

CENTRE FOR OPEN AND DISTANCE LEARNING

TEZPUR UNIVERSITY: NAPAAM: SONITPUR

SELF-LEARNING MATERIAL

**INTRODUCTION TO COMMUNICATION
AND MEDIA**

MMC 101

SELF-LEARNING MATERIAL

Course Code: MMC 101

Course Title: INTRODUCTION TO COMMUNICATION AND MEDIA

Course Advisors

Dr Abhijit Bora

Uttam Kr Pegu

A.Nagraj

Programme Coordinator/s

Uttam Kr Pegu

Course Contributors

P.Anbarasan, Associate Professor, Dept of MCJ, Tezpur University

Course Editor/s

Prof. CHSN Murthy, Dept of MCJ, Tezpur University

March 2012

@ CODL, Tezpur University

Published by

Director, Centre for Open and Distance Learning (CODL),
on behalf of Tezpur University.

The material provided here can be freely accessed but cannot be reproduced or reprinted for commercial purposes.

COURSE INTRODUCTION

PART -1

COURSE 1: INTRODUCTION TO COMMUNICATION AND MEDIA

- UNIT-1 : CONCEPT OF COMMUNICATION
- UNIT-2 : MODELS AND THEORIES OF COMMUNICATION
- UNIT-3 : PRINT MEDIA
- UNIT-4 : BROADCAST MEDIA
- UNIT-5 : NEW MEDIA

COURSE 2: EVOLUTION OF INDIAN MEDIA

- UNIT-1 : PRINT
- UNIT-2 : INDIAN LANGUAGE PRESS
- UNIT-3 : INDIAN PRESS AND FREEDOM MOVEMENT
- UNIT-4 : RADIO
- UNIT-5 : TELEVISION

COURSE 3: ADVERTISING AND PUBLIC RELATIONS

- UNIT-1 : INTRODUCTION TO ADVERTISING
- UNIT-2 : THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS OF ADVERTISING
- UNIT-3 : CURRENT TRENDS AND ETHICAL ISSUES
- UNIT-4 : INTRODUCTION TO PUBLIC RELATIONS
- UNIT-5 : MEDIA RELATIONS
- UNIT-6 : CORPORATE AFFAIRS & COMMUNITY RELATIONS

COURSE 4: REPORTING AND EDITING

- UNIT-1 : NEWS
- UNIT-2 : NEWS WRITING
- UNIT-3 : REPORTING
- UNIT-4 : EDITING
- UNIT-5 : PHOTO-JOURNALISM
- UNIT-6 : OPINION IN JOURNALISM

MMC 101: INTRODUCTION TO COMMUNICATION AND MEDIA

UNIT-1: CONCEPT OF COMMUNICATION

UNIT STRUCTURE

- 1.1 OBJECTIVES
- 1.2 INTRODUCTION
- 1.3 MEANING OF COMMUNICATION
- 1.4 TYPES OF COMMUNICATION
 - 1.4.1 BASED ON THE NUMBER OF PERSONS INVOLVED
 - 1.4.2 BASED ON THE MEDIUM
 - 1.4.3 BASED ON THE APPROACHES TO COMMUNICATION STUDIES
- 1.5 VERBAL AND NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION
- 1.6. DIFFERENT LEVELS OF COMMUNICATION
- 1.7 PROCESS AND STRUCTURE OF COMMUNICATION
- 1.8 MASS COMMUNICATION
 - 1.8.1 THE CONCEPT OF MASS
 - 1.8.2 MASS CULTURE AND POPULAR CULTURE
 - 1.8.3 FUNCTIONS OF MASS COMMUNICATION
- 1.9 HUMAN COMMUNICATION
 - 1.9.1 ORGANIZATIONAL COMMUNICATION
 - 1.9.2 TYPES OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMUNICATION
- 1.10 SUGGESTED READINGS

1.1 OBJECTIVES

A thorough study of this unit shall enable you to

- Define communication and explain its meaning
- Understand different types of communication
- Explain the communication process and structure
- Understand what mass communication is
- Explain what is distinctive about human communication
- To understand what organizational communication is

1.2 INTRODUCTION

Here we start with the meaning of communication and how it is explained by various communication scholars from their own perspectives. The term has acquired lot of importance and re-examination with coming of modern mass media in a big way preceded by advancement in technology. This new interest in the study has opened the flood gates to newer interpretations. [However this unit is written in easy to grasp format with basic understanding of the concept and its application in our lives.]

1.3 MEANING OF COMMUNICATION

Communication is a universal phenomenon and is central to our lives. It regulates and shapes all human behaviour like dreaming, talking to and arguing with someone, speaking in public, reading a newspaper, watching TV etc. All these are different kinds of communication.

Exchanging our thoughts, ideas and emotions with someone or other to satisfy our physical, emotional or other needs or to get work done is communication. Communication is an integral part of social living. Society cannot survive without communication.

The term communication comes from a Latin word ‘communico’ which means common or commonness. Communication therefore has a wider meaning than transmitting information from one person to another. In simple terms communication means transfer or conveying of meaning, however since the term encompasses wide range of human, animal, living and non living elements and activities, various scholars have defined the term differently.

Colin Cherry said, “Communication is transmission of stimuli”, while Charles E. Osgood defines it as “one system influencing another.” In the same vein Claude Shannon defined it as ‘One mind affecting another’. [Wilbur Schramm, the communication scholar who advocated it as a tool for development says, “it is the mechanism through which human relations exist and develop or it is the sharing of experiences on the basis of commonness”.]

Raymond Williams defines communication as “institutions and forms in which ideas, information and attitudes are transmitted and received’.

Cultural theories look at communication as “a symbolic process whereby meaning is produced, transferred and maintained’.

We may sum up some of these definitions by pointing out that communication is simply the process of sharing or exchanging of ideas, information, knowledge, attitude or feeling among two or more persons through certain signs and symbols.

Over the years the concept of communication has been subjected to numerous and diverse perspectives. Aristotle argued that communication is better understood as a perspective or contexts from which any act may be examined and understood. Therefore one communicates not only by speaking, writing or doing something, whatever one does not do also becomes a kind of communication. Sleeping in a meeting, walking away during a scuffle, keeping mum in an argument sometimes convey more powerful messages than the act of speaking. Thus whatever one does or does not do can be looked at from communication perspective.

Based on the above understanding we can describe the characteristics of communication as follows:

- a. Communication is a process
- b. It is dynamic
- c. It is social process
- d. It uses signs and symbols
- e. It is more than transmission of information

f. It is capable of using a medium

g. It is cumulative

When we say that it is a process, it means that communication has to be practiced rather than programmed or predetermined. This practice takes place in a particular time and space with unique situations -each and every time with different sets of persons and objects. It is never in a complete state. Communication contents like a film, novel or a newspaper is in a finished state. It becomes alive once a reader or audience starts reading or viewing it. It is because of this that we say communication is not static. In other words, it is a continuous process of encoding and decoding meanings in messages.

Communication involves multiple factors like spatial location, a particular time in history and individuals with particular social and cultural setting. The use of signs and symbols make this process a social and also complex. There are several variables even in the simplest of acts of communication which can yield volumes of meaning when we start interpreting them.

Human communication consists of verbal-both spoken and written, non-verbal involving gestures, and other body language. Any message is interpreted on the basis of previous experience and knowledge. That is why we say communication is cumulative without any perceivable beginning and end.

1.4 TYPES OF COMMUNICATION

Communication can be divided into a number of types on the basis various factors such as number of persons involved, medium of communication, intimacy level and approaches to communication studies.

1.4.1 BASED ON THE NUMBER OF PERSONS INVOLVED

a) Intrapersonal communication

b) Interpersonal communication

c) Group communication

d) Mass communication

We shall discuss these types of communication in a little detail later.

