. He can choose to report the conflict because it is socially responsible to do so, not because in so doing he is pandering to the baser interests of his readers, in gossip as well as sex and violence.

23.8 Summary

According to Social Responsibility theory, although the press had a right to criticize the government and other institutions, it also has a responsibility to preserve democracy by properly informing the public and by responding to society’s interests and needs. Probably the most

significant contribution of the social responsibility theorists is their view that it is more important for the citizens to have the right of access to information than it is for the press to achieve complete freedom of speech. It is not enough that the media and large economic structures have the freedom to do as they please. They are also obliged to respond to society's needs.

Avoids the conflict situation during war or emergency by accepting the public opinion.

Media will not play monopoly because the audience and media scholars will raise questions if media publish or broadcast anything wrong or manipulate any story.

Media Standards will improve.

Media will concern all class audiences rather than focus on higher classes in the society.

Media may work autonomously but certain thing is controlled by the government and other public organization.

23.9 Self assessment questions

1. Explain the concept of Communist Media Theory.
2. List out the Principles of communist media theory.
3. How does the communist media theory differ from authoritarian theory?
4. What are the basic tenets of Social Responsibility theory?
5. Write about the significance of Social Responsibility theory in the contemporary context.

23.10 Suggested reading

Holmes, D. (2006) Communication Theory. Stephen, W. Littlejohn/ Karena, F. Theories of Human Communication. Eighth Edition.

Siebert, F.S, Peterson, T, & Schramm, W. (1963) Four theories of the Press. Urbana: University of Illinois Press.

Watson, J. (2003) Media Communication. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

LESSON 24

DEVELOPMENT MEDIA THEORY & DEMOCRATIC-PARTICIPANT THEORY

24.0. Objective of the lesson:

The objective of this lesson is to assist you in understanding the

- Development Media theory
- Democratic-participant Theory

Structure of the lesson

- 24.1. Introduction
- 24.2. Development Media Theory
- 24.3. Principles
- 24.4. Goals of development media theory
- 24.5. Criticism

Democratic participant theory

- 24.6. Introduction
- 24.7. Practical outcomes
- 24.8. Limitations Of The Theory
- 24.9. Media and new perspectives
- 24.10. New Dimensions
- 24.11. Benefits
- 24.12. Summary
- 24.13. Self assessment questions
- 24.14 . Suggested reading

24.1 Introduction

There were limited applications of the four established theories of the Press to the Third World Countries. They could not completely guide and support the Western nations and also are vastly different from each other. Further, the fast-changing economic and political conditions, have led to the birth of new theories called Development Media theory and Democratic Participant theory. Development Media theory proposed that communication should be used to fulfill development tasks in society. The other theory Democratic-participant theory was proposed in recognition of new media developments and of increasing criticism against the hegemony of the main mass media due to private or public monopolies.

24.2. Development Media Theory

Development media theory favors democratic grass-roots involvement of mass media in the process of Development to a certain extent. It emphasizes on 'right to communicate' based on Article 19 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR). Every individual has the right to freedom of opinion and expression. This right includes of freedom to hold opinions without interference and to seek, receive and impart information and ideas through any media regardless of frontiers. Development is possible if the Press takes the onerous task of nation-building as dissemination of information through the Press can play a critical role in achieving public welfare.

International Commission for the Study of Communication Problems (1980) of UNESCO brought into light some common conditions in the third world countries that limit the potential benefits of the earlier normative theories. This includes:

- The absence of communication infrastructure, professional skills, production and cultural resources and the available audience etc.,
- Dependence on the developed world for hardware and software
- The commitment of these societies to economic, political and social development as a primary national task.
- The developing countries' awareness of their similar identity and interest in international politics.

Further, Social responsibility theory *inter alia* Development media theory expects the Press to play a key role in the development, and therefore, development journalism is an offshoot of this development media theory. Hence, the theoretical view is that development is possible if the Press takes up the onerous task of nation-building as dissemination of information through the Press can play a critical role in achieving public welfare.