1.4.2 BASED ON THE MEDIUM

Verbal: It can be further divided into oral and written communication. Verbal communication uses languages either in oral or written form for communication. Only human beings have learnt the skill of developing verbal language for communication, some of them with intricate grammar, syntax and classical works. However, there are a number of ethnic communities who have only oral form of communication without any alphabet, written grammar and written texts. Some categorize them as dialect though the term dialect refers to different varieties or forms of the same language.

Verbal communication can have factual writing like journalism, or fictional writing like novels, poems or interpretative writing where different individuals or institutions interpret ideas and thoughts and events and history.

Non verbal: Non verbal communication is not exclusive to human beings. A lot of studies have been done on the way animals, birds and fishes communicate among themselves and with other species for their survival and supremacy.

Among human beings non verbal communication forms a crucial component of effective communication. Understanding gestures and body language has become important in managing interpersonal conflicts, marketing, social engineering and behavioural change communication.

Visual communication: it is the use of photograph, video, art, painting, graphs, maps and other images in communication. The modern society has become a visual-dominated society. No wonder *You Tube* and *Facebook* are common terms everyone understands. Even before the arrival of internet and dominance of photographs and graphics cinema had become the marvel of the 20th century. The icons of Indian history who have wax statues in London are film personalities.

As mentioned earlier, verbal and non verbal communication are related to language usage. The evolution of symbolic communication called language consists of words, gestures, grunts, body movements and positions, visuals, written and printed words. Various arts have grown out of the essential desire of human beings to express one self to others.

In the ancient times people communicated with cave paintings and gradually grew to more complex forms of communication systems.

In interpersonal relations predominantly we still have verbal and non-verbal communication. It is only the human beings who have developed spoken language. However, the sign language or non verbal form of communication exists not only among human society but also with animals, birds, fish. If we stretch this argument further, we can also say it exists among plants and trees, e.g., the flowers open when the sun rises, trees shed leaves during autumn, spreading their seeds through different techniques. All these are part of communication.

1.4.3 BASED ON THE APPROACHES TO COMMUNICATION STUDIES

Transmission model approach: this approach explore communication from transfer of message to one person or group of persons to other. It is linear in nature where the roles of the sender and receiver are fixed.

Ritualistic model approach: Ritualistic approach to communication interprets communication as social action where communication does not have any perceivable goal. Instead, communication is used more as a socialization context and not as an instrument.

Persuasive model approach: Persuasive approach studies communication as action oriented function, where campaigns for creating a favourable opinion towards persons or objects are carried out for commercial or social objectives. Advertisements, public relations, public service messages, political campaigns, social marketing etc. are part of persuasive communication

Expressive model approach: What is called as performing arts, such as dance, drama, theatre and singing or the earlier traditional art forms are part of this model of communication.

1.5 VERBAL AND NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION

It is said when people communicate they use less than 5 % of verbal communication and more than 95% of non verbal communication to convey the message in most of face to face communication. In this light, the importance of knowing the techniques of non verbal communication is important.

Paul Ekman and Wallace V. Friesen (1969) give five categories of non verbal communication: emblem, illustrators, affect displays, regulators and adaptors.

Emblems are those whose signs directly suggest words or phrases usually accompanied by vocal expressions or words. Thus beckoning by the hand is the emblem for 'come here', or showing two fingers in a 'v' shape indicates victory. Emblems are short-cut communication signals.

Illustrators accompany and reinforce verbal messages: the nod of the head, a supportive smile, leaning forward to show interest, sketching something in air with a finger or a hand, to point fingers etc.

Affect displays are movements of the face and body which hold emotional meaning, anger, disappointment, happiness, joy, shock, etc. Indeed, the whole lot of body language constitutes affect displays.

Regulators, according to Ekman and Friesen, are nonverbal actions which monitor and control the communication of another individual. This can take the form of getting feedback cues on one's conversation. We use nods, smiles, grunts, grimaces, ah-ha's, we shake our heads, we glance away, blink, pucker lips.

Adaptors are habitual behaviours used to make other person feel at ease during interactions: twisting a lock of hair, scratching, stroking the chin, wringing hands, fiddling with pen or jewellery.

Michael Argyle (1972) lists 10 codes of non verbal communication: bodily contact, proximity, orientation (how we angle ourselves to others), appearance, head nods, facial expressions, gestures, posture, eye movements or contact, and para-linguistics.

Thus non verbal communication conveys much of what we wish to say and much of what we would wish to withhold.

Affiliation, sexual attraction, rejection, aggression, dominance, submission, appeasement, fear, grief, joy are often best expressed through non verbal communication. However, when we study non verbal signs we must exercise caution in interpreting them universally because different individuals, people and cultures vary in the range of use of non verbal communication.

1.6. DIFFERENT LEVELS OF COMMUNICATION

Communication between members of a society can be divided into following types :

- a. Intrapersonal communication
- b. Interpersonal communication
- c. Small group communication
- d. Community communication
- e. Mass communication

Intrapersonal communication means all the activities of mental and physical nature carried out voluntarily or involuntarily within an individual. Mental activities like thinking; reflecting, introspecting are intrapersonal communications. There are also numbers of involuntary activities which go on both at physical and mental levels. For example, a person dreaming or aimlessly pondering are part of intrapersonal communication. It is the source of all other forms of communication like interpersonal and mass communication.

Interpersonal communication is interaction between two persons. This is the starting point of all social communication and human relationships. This is basic to all human beings equivalent to food, clothing and shelter. Human relationship and communication go side by side. Socialization is a social process of learning to become a member of society. Each child born into a socio-cultural system acquires the values, beliefs, and attitudes through the process of socialization as a member of a family, neighborhood, school, and others.

An important feature of interpersonal communication is feedback which is immediate because of proximity and has emotional appeal which is effective for motivation. In critical crisis situations like disasters, tragedy, success, depression the best form to empathize with the affected persons is interpersonal communication.

Besides, as in this form of communication they share the same space and time, the emotional and physical contact is high while the use of non verbal communication as the primary mode of communication becomes possible here.

Interpersonal communication in a face to face situation continues to be the most important of all communication in spite of all the hi-tech medium used these days.

Small group communication is interaction among a number of people having come together in an informal or formal composition to pursue a goal. Examples of such communication are family, hockey team, students in a class, workers in a section or self-help groups which are formal. Informal groups can be a group of hostages held, music troupes, alcoholic anonymous and others.

Group communication is essentially an extension of interpersonal communication where more than two individuals are involved. It provides opportunity for people to come together and discuss issues of common interest. Group communication, whether small or big, serves many goals including collective decision making, and self expression. Direct interaction within groups enables participation of each member and helps in bringing about changes in attitudes and beliefs.

Community communication can be called inter group communication whose workings are similar to group communication. However, they have structures of hierarchy and communication chain is

formed informally or formally. Examples of intergroup communication are: village *panchayats*, political parties, ethnic communities, etc. These kinds of set up have become important and powerful in modern day socio economic and political system where they function as centres of lobbying and bargaining power.

Institutional communication or organizational communication is the way communication system is followed in institutions like colleges, universities, industries, governments, courts, companies, etc. A more detailed look at organizational communication is given at the end of this unit.

Mass communication involves communication with a large audience. The channels through which mass communication takes place are called mass media. Any mechanical device that multiplies messages and takes it to a mass audience is called a mass medium and the process is called mass communication. These media include radio, TV, film and newspapers. Mass media require a large organization and electronic devices to put across messages.

Audience of mass communication is whosoever the recipient of mass media content is. Here the audience is large, heterogeneous, anonymous and physically separated from the communicator.

1.7 PROCESS AND STRUCTURE OF COMMUNICATION

The process of communication includes five fundamental factors: an initiator, a recipient, a mode or vehicle, a message, and an effect. In other words, communication process begins when a message is conceived by the sender. It is then encoded - translated into a signal or sequence of signals and transmitted through a particular medium or channel to a receiver. The receiver then decodes it and interprets the message, returning the signal in some way that the message has been understood.

During the communication process, sender, message and receiver are affected by a number of factors- both internal and external -which influence the message such as a person's appearance, his or her status, the expression on the face as the message is communicated and responded to.

Diagrammatically the process of communication looks as seen below;

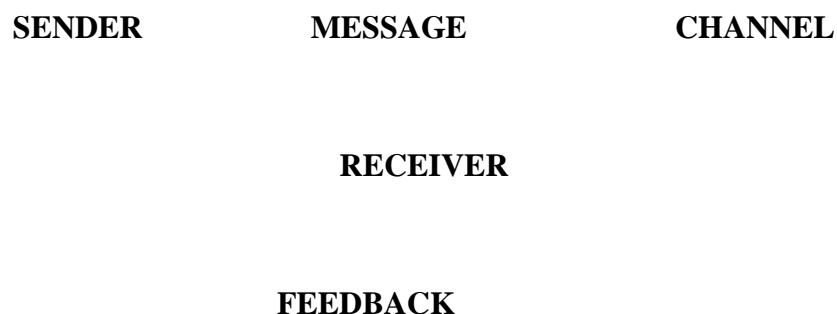


Diagram shows the process and structure of communication

The diagram shows that there are five basic components in communication, the sender, message, channel, receiver and feedback. It has a flow and they are all interdependent that is one cannot do without the other. This basic form of human components of communication seen in interpersonal communication can be applied to many other forms of communication too. However, in

interpersonal communication the roles of sender and receiver are interchangeable but in mass communication it is not so.

We shall see more variations in the process and structure of communication in the next unit where we look at different models of communication.

1.8 MASS COMMUNICATION

As we have seen the meaning of mass communication above, here we shall discuss some of the important characteristics of this type of communication. Generally mass communication refers to mass media but one must know it is not limited to that. Even before the arrival of mechanical means of media the traditional methods reached out to a large audience in propagating religious teachings and mythologies effectively. Folk media like dramas, *jatras*, plays and other performances using narratives of epics like The Ramayana and The Mahabharata were popular in Indian culture.

Today mass communication implies institutionalized forms of public message production and distribution, operating on a large scale involving considerable division of labour in their production, process and functioning through complex mediations of print, film, photography, radio, television and new media.

John B Thomson defines mass communication as a range of phenomenon that emerged historically through the development of institutions seeking to exploit new opportunities for gathering and recording information for producing and reproducing symbolic forms for transmitting information and symbolic content to a plurality of recipients in return for some kind of financial remuneration.

Let us discuss the modern usage of the term mass communication starting with ‘mass’ below:

1.8.1 THE CONCEPT OF MASS

Large aggregate
Undifferentiated
Mainly negative image
Lacking order or organization
Reflective of a mass society

Therefore mass audience for mass media is in

Large numbers
Widely dispersed
Non-interactive and anonymous
Heterogeneous
Not organized or self acting
An object of management and manipulation
Seen as mass markets, or in the context mass behaviour and encourages mass research

The negative and positive associations of the influence of mass media are related to the understanding of the concept of 'mass'. Early uses of the term usually carried negative associations: It referred to the 'multitude' or 'the common people' usually seen as uneducated, ignorant, irrational, unruly and violent. The term mass when applied to a set of people has unflattering implications. It suggests an amorphous collection of individuals without much individuality, also seen as an undifferentiated audience for the popular media, lacking order or organization, reflective of a mass society. However, it can also be seen in a positive way as in the socialist tradition which saw mass as connoting strength and solidarity of ordinary working people when organized for collective purposes or against oppression. It uses terms like mass support, mass action and mass movements.

Raymond Williams says "There are no masses, only ways of looking at people as masses".

Mass communication involves indefinite number of people as audience who are heterogeneous in nature consisting of different socio-economic, age, gender, rural and urban groups. Geographically, they are distributed in a wide area sometimes cutting across national boundaries. They are unknown to each other and a certain amount of anonymity exists in this type of communication. Participation in mass communication is assumed to be voluntary and not forced. However, in the modern day society mass media wields enormous influence in our day-to-day lives to the extent that it leads some to question whether it is a boon or a bane.

Therefore the characteristics of mass communication can be summarized as:

A technical means of production in terms of gathering, producing, storage, circulation and reproduction of information / messages.

It is an institutionalized form of production and distribution system where their operations, ownership and control are governed by established laws and the state.

In mass communication the media content becomes commodities of exchange where it can be bought and sold for a price in an open market.

Mass media has extended the availability of media production by overcoming time and space constraints. In other words, in order to consume a media product one need not be present in a specific location at a specified time. The use of satellite communication for direct telecast of matches and events cuts across space and all re-telecast of the events cut across time barriers.

Another added dimension of mass communication is that it deprives participants of directly meeting. But media acts as the mediator and people interact in this mediated space.

Mass communication produces programmes designed for many which are criticized for being calculative and manipulative to attract the largest audience. The relationship between sender and receiver is unequal and the message flow is one directional and impersonal.

1.8.2 MASS CULTURE AND POPULAR CULTURE

The typical content of mass media even from the start was diverse but a single concept of mass culture was used. Mass culture had a wider reference to the tastes, preferences, manners and

styles of the mass of people. It has a pejorative connotation because of its association with cultural preference of uncultivated, non-discriminating or just lower audiences

Mass culture means it is non-traditional and non-elite who are connected by mass produced media content with a popular appeal with commercial purpose, making the heterogeneous population a homogenized society unlike in the earlier traditional society.

1.8.3 FUNCTIONS OF MASS COMMUNICATION

Communication in general and mass communication in particular serves a number of important functions in the contemporary society, which can be divided into primary and secondary functions as per the following list:

Primary functions of communication

- a. To inform
- b. Instruct / educate
- c. Entertain
- d. Influence and persuade

Information has become a crucial factor in present day political and economic system with the democratic form of government. People need to be informed to be active participants in the political process and governance. Entertainment and creative endeavour is another essential quality of human beings. We need to spend our leisure usefully and creatively. Media is also used as an important tool for social change and persuasion by the state to adapt to modern practices of agriculture, health, education and eliminate social evils prevalent in the traditional culture. Advertisement being an important and indeed the main source of revenue for media, institutions, manufactures and companies advertise their products and images through mass media.

Secondary function

- a. Platform for debate and discussion
- b. Cultural promotion
- c. Foster creativity
- d. Cause integration and foster consensus
- e. Enable mutual understanding
- f. Achieve peace and harmony

The list of secondary functions need not be secondary at all times and for all people. At times they are primary too, for example in the globalizing world debate and discussion is important for directing the country's policy and programmes to desired ends. Media therefore is like a huge platform where all the stakeholders debate to make their points. Similarly, when the society faces continued conflict because of intergroup and ethnic group differences media can function as a platform for arriving at consensus through dialogue.

1.9 HUMAN COMMUNICATION

Human communication is the process of the sending meaningful messages from one person to another. These messages can be oral or written, visual etc. It takes place in the context of social customs, ways of dressing, gestures, buildings, gardens, army, flags and laws etc.

Human communication is distinct from machine communication. Nowadays scientists talk of artificial intelligence. Computers, networking, internet, robotics have changed the way machines communicate. They communicate by using binary decision making of what to do and what not to do.

When it comes to human beings we emphasize the sharing of concept more than that of transferring concept, because when human beings communicate more than the information it is the feelings, emotion, mutual trust and dependency and cultural moorings which come to dominate. Human need for communication is as strong and as basic and important as our need to eat, sleep and love.

According to Ashley Montague and Floyd Matson, 'human communication' is a clash of symbols and it covers a multitude of signs. Human communication covers more than messages, information and persuasion, it meets a deeper need of social acceptance.

Communication therefore is not a matter of isolated entities sending discrete messages back and forth, but a process of mutual participation in a common structure of rhythmic patterns by all members of a culture.

In human communication to create an ability to empathize with others is very important for the successful communicator. In order to empathize with others we should know more and more about them. One must also be aware of the number of the obstacles in the process of effective communication. That in technical term is called barriers of communication. There are four main barriers to communication physical, psychological, social and cultural barriers.