In the light of Social responsibility, this theory is considered to be most relevant in third-world countries. In the context of development, the press must inform the people to maximize their participation in nation-building. In developing countries, the press as the fourth estate has a greater responsibility to define issues and set the agenda. Since a majority of third-world countries face challenges of illiteracy, the press can play the role of a public educator. They have to take care that the information they disseminate is fair, accurate, and objective which upholds the moral standards of the society. The information must not create unnecessary panic among the populace. It should never misguide people.

This theory was propounded by Dennis McQuail (1987). It promotes media support for an existing government and efforts to bring about socio-economic development. It argues that until a nation is well established and its economic development well underway, media must be supportive rather than critical of the government but assist them in implementing their policies. As the name implies, the theory relates to media in third-world nations. It favors journalism that promotes good news, requires that biased news stories are treated with caution, as such stories

could be economically damaging a nation in the delicate throes of growth and change. The media seem to fulfill particular social and political duties; hence media freedom should be subordinated to national integration, socio-economic modernization, promotion of literacy and cultural creativity.

Further, social responsibility theory *inter alia* development media theory expects the Press to play a key role in the development and therefore, development journalism is an offshoot of this development media theory. Hence, the theoretical view is that development is possible if the Press takes up the onerous task of nation-building as dissemination of information through the Press can play a critical role in achieving public welfare.

24.3. Principles

Development media theory seeks to accentuate the positive notions of development; it nurtures the autonomy of the developing nations and gives special emphasis to indigenous cultures. It is a combination of the theory of state support and one of resistance to the norms of competition. McQuail, proposed the following tenets

- Media must accept and carry out positive development tasks that are in line with the policies formulated by the political leadership and freedom of the press should not be at variance with economic priorities of the government and the development needs of the citizenry.
- Media should therefore give priority to the coverage of those areas that touch on the lives of the people. In other words, content should be development-driven and should center on the socio-economic and political lives of the people.
- In the overall interest of development, the state has the right to intervene in media operations by the use of censorship devices, especially when the activities of the press are not in consonance with the development objectives of the government. Mass media should accord priority to politically, geographically and culturally contiguous developing countries in their coverage as part of the holistic strategy for less developed societies.

But the expression of these principles shall be taken up with fine spirits so as to make them more useful and at the same time abide by the guidelines journalists are supposed to follow. It has to be remembered that in spite of the normative truism that “the press always takes on the form and coloration of social and political structures within which it operates” there are certain journalist values and conventions which are cherished by media professionals in most parts of the worlds, and which therefore impinge on their manner of operation and on their self-perception. Some journalists who have been trained in the western industrialized country or the other see themselves as operating with “Libertarian and Social responsibility” principles, which were, in any case the main principles inculcated in them even in their nations training institutions, prior to the advent of development journalism.

According to Hachten and Scotton (2002: 160), the development media theory has the following features

- All the instruments of mass communication-newspapers, radio, television, films, and national news services- must be mobilized by the government to support nation-building; fight illiteracy and poverty, build a political consciousness, assist in economic development.
- Freedom of the Press is utilized for building the nation by preserving the national culture;
- Freedom of media should be restricted to an extent keeping in view the economic priorities and development needs of the society.
- Journalists and other media workers have a responsibility as well as freedom in their information gathering and dissemination tasks.

- The state has a right to intervene in or restrict media operations and devices of censorship and direct control in the interests of the development of a country.

- Media should give priority to national culture and language

- The Press must keep considering the national goals that are formulated by the governments;

- The concept of the guided press is to control its erratic behavior by means of the laws that support censorship.

24.4. Goals of development media theory

It emphasizes the following goals:

1. The primacy of the national development task
2. The pursuit of cultural and informational autonomy
3. Support for democracy
4. Solidarity with other developing countries.