Physical barrier is related to quality of signals transmitted reaching the recipients. When two people converse at the backdrop of heavy traffic noise a huge volume of nuances in tone and emotion will be lost. The same will apply in poor light quality when a huge volume of nonverbal communication is carried out where also nuances will be lost. It refers to reduction in quality of auditory, visual, smell, taste, and touch signals due to atmospheric interference.

Psychological barriers relate to frame of mind which includes, attitudes, prejudices, beliefs, values, knowledge, skill and language proficiency.

Social barriers include social position of individuals like socioeconomic status, caste, religion, language, ethnicity, education, age, gender etc., which interfere with the way message is encoded and decoded or simply interpreted.

Cultural barrier in one sense is part of the social barrier and at the same time it is distinct because cultural codes are so varied and diverse in the world. For example, when a Tamil person speaks to a Hindi person perhaps in a common language like English there will be so much difference in

cultural codes that individuals will miss out a lot of details in the common process. The gap will be more if the culture is foreign, for example, between a Indian and Japanese.

Communication has made people live in a symbolic universe creating a social reality enabling constant interaction with one another and the environment, creating coherent stories to guide experiences.

Ten Cs of Communication

It is said that one must follow the 10 Cs of communication, be it interpersonal or mass communication. They are Clear, Concise, Credible, Channel, Content, Context, Contact, Consistency, Capacity, and Competence. Clarity is the opposite of ambiguity. An unskillful way of language usage especially those words which have multiple meanings can lead to distortion in understanding. Therefore good and effective communication must be clear, brief and to the point, using appropriate channel according to the content and establishing empathy in contact must be consistent. The persons both sender and receiver must be skilled and competent in language proficiency and capable of articulating effectively.

We can sum up human communication as a process of transmission of ideas, thoughts, feelings, behaviours from one person to another.

Communication therefore is a two way process and also a multi-way process making it a distinct social activity involving production, transmission, reception of symbolic forms.

This communication can be persuasive and seeks to obtain desirable response to what is being transmitted.

1.9.1 ORGANIZATIONAL COMMUNICATION

In the modern mode of production with management of organisations and its staff becoming an important factor let us look at what organizational communication is and what its functions are. While there are various types of organizations in our society the factors that determine the character of communication structure are ownership, goals and objective, technology, history, size, environment and the people etc.

C. B. Handy (1967) in his *Understanding Organizations* (UK: Penguin) identified four types of organizational culture which in turn affect the way in which they communicate. They are:

Power culture: In this type there is a central power source with rays of power and influence and communication spreading out from a central figure. Example of such organization is self-made business person running his or her own company. In social situation the recent Anna Hazare movement in India who campaigned for Lokpal Bill to fight corruption is another example.

The role culture: This is a bureaucratic structure with leadership, directors, governors, etc., represented by the different sections and departments. Here the communication flow is vertical and one way.

The task culture: This is a skill or ability oriented culture in which an employee is capable of doing a task that is more important than the position she or he holds. The model is net shaped

made up of interdependent strings. The leadership is flexible according to the task at hand. In technical terms they call it a *matrix structure of communication* in a shape of horizontal direction responsive to change.

The person culture: Here the organization exists for the individuals who make up the organization. The model is a galaxy of individual stars without hierarchical structure. Fan clubs of film stars and celebrities are examples of this type of organization.

In any organization, it is important to have open channels of communication, but how does information actually flow through an organization?

1.9.2 TYPES OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMUNICATION

Generally in any organization, there are five ways in which communication can move around. These five ways fall into two broad categories. They are: Structured and Spontaneous. Let us first look at the different types of structured communication in an organization.

Structured Communication

- i. Chain of Command:** Directives from senior management to junior executives.
- ii. Written Word:** Circulars, memos, manuals, handbooks, bulletins, newsletters, publications, etc.
- iii. Representative System:** Trade union representation, meetings, and discussions.

Spontaneous communication

- i. Informal Work Groups:** Informal leaders, group norms, discussions.
- ii. Gossip:** Get together (both inside and outside of work, recreation clubs, social gatherings).

1.10 SUGGESTED READINGS

- Banan, Stanley J. (1999). *Introduction to Mass Communication*, Mayfield Publishing Company.
- Emery E. et al., (1994). *Introduction to Mass Communication*, Harper Collins College.
- Hartley, Peter. (1997). *Group Communication*. Routledge.
- Hartley, Peter. (1999). *Interpersonal Communication*. Routledge
- McQuail, Denis. (2006). *Mass Communication (Four volume set)*. Sage publication
- Price, Stuart. (1998). *Communication Studies*, Longman.

MMC 101: INTRODUCTION TO COMMUNICATION AND MEDIA

UNIT-2: MODELS AND THEORIES OF COMMUNICATION

UNIT STRUCTURE

2.1 OBJECTIVES

2.2 WHAT IS A MODEL OF COMMUNICATION?

2.3 THE IMPORTANCE OF THE MODELS OF COMMUNICATION

2.4 BUILDING THE MODELS OF COMMUNICATION

2.5 TYPES OF MODELS OF COMMUNICATION

2.5.1 HAROLD LASSWELL'S MODEL (1948)

2.5.2 BERLO'S S-M-C-R, MODEL (1960)

2.5.3 SHANNON AND WEAVER'S MATHEMATICAL MODEL OF COMMUNICATION (1949)

2.5.4 CHARLES OSGOOD'S MODEL OF COMMUNICATION (1954)

2.5.5 THEODORE M. NEWCOMB'S MODEL (1953)

2.5.6 WILBUR SCHRAMM'S MODEL (1971)

2.6 EARLY MASS COMMUNICATION THEORIES

2.6.1 HYPODERMIC OR BULLET THEORY

2.6.2 PSYCHOLOGICAL THEORIES OR INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCE THEORY

2.6.3 TWO-STEP FLOW THEORY OF COMMUNICATION

2.6.4 SOCIOLOGICAL THEORIES OF MASS COMMUNICATION

2.6.4.1 CULTIVATION THEORY (GEORGE GERBNER 1967)

2.6.4.2 AGENDA SETTING THEORY (MAXWELL MCCOMB AND DONALD SHAW 1967)

2.6.4.3 DEPENDENCY THEORY (MELVIN DE FLUER AND SANDRA BALL ROKEACH)

2.6.4.4 USES AND GRATIFICATION THEORY (I. KATZE ET AL 1959)

2.6.4.5 ALBERT BANDURA'S SOCIAL LEARNING THEORY

2.7 MODERN MASS COMMUNICATION THEORIES

2.7.1 NORMATIVE THEORIES

2.7.2 SEMIOTIC THEORY

2.7.3 FRAMING

2.7.4 SPIRAL OF SILENCE

2.7.5 GATE KEEPING THEORY

2.8 CHANGING PERSPECTIVES

2.8.1 COMMUNICATION AND CRITICAL/CULTURAL STUDIES

2.9 SUGGESTED READINGS

2.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Describe different models of communication
- Learn different theories of communication
- Describe present trends in communication theories
- Know changing perspectives on communication

2.2 WHAT IS A MODEL OF COMMUNICATION?

Communication being an abstract phenomenon, the scientific attempts at systematically studying this phenomenon tried to break the process of communication into smaller units and constructed pictorial models. There was a sudden spurt of activities connected with unraveling the complex structure and function of communication after the world wars as it was felt that communication played a crucial role in winning or losing war as battles are not only fought in the field but more than that it is fought in the minds of the people. Because of this fact, the initial interest in model building during this period started with the effects or effectiveness of communication.

Thus the decades of the 1950s proved to be a fertile period for model building activity and other critical developments to the understanding of communication process.

A model tries to show the main elements of any structure or process or relationship between these elements. Communication model in simple terms is a mechanistic perspective of human communication that tells us at a glance how communication works. A model therefore is a pictorial representation to show the structure of the communication, to show how various elements are interlinked to create a whole and also to show how the communication flows. Models emphasize the physical elements of communication, the transmission and reception of messages flowing in a conveyor belt fashion.

A model represents or replicates in abstract terms the essential features and eliminates the unnecessary details of communication in real world. But it must be borne in mind that communication model or any model is an abstraction of reality – it comes close to reality as possible but it is not reality itself.

2.3 THE IMPORTANCE OF THE MODELS OF COMMUNICATION

Indeed scientific knowledge of communication and mass communication has moved a long way since the beginning of building the early models, but models continue to be relevant even today to explain the communication process and the evolution of the understanding the phenomenon over the years. Models are extremely useful to clarify ideas and for raising questions for further research.

The communication models

- Provide images of the whole that one may not otherwise be able to see
- Provide a general picture of otherwise diverse situations
- Help in organizing, ordering and relating systems
- Helps in explaining information in a simplified way which would be otherwise complicated and ambiguous.
- Models help us to predict outcomes or the course of events, assign probability of outcome.
- They provide us with a historical review of the progress in human understanding of how communication works

Thus communication models have been important in unraveling the process of communication from the simplistic version to a very intricate complex process of mass communication.

2.4 BUILDING THE MODELS OF COMMUNICATION

A number of scholars have come out with various types of communication over the years. They all begin building a model based on assumptions about how communication works and what effect it has on an individual or on society. A variety of models exist all of which strive to explain different components of the communication and the role each part plays in the total process. Models started with simple source-message-channel-receiver model consistent with the stimulus response model of behavior control and learning which was fundamental to psychology at that time but gradually more complex characters were continuously added. Therefore no model is universal and cannot be said to be valid for all times to come.

We can distinguish different types of models created and the starting point of their exploration of the phenomena on the basis of

- Aim
- A theoretical position
- Existing methods and tools
- Existing knowledge
- Looking at Communication is a process
- Study of models, moving from communication to mass communication

2.5 TYPES OF MODELS OF COMMUNICATION

As mentioned above communication models began with simple and basic elements and gradually grew more and more complex. A large number of communication models created by different theorists from different disciplinary backgrounds on the basis of the progression in the understanding of communication can be categorized on following basis:

- a. Verbal: Verbal model or symbolic model is simply the system stated in words. Harold Lasswell's model, David Berlo's SMCR model, and George Gerbner's 'general model' of communication fall into this category
- b. Physical models are diagrammatic or graphic. They are either iconic or analog. Iconic models look like what they represent but the scale differs (model of a car or an architectural model). Analog models, on the other hand, bear a structural relationship to the subject they represent but do not look like them e.g. computer can be said to be the analog of the brain
- c. Diagrammatic models are said to be better than any other as they are able to show the relationship between the parts.
- d. Based on the flow of direction e.g., linear, circular, spiral, triangular models.

Though the field of communication has changed considerably over the last thirty years, the models used in the introductory chapters of communication textbooks are the same models that were used forty years ago. This is, in some sense, a testament to their enduring value. They have

become a sort of classical models in communication. Here is a brief look at six of the basic models in communication.

2.5.1 HAROLD LASSWELL'S MODEL (1948)

Lasswell's model is the basic and most widely quoted of all models of the communication process. This is a symbolic and verbal model. The verbal model is simply a model stated in words. The model introduces several fundamental elements of communication process forming the starting point of understanding any communication.

The model is represented as:

Who says –what - in which channel - to whom - with what effect

I. Who- Identification of the source

II. What- the message content

III. Channel - choice of channel (which channel, e.g., face to face, electronic, print etc.)

IV. To whom- characteristics of the audience

V. What effect -evaluation of its effects.

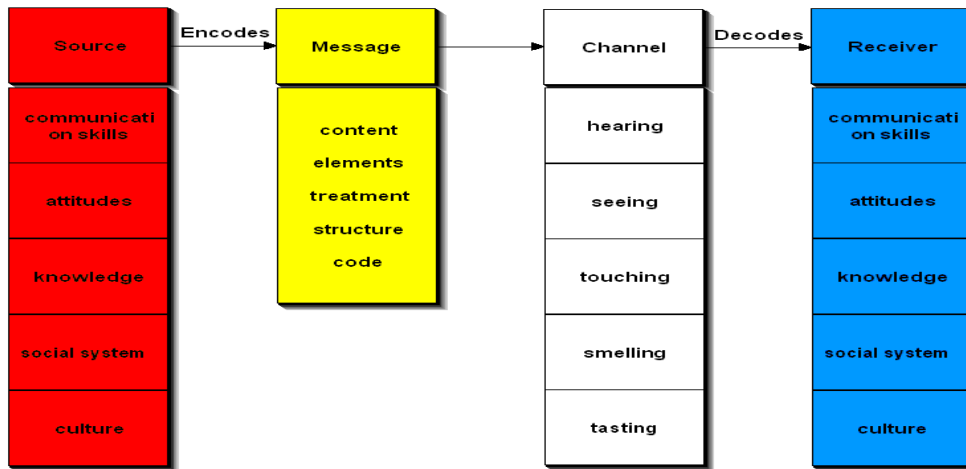
These are the five basic components of the communication process.

This model lays the greatest emphasis on the 'effect'. Effect means an observable and measurable change in the receiver that is caused by identifiable elements in the process. The model implies that any variation in one of the elements will alter the change in effect.

2.5.2 BERLO'S S-M-C-R, MODEL (1960)

Berlo's verbal and linear model is another basic model of human communication with emphasis on message that is the content and mainly in the context of interpersonal communication. The simplest and most influential message-centered model of our time came from David K. Berlo's work *The Process of Communication* (1960). Drawing from Shannon and Weaver's model of flow of message from source to receiver and Osgood's linguist model that introduced the concepts of encoding and decoding Berlo qualifies each element in the communication process.

Berlo's Model of Communication



A Source encodes a message for a channel to a receiver who decodes the message:
S-M-C-R Model.

Diagram -1 Berlo' SMCR Model

The idea of “source” includes oral, written, electronic, or any other kind of “symbolic” generator-of-messages. “Message” is made the key element in this model with stress on the transmission of ideas. The idea of “encoding” and “decoding” emphasize how we all (psycho-linguistically) translate our thoughts into words or other symbols and in deciphering the words or symbols of others into terms we ourselves can understand. This model also qualifies the receivers on certain criteria so as to understand the effectiveness of communication.

2.5.3 SHANNON AND WEAVER'S MATHEMATICAL MODEL OF COMMUNICATION (1949)

Shannon and Weaver in their *The Mathematical Theory of Communication* presented a schematic diagram of communication which became a landmark in communication studies and resulted in many other models of the communication process and research. Shannon and Weaver were the first to develop an engineering model of human communication. They were engineers working in Bell's telephone factory and focused on the technical efficiency of the channel by asking questions such as which kind of channel can bring through the maximum amount of signals? How much of transmitted signals will be destroyed by noise on its way from the transmitter to the receiver?

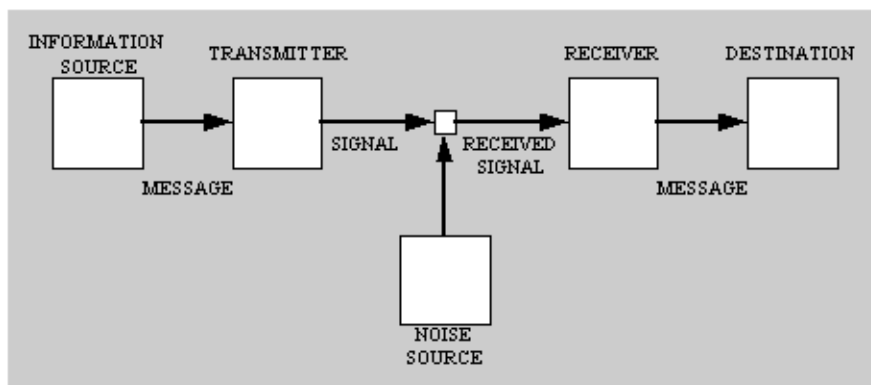


Diagram -2 Shannon & Weaver's Model

In this model communication is described as a linear, one way process. The model shows five functional elements of the process and one dysfunctional factor.