This theory advocates media support for an existing political regime and its efforts to bring about economic development of a nation. By supporting the government's development efforts media helps society at large. This theory argues that unless a nation is well-established and its economic development is well underway the progress doesn't realize. It proposes that Media must be supportive rather than critical of the government. Journalists must not demoralize government efforts to promote development but rather assist it in implementing such policies. This theory recognizes the need for some form of government intervention in the operation of media.

It envisions setting up of

- Government agencies.
- Monitor training and licensing of media practitioners;
- Control development of media institutions;
- Regularly censor-media content before distribution.
- Issue regular guidelines for the day-to-day operation of media

Although the different degree of self-regulation is encouraged, media practitioners are not trusted by government officials to carry out their responsibilities without guidance and constant monitoring.

24.5. Criticis

Development media theory was intended to recognize the fact that societies undergoing a transition from underdevelopment and colonialism to independence and better material conditions often lack the infrastructure, the money, the traditions, the professional skills and even the audiences needed to sustain media institutions comparable to those of the First world or Second world, in which the four theories could take root.

Democratic-Participant Theory

24.6. Introduction

Democratic participant theory is a reaction. The term democratic-participant expresses a sense of disillusionment with established political parties and with the media system, which seems to have lost the faith of people. It emerged as the result of the dissatisfaction with other models such as Libertarian theory, Social responsibility theory, etc. There is also an element of reaction against the mass society, which is over-organized and alienating. Free press theory is seen to fail because of its subversion by the forces of capitalism. Social responsibility ends up as just another form of complicity with the bureaucratic state or a mere self-serving by entrenched media professionals. Both these theories of freedom and self-regulation are seemed to have failed. In this context, Democratic participant theory challenges reigning theories and offers a positive strategy towards the achievement of new forms of a media institution.

From the 1960s onwards voices have been raised for alternative, grass-roots media, expressing the needs of citizens. At the beginning of the 21st century, the media institutions are increasingly going into the private hands, denying democratic space to underprivileged sections of the population. The theory places greater importance on the receivers. There are no political regulations but some legal regulations. The theory is also known as Democratization theory.

Democratic participant media theory goes against the commercialization and monopolization of the media institutions. It holds the view that the bureaucratization of media would deny access to common people to utilize the public media organizations. The theory supports the right to relevant local information, the right to answer back, and the right to use the new means of communication for interaction and social action in small-scale settings of community, interest groups or subculture. This theory opposed the uniform, centralized, high-cost, commercialized, professionalized or state-controlled media. In its place multiple, small-scale, local, non-institutional, committed media which link senders to receivers and also favor horizontal patterns of interaction should be encouraged. This theory has a mixture of theoretical elements, including libertarianism, utopianism, socialism, egalitarianism, environmentalism and localism. Media institutions constructed according to the theory would be involved more closely with social life than they are at present and more directly in control of their audiences, offering opportunities for access and participation in terms set by their predecessors rather than by the controllers. The theory favors multiplicity of media and smallness of scale and operation. It also favors the

horizontal of communication at all levels. It argues media should exist primarily for the audiences and not for media organizations and professionals.

Principles. Democratic participant theory stands for defense against commercialization and monopoly while at the same time being resistant to the bureaucracy of public media institutions. The model emphasizes the role of the receiver in the communication process and integrates the receiver's rights to relevant information, to be heard as well as to hear and be shown. Unlike Social responsibility theory, which assumes that mass media can perform this function, Democratic-participant theory call for the development of innovative, 'small' media that can be directly controlled by group members. Media messages and content shouldn't be affected by bureaucratic and political control. Media should promote the interests and needs of the recipient but not the interests and needs of the media entity.