The model begins with an information source producing a message out of a set of possible messages. The transmitter converts the message to a signal suitable for the channel to be used. The channel is the medium that transmits the signal (air or some mechanical device).

The importance of Weaver and Shannon's model is that it is also linked to the introduction of the concept of noise. Noise in this model refers to disturbance in the channel that may interfere with the signals transmitted. The signal may be distorted by noise (too many signals in the same channel at the same time). The result may be a difference between transmitted and received signals resulting in distortion in the reception of the message. Noise is spurious (false, not what it appears to be) information. This creates uncertainty but it is easy to find traces of Shannon and Weaver's model in a number of later models. Later information Theory was based on the principle of Shannon's model.

2.5.4 CHARLES OSGOOD'S MODEL OF COMMUNICATION (1954)

Charles Osgood's model of communication is different from earlier attempts to explain the communication process. It does not follow the conventional pattern of communication from source to channel to receiver.

Osgood's model is developed from his theory of meaning and from the understanding of the psycholinguistic processes. Osgood looks at both the sending and receiving functions within one individual. He takes into account the meaning of symbols. While Shannon and Weaver's model implies separate sources, destinations, transmitters and receivers which may be true for a mechanical system it is not true of human communication systems. It is circular and communication takes places in a continuous chain. Individuals function both as source and destination, both as transmitters and receivers. By decoding and encoding, a person converts thoughts and feeling into signs and symbols as a member of a particular communication system.

Diagram - 3
Charles E. Osgoods Model

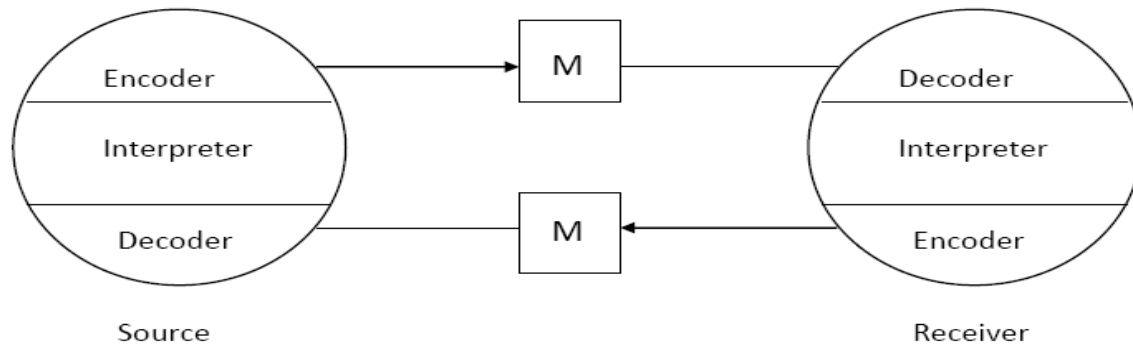


Diagram -3 Osgood's circular model

In this model the 'input' is some form of physical energy or 'stimulus' coded in form that is converted (decoded) to sensory impulses. Each person is a 'speech community' viewed as a complete communication system. Osgood stresses the social nature of communication. "Postures, gestures, facial expressions and even manipulation with objects.... may all be part of the message, as of course are (sounds).... These...message events (reaction of one individual that produce stimuli for another) may be either immediate or mediate" (to talk to two separate people or groups involved in a disagreement to try to find a solution to their problems)

He emphasized the point that each participant in the communication process sends as well as receives messages and as such encodes, decodes and interprets messages. So a person may be a source one moment, a receiver the next and again a source the following moment. This model is particularly useful to explain interpersonal communication.

2.5.5 THEODORE M. NEWCOMB'S MODEL (1953)

Theodore Newcomb's approach to communication is that of a social psychologist. Newcomb model is also called ABX model or triangular model because unlike other models it takes the shape of a triangle and its main significance is that it tries to explain the role of communication in society or in a social relationship. According to this model communication maintains equilibrium within a social system.

Diagram-4

Theodore M. Newcomb's Model

Diagrammatic representation of Newcomb's model

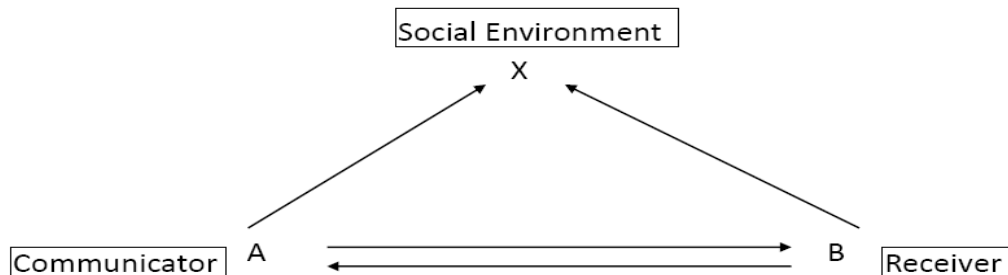


Diagram -4 Newcomb's ABX model

Here A and B are communicator and receiver. They may be individuals or groups, organizations or government, while X is part of the social environment about which they want to communicate. ABX is a system, which means that their relations are interdependent, that if A changes, B and X will change as well or if A changes his relationship to X, B will have to change his relationship either with X or with A.

The ABX system will be in equilibrium only if A and B have a similar attitudes to X. To explain further Newcomb talks about positive and negative attraction towards A and B as persons and a favorable or unfavorable attitude towards X.

Newcomb's model implies that any given system may be characterized by a balance of forces. Any change in any part of the system will lead to a strain toward balance and symmetry because imbalance is psychologically uncomfortable and generates internal pressure to restore balance.

Balance or symmetry enables a person to (A) be able to calculate the behavior of another person, (B) which means we have social and psychological support for the orientation we hold.

2.5.6 WILBUR SCHRAMM'S MODEL (1971)

Wilbur Schramm was influenced by the Weaver and Shannon and Model and at the same time he acknowledges the inspiration from Osgood's Model. Schramm does not make a sharp distinction that Shannon and Osgood make between technical and non technical communication

In an early series of models Schramm proceeds from a simple human communication model to a more complicated model that accounted for the accumulated experience of two individuals trying to communicate

The first model bears a striking similarity to Weaver and Shannon's model

Diagram- 5
Wilbur Schramm's Model

- The situation described below is like a conversation between two people in a face to face situation – back and forth. Feedback is critical to this process and due consideration has to be given to chances of noise disrupting communication

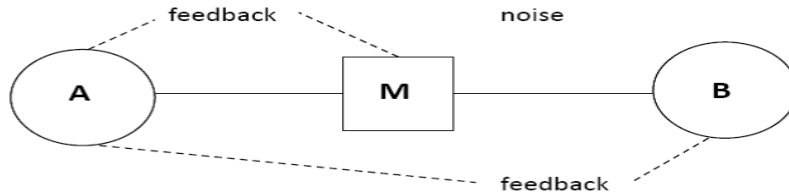


Diagram -5 Schramm's early model

Wilbur Schramm's 'general model of communication' has provided an overview of all the forms, elements and processes of communication

In this model Schramm stresses the need for feedback and noise which are considered central features of the communication process

- According to Schramm another way to get feed back is through one own response to one own messages i.e. we correct our own writing or pronunciation

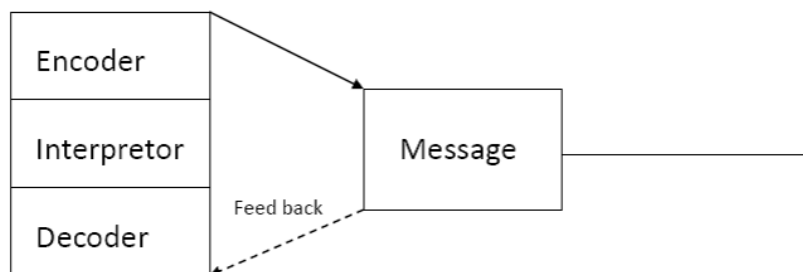


Diagram -6 Schramm's early model combines Osgood's linguistic elements

Feedback refers to the response the receiver makes to the source's communication

Noise is a concept taken from electronics to cover a multitude of phenomena that may disrupt communication –roadside noise or faulty transmission

- Schramm viewed communication as a complex social and cultural process
- a process of sharing experience and how the shaping and reshaping of experience takes place

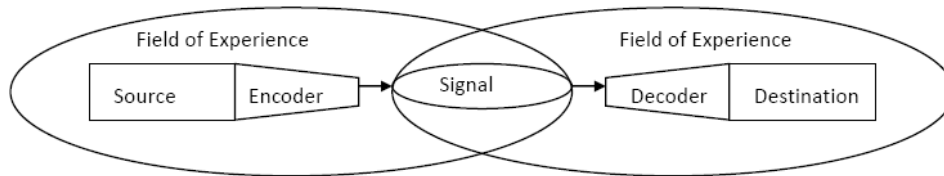


Diagram -7 Schramm's advanced model

The circles here indicate accumulated experience of two individuals trying to communicate. The source code and the destination decode only in terms of experience each one has had. If the circles have large areas in common, communication is easy. On the other hand, if the circles do not meet, communication is impossible or at best difficult

Schramm introduces the notion that only what is shared in the fields of experience of both the source and destination is actually communicated. Because only a portion of the signal is held in common by both source and destination

Schramm further elaborated the model to include the frame of reference of the persons participating in the communication process taking into account the wider societal situation and relationship both of which influence the communication process

2.6 EARLY MASS COMMUNICATION THEORIES

The present era is described as the information age. It is seen both with awe and suspicion by different individuals and society as rapid changes in information processing has been taking place faster than one can grasp. This gives rise to several questions about media and society. What do mass media do for society? Are mass media an outcome of changes in society? Or are they simply a response to certain demands? Are media merely reflectors or are they molders of society?

Going further into the role of media in society, other questions that are raised are a) how powerful is the media, b) whether it is doing public good and c) do media increase in integration or disintegration of larger human societies?

Answers to these questions and more came in the form of various communication theories that have been coming up since the beginning of media and communication studies.

Early theories were primarily based on the interest to find the effects of mass communication on society and individuals. How the influence of the mass media was to be interpreted was often a matter of the observer's personal attitude to modern society and the degree of optimism or pessimism in their social outlook. They were based on the assumption that mass media have an enormous and direct influence upon society. But later researches questioned this premise. Later researches went against any direct cause and effect relationship between mass communication and society. They focused on the importance of individual differences, personal influences on the transmission, acceptance and retention of messages. While sociological theories looked at mass media as an outcome of changes in society. Other theories showed how media ought or expected to behave under prevailing political and economic conditions. Most theories tried to give insights into the role of mass media in society and the way in which audience utilize different mass media.

2.6.1 HYPODERMIC OR BULLET THEORY

The Hypodermic Needle Theory, also known as the 'magic bullet' theory, says the media has a powerful and direct effect on audiences by 'injecting' them with messages. These theories reflect how the power mass media was used for massive propaganda during the World War II. Media was seen as being able to manipulate its audiences at will. This theory looks at media as bullets shot at defenseless and passive receivers. Audiences were seen as passive recipients of media messages. Media were seen as extremely powerful institutions and media consumers were naïve and malleable. It saw audiences as an enormous undifferentiated mass of humanity. And each member of the audience would respond identically to mass mediated messages. Later researches did not support such a view of audience.

2.6.2 PSYCHOLOGICAL THEORIES OR INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCE THEORY

Individual difference theories focused on different personality variables that resulted in different reactions to the same stimuli. Reactions to different media content differ according to motivation of the members of the audience and their predispositions to accept or reject media messages. Factors such as intelligence, beliefs, opinions, values, needs, moods, prejudices, perceptibility all contributed to the way individuals responded to media messages. As a result, selective exposure and selective perception limit the scope of direct impact of media messages

Selective Exposure

The meaning of selective exposure is that people tend to expose themselves to media messages selectively, more so to the messages that are in accordance with their established beliefs. They generally avoid those that question or challenge their beliefs. If by chance they are exposed to contrary opinions they selectively invest these hostile arguments with acceptable meanings, narrowing the gap between what they already believe and what they are invited to believe.

Selective Perception

Related to selective exposure is selective perception. Individuals tend to 'read into' the message whatever suits their needs. They attend to, interpret and retain messages that are related to their interests, consistent with their attitudes, congruent with their beliefs and supportive of their values

2.6.3 TWO-STEP FLOW THEORY OF COMMUNICATION

The two- step flow theory of communication is Personal Influence Theory. Lazarsfeld in his concept of 'People's Choice', revealed how people are not directly influenced by mass media in making political choices, how other people, particularly political 'opinion leaders', had a greater influence on people's decision making than mass media. Informal communication networks, and people talking to each other were seen to play a significant role. Thus emerged the Two-Step Flow theory of communication. Opinion leaders who had first hand access to mass media information passed it down, thus providing an important link in a two step flow of information.

Opinion leaders were more knowledgeable, educated, influential both socially and economically and more modern in their outlook. They were held in high esteem, and people relied on them for ideas and guidance

Multi-Step flow

Further studies led to the modification and re-conceptualization of the two-step flow theory because of the multi-directional influence of opinion leaders. Both the two-step theory and the multi step theory discredited the belief of the direct influence of the mass media. Extraneous and interpersonal channels and social relations of audiences, which were often complex, multi-directional and multi dimensional, proved more important

2.6.4 SOCIOLOGICAL THEORIES OF MASS COMMUNICATION

Sociological theories of mass communication are based on the assumption that there is a definite relationship between mass media and social change. Such theories address such questions as : Do mass media cultivate common beliefs about the world? Does the mass media set agendas for people? How do people use the media and why? Do media have control over the audience?

2.6.4.1 CULTIVATION THEORY (GEORGE GERBNER 1967)

Cultivation Theory argues that media shapes a person's sense of reality. Because many acquire information through mediated sources rather than direct experience, their world view becomes influenced by these sources. For example, Cultivation Theory suggests that people who would be defined as heavy television viewers see the world as more violent than it actually is. It is assumed that mass media had subtle influence on audiences Who in turn unknowingly absorb the dominant symbols, images, and messages of the media This results in the cultivation of a 'dominant image pattern.' Long persistent exposure to TV is capable of cultivating common beliefs about the world. Messages of TV do not portray reality in society. Repeated exposure to such distortion leads to a particular view of the world which gets reinforced once it is developed.

Gerbner also strongly suggests that the powerful effect of mass media acts cumulatively as molders of society

2.6.4.2 AGENDA SETTING THEORY (MAXWELL MCCOMB AND DONALD SHAW 1967)

Agenda setting theory maintains that the media sets an agenda for people telling people 'what to think about' rather than telling them 'what to think'. However many media thinkers felt the evidence was insufficient to show such a causal connection.

2.6.4.3 DEPENDENCY THEORY (MELVIN DE FLUER AND SANDRA BALL ROKEACH)

De Fluer and Rokeach proposed an integrated theory of mass communication recognizing both psychological and sociological factors that prevent the media from exercising arbitrary control on its audience. Mass media not only lack arbitrary influence or powers but also lack the personal freedom to engage in arbitrary communication behavior. Both the media and its audience are integral part of society. Surrounding socio-cultural contexts provide controls and constraints. This control is evident not only on media messages but also in the effects on the audience. Communication has an important role in holding society together. Individuals, the audience need to belong to the society

The need to understand the society and to keep up with society has increased the dependency on the media

2.6.4.4 USES AND GRATIFICATION THEORY (I. KATZE ET AL 1959)

The Uses and Gratifications Theory assumes that the audience actively seek out media to satisfy individual needs. With this assumption, the Uses and Gratifications Theory looks to answer three questions: what do people do with the media, what are their underlying motives for using the said media, and what are the pros and cons of this individual media use.