The main principles of this theory can be concluded as below:

- Media has a supportive rather than a critical role. It supports democracy, existing political rule, national socio-economic programs and development policies
- Encourages horizontal and bottom-up approaches in media. Groups, organizations and local communities should have their own media. Individual citizens and minority groups have the right to communicate.
- The organization and content of media should not be subject to centralized political and state bureaucratic control. But government controls some aspects of media is found to be undemocratic by means of registration, licensing, censorship, by preparing guidelines for media, monitoring, etc.
- Replacement of media from big media houses to small media
- Participation and interaction of media and audience
- Self-regulation of media is also encouraged

24.7. Practical outcomes.

The practical outcomes of the theory are many and varied, including the underground or alternative press, community cable television, micro-media in rural settings, wall posters, media for women and ethnic minorities. The theory reflects the market as a suitable institutional form, as well as all top-down professional provision and control. Participation and interaction are key concepts. The democratic-participant theory advocates media support for cultural pluralism at a grass-root level. Media are to be used to stimulate and empower pluralistic groups. If they cannot afford such media, then government subsidies should be provided to the existing small media should be identified and funded. Training programs should be conducted to teach group members as how to operate small media. Ethnic groups should be given access to media and allowed to revive or stabilize their culture. This theory has been most fully developed in Western Europe and is part of a grass-roots revival of historically significant cultural and ethnic groups. Many countries such as Yugoslavia, Kosovo, Ghana, Bangladesh, Nepal, India, US, UK, etc., have started following the theory of mass media. Community Radio is mostly popular in South East Asian countries. In Wales Welsh language programming has been successfully aired.

24.8. Limitations of the Theory

Although the ideas discussed the role of the media in society are still relevant, the attempt to formulate consistent theories of the press is bound to breakdown:

- ❖ Due to underlying interest and political ideology which are present in any society
- ❖ Due to the outdated notion of the press as providing mainly only political news and information. As for instance realistically speaking there is cinema, music industry, video market, or a good deal of sport, fiction and entertainment on television which is much more than the political information and news.
- ❖ It is unsatisfactory to leave it outside the scope of social-normative thinking
- ❖ These theories were also formulated in very general terms and did not describe or underlie any actual media system.
- ❖ The framework of theory was formulated largely from a North American perspective at one point in history taking little note of the distinctive features of public service broadcasting in other countries.
- ❖ Apart from the relative decline of print media and the rise of electronic media, other changes are underway in the media. The media are proliferating in their technical and institutional forms as much as in the volume of content produced and disseminated. This abundance of media is making it difficult to judge what counts as an indispensable service and what the respective roles of different media in society might be.
- ❖ The phenomenon of convergence of media has become prevalent and clarity with regard to boundaries between print, broadcast and telecommunication-based media are fading away.
- ❖ Media is also becoming Transnational in ownership, financing organization productions, distribution, content, reception, and even regulation.
- ❖ A related trend is conglomeration and the formation of large multi-media enterprises which not only cross-national boundaries but also lead to vertical and horizontal concentration. Conglomeration leads to fears of loss of creative independence and of cultural diversity. Due to this, there has been a general decline in public regulation of media and an increased role for the market in shaping the media. This trend is only partly a result of greater commercialization since it also reflects a general decline in normative certainties and an increase in libertarian thinking.

24.9. Media and new perspectives

In the fast-changing world and emerging challenges, the media has to evolve with new ideologies, perspectives on a regular note and ultimately design itself to be people-friendly.

Media and 'public interest'. A revised framework of normative principles for media structure and performance is proposed on the presumption that the media is widely expected to serve the 'public interest' or 'general welfare' whether by design or content but not the concept of 'public interest in media. This means, in practice, mass media should not be the same as any other business or service industry, but must often carry out some tasks, which contribute to the wider and long-term benefit of society as a whole, especially in cultural and political matters, over and above their own obvious goals. But this does not imply that media be obliged to conform to some version of the popular will or alternative be directed to carry out some particular mission as determined by the state or politicians. Often the view of the majority has been considered as public interest. Due to continuous debate, there is never a fixed version of public interest, it keeps changing.

Media issues of normative concern on which controversy has centered

1. Concentration and monopoly
2. News and information quality
3. Security and social order
4. Morals and decency
5. Cultural quality and commercialism
6. Cultural autonomy and integrity

To sum this up, according to Authoritarian theory, the media is controlled and censored by the governments. But the Libertarian pattern is completely free without any intervention of any authority or government. According to Social Responsibility theory, Press freedom is limited on the one hand but on the other hand, they controlled the press by raising questions and as per the Soviet Media theory, the whole control of the media is under the leader of the nation.

Concentration and monopoly. The new industrialized media order endangers democracy and freedom contained in the concentrations of power in the hands of press 'barons', especially in USA and Britain. This trend has continued and spread worldwide. The phenomenon of one-news-paper cities and the formation of large chains provoked fear of reduced freedom and independence of news and views. It has also threatened the balanced representation of opposed political views. And so a loss of political choice for the reader reduced opportunities for access to media channels and generally reduced media diversity.

News and information quality. The long-standing theme of the debate is the second concern for the general quality of the news about events of the day and of the world as supplied to the average citizen. These citizens depend on the media in order to reach informed choices and judgments. The press is often accused of sensationalism and superficiality of omissions, inaccuracy, falsification, lying and failure to cover international news in a comprehensive and balanced way. So the need is to resist warlike, nationalist and racist propaganda.

Security and social order. The most controversial issue is also that of the relationship of media to the security and authority of the state. Everywhere the authorities have shown a consistent inclination to manage the news even if they stop short of censorship. This is more in the case of broadcasting than with the printed press.

Morals and decency. Another issue of concern is the issue of morals decency and portrayals of matters to do with pornographic sex, crime and violence as well as the protection of minors from undesirable influences or the portrayal of women in a degrading manner.

Commercialism. The term commercialism has many meanings, but in one influential view, it stands opposed to a number of key socio, cultural values. Commercialization has been associated with manipulation, consumerism, lack of originality and creativity lead to homogeneity and neglect of minorities who do not provide profitable audience or advertising markets. Media should contribute to education, culture and the arts.

Cultural issues. Media is accused of failing to reflect the culture and the circumstances of their intended publics and may undermine the local language and cultural identity as a result of the transnational flow of content. It is a potential problem for countries that are under the influence of a foreign media flow for other reasons for instance India and Pakistan.

24.10 New Dimensions

In response to the above-mentioned ideologies, the media needs to be equipped with a few new dimensions

They are

1. Media freedom
2. Media equality
3. Media diversity
4. Information quality-objectivity concept
5. Social order and solidarity
6. Cultural order

Media Freedom. There are many versions of freedom enjoyed by human beings. Freedom is a condition, rather than a criterion of performance. It primarily refers to rights of free expression and free formation of opinion. However for these rights to be realized there must also be access to channels and opportunities to receive diverse kinds of information. Media freedom can be strengthened in the form of

- ❖ Absence of censorship, license, or other controls by government
- ❖ Unhindered right to publish and disseminate news and opinions, equal rights of free reception and access to news, views, education.
- ❖ Freedom for news media to obtain information from relevant sources.
- ❖ Absence of concealed influence from media owners or advertisers on news selection and on opinions expressed.

- ❖ An active and critical editorial policy in presenting news and opinion and a creative, innovative and independent publishing policy in respect of art and culture.

24.11 Benefits of communication freedom include

- i. Systematic and independent public scrutiny of those in power and an adequate supply of reliable information about their activities watchdog or critical role of media.
- ii. Stimulation of an active and informed democratic system and social life.
- iii. The chance to express ideas, beliefs and views about the world
- iv. Continued renewal and change of culture and society
- v. Increase in the amount and variety of freedom

Media equality. Equality requires that no special favor be given to power-holders and that access to media should be given to contenders for office and in general, to oppositional or deviant opinions, perspectives or claims. In relation to business clients of the media, equality requires that all legitimate advertisers be treated on the same basis at the same rates and conditions. It also implies that the normal principles of the market should operate freely and fairly. Equality supports policies of the universal provision in broadcasting and telecommunication and of sharing out the costs of basic services.

Media diversity. The diversity principle is applied to the actual media system and content with the following main elements.

- Media should reflect in their structure and content the various social, economic and cultural realities of the societies and communities in which they operate in a more or less proportional manner.
- Media should offer more or less equal chances of access to the voices of various social-cultural minorities which make up the society.
- Media should serve as a forum for different interests and points of view in a society
- Media should offer relevant choices of content at one point in time and also vary over time of a kind that corresponds to the needs and interests of their audiences.

Objectivity. The concept of Objectivity contains the following elements

- A position of detachment and neutrality towards the object of reporting
- Lack of partisanship
- Attachments to accuracy and other truth criteria
- Lack of ulterior motive or service to the third party

Main information quality requirements. The media should provide a comprehensive supply of relevant news and background information about events in society and the world around.

- Information should be objective in the sense of being accurate, honest, sufficiently complete, true to reality, reliable, and separating facts from opinion.

- Information should be balanced and fair impartial-reporting alternative perspectives in a non-sensational, unbiased way

Social order and solidarity. In respect of the relevant public which they serve at the national or local level, media should provide channels of intercommunication and support.

- The media may contribute to social integration by paying concerned attention to socially disadvantaged or injured groups
- The media should not undermine the forces of law and order by encouraging or symbolically rewarding crime or social disorder.
- In matters of social security such as war or threat of war or terrorism may be limited by consideration of national interest.
- On questions of morals, decency and tastes especially in matters of the portrayals of sex, and violence, and the use of language the media should in some degree observe the reigning norms or what is broadly publicly acceptable and avoid causing grave public offense.

Cultural order. Media content should reflect and express the language and contemporary culture of the people which the media service; it should be relevant to current and typical social experience.

- Some priority should be given to the educational role of the media and to the expression and continuity of the best in the cultural heritage of a country.
- Media should encourage cultural creativity and originality and the production of high-quality work according to aesthetic, moral intellectual and occupational criteria.

24.12 Summary

Development media is considered to be an updated version of Authoritarian theory. This theory promotes media support for governments and helps to bring about socio-economic development. The media must be supportive rather than being critical of the government and assist them in implementing their policies. This theory is mostly noticed in third-world nations. It opines that journalism should promote positive, good news, treat biased news stories with caution. It believes negative tones in journalism could damage the prospects of economic growth of a nation. The media seem to fulfill particular social and political duties. Media freedom should be subordinated to national integration, socio-economic modernization, promotion of literacy and cultural creativity.

The idea of the Democratic participant Theory was started in the 1960s. It emerged because of the dissatisfaction with other models such as [Libertarian theory](#), Social responsibility theory, etc. The democratic-participant theory believes there is democratic and professional hegemony in the media today and the media is totally commercial. All these ill practices should be removed for the media to be democratic and be easily accessible or participatory. It considers that the press should be pluralistic, decentralized, bottom-up or horizontal and must have equality. The major concept is participation and full circular communication. The theory places greater importance to the receivers. There are no political regulations but some legal regulations.

24.13 Self assessment questions

1. Write about the context in which development media theory emerged.
2. What are the basic principles of development media theory?
3. Discuss the significance of the Democratic Participant theory in contemporary society.
4. Elaborate the changes proposed by the Democratic Participant theory for media systems.

24.14 Suggested reading

McQuail, Denis (2010), *McQuail's Mass Communication Theory* (sixth edition)

McQuail, Denis (ed.) (2002), *McQuail's Reader in Mass Communication Theory*. Sage: London

McQuail, Denis and Karen Siune for the Euromedia Research Group (eds.) (1998), *Media Policy: Convergence, Concentration and Commerce*. Sage: London

McQuail, Denis 1992, *Media Performance: Mass Communication and the Public Interest*. Sage: London