Since audiences are active and willingly expose themselves to the media, the content cannot influence an individual who has no 'use' for it in the environment in which he or she lives. The uses of the mass media are dependent on the perception, selectivity and previously held beliefs, values and interest of the people.

There is an underlying idea of function: For what purpose do people use the media?

In his study of soaps Bereleson (1948) revealed that people use it for emotional release and treat it as a school of life.

Gratification refers to the rewards or satisfaction people derive after media use. According to this theory communication effects can be more meaningfully explained in terms of enabling people to have a more meaningful relations between themselves and the world around them.

Three groups of Gratification theories can be distinguished:

- 1 Those who conduct inquiries into a range of satisfaction derived from mass media material.
- 2 Those that look at the social environmental circumstances that are responsible for people turning to the media.

3 Lastly the needs the members of the audience are trying to satisfy.

2.6.4.5 ALBERT BANDURA'S SOCIAL LEARNING THEORY

Albert Bandura's Social Learning theory is based on the concept of reinforcement. Individual is seen as making choices about behavior and seeks reinforcement from the environment. This is also called the 'Modeling theory' because it presumes that people adopt certain behavior by watching other people's behavior and its consequences. If the consequence is positive then there is a positive reinforcement of that behavior and the viewer will tend to copy/use it as a model for his or her own behavior. So people set goals that give positive rewards and adopt behavior which has the potential to achieve those goals. People interpret behavior and its consequences in terms of reward and punishment. Choices are made by perceived success or failure of the past as well as by anticipated consequences

2.7 MODERN MASS COMMUNICATION THEORIES

The world today is so much different than what it was 60 years back when scientific attempts at unraveling the mass communication as an institution began. The changes have come in all spheres, science, education, world politics, international order, trade and commerce, technology, social institutions, and global interconnectedness. In all of these media has been part and parcel of continuity and change. Various newer perspectives have emerged since the early interpretations of media had come up. Let us look at some of the key modern mass communication theories.

2.7.1 NORMATIVE THEORIES

American media analysts Siebert, Peterson and Schramm (1956) in their Four Theories of the Press, later modified by McQuail (1983) list the following:

- a. Authoritarian theory
- b. Free press theory
- c. Social responsible theory
- d. Soviet Media theory
- e. Development theory
- f. Democratic-Participant theory

Normative means how the media should be, or what it is expected from them rather than what is actually practiced by them. Normative principles arise in the background of political, social, economic and cultural conditions of a place and these are determined mainly by the system of the State.

The Authoritarian theory helps to understand media in a State where dictators and military powers rule. Here the media freedom does not exist but is controlled by those in power or those who support them. Their aim is ensure that media does nothing to undermine the authority and must respect the majority and dominant values. Under this theory censorship is a norm.

Libertarian theory or Free Press theory is part of liberal democracies. According to this theory free and public expression is the best way to arrive at truth and expose lies. The flaw with this system is that notions of freedom goes with private and profit oriented media ownership as seen in the west.

The Social Responsibility theory believes in freedom so long as it is used for public good. Freedom is desirable so long as it is obliged to the society. Here media are considered the watchdog of the people against the abuse by private or government powers. The emphasis here is on media accountability.

Soviet Media theory derives from the Marxian principles. Here the media should serve the interest of the socialist state, where the state consists of the aspirations of classless society. The task of the media is to educate, inform, motivate, and mobilize in the principles of socialist society.

Development Media theory rose in the context of post colonial independent states which were in the path of socioeconomic and political development. It supports media content towards self - reliance, autonomy and cultural identity. Here freedom should be allowed within the limits of nation's economic and cultural priorities of development needs.

The recent addition to the normative theory is Democratic-Participant Media theory whose tenets are mix of other theories mentioned above. The underpinnings of this theory include libertarianism, socialism, egalitarianism, and localism. Individual rights to information and minority rights are important in this theory. Media should be answerable, free of government or big business intervention and participatory.

2.7.2 SEMIOTIC THEORY

Semiotics means systematic study of signs. Since human communication consists of language, which is made up of signs and symbols, semiotics looks at the way of making and deriving meanings from signs. Ferdinand de Saussure, a linguist and Charles Peirce a philosopher's proposals on understanding signs have been used to study the complex communication system embedded in socio-cultural environment.

Saussure says that a language is a system of signs, which signify objects. He views all these signs as abstract and arbitrary without any direct relation between the signs used and the objects they refer to. It is because of this arbitrary relation that the meanings are not fixed; rather they are highly fluctuating and signs take on newer meanings with changing context and users. Saussure conceives the system of language including written and spoken words, sentence and grammar etc., as 'langue' and the practice of the language by the speakers or writers as 'parole'.

He also breaks a *sign* into *signifier* and the *signified* which means that while the signifier in the sign is the reference or like names to any object or idea, the signified is the way it evokes number of associations of ideas of that signifier in the minds of the users.

For example, if the signifier "God" is used, everyone in a culture will recognize this word as part of their language. However, the signified applied to "God" by someone who is a Hindu will be different than someone who is a Muslim or a Jain. Further, even among Hindus there will be no

uniformity as to what "God" means. The degree of "sharedness" reflects the full potential for communication while the degree of "difference" represents the degree of potential for misunderstanding.

Peirce's theory is similar to Saussure but more applicable to visual language.

2.7.3 FRAMING

Framing theory of media looks at content presented in "Frames", which means the way in which we interpret media content presented to us. These frames function as a way to organize social meanings. Since the media decides what we view and how we view it, they also influence the way in which we interpret information. In a sense, they tell us what to think about, and how to think about it.

The concept of framing is related to the concept of agenda-setting theory but goes much further by focusing on the presentation of the issues. The basis of framing theory is that the media focuses attention on certain events and then places them within a field of meaning.

Frames are abstract notions that serve to organize or structure social meanings. Framing is a quality of communication that leads others to accept one meaning over another. It is a skill with profound effects on how organizational members understand and respond to the world in which they live. It is a skill that most successful leaders possess, yet one that is not often taught.

Fairhurst and Sarr (1996) describe a lot of possibilities to frame situations: a) Metaphor: To give an idea or program a new meaning by comparing it to something else; b) Stories (myths and legends): To frame a subject by anecdote in a vivid and memorable way; c) Traditions (rites, rituals and ceremonies): To pattern and define an organization at regular time intervals to confirm to and reproduce organizational values; d) Slogans, jargons and catchphrases: To frame a subject in a memorable and familiar fashion; e) Artifacts: To illuminate corporate values through physical vestiges (sometimes in a way language cannot); f) Contrast: To describe a subject in terms of what it is not; and g) Spin: to talk about a concept so as to give it a positive or negative connotation (Deetz, Tracy & Simpson, 2000).

Examples of much-used frames include the 'war on drugs', or a person's 'battle with cancer', or phrases that elicit widely shared images and meanings.

2.7.4 SPIRAL OF SILENCE

The Spiral of Silence theory states that people are less likely to express their opinions if they are in the minority. This happens because they fear that they will be isolated by the majority and suffer social rejection.

Noelle-Neumann Neumann (1974) introduced the "spiral of silence" as an attempt to explain in part how public opinion is formed. She wondered why the Germans supported wrong political positions that led to national defeat, humiliation and ruin in the 1930s-1940s.

The phrase "spiral of silence" actually refers to how people tend to remain silent when they feel that their views are in the minority. The model is based on three premises: 1) people have a "quasi-statistical organ," a sixth-sense if you will, which allows them to know the prevailing public opinion, even without access to polls, 2) people have a fear of isolation and know what behaviors will increase their likelihood of being socially isolated, and 3) people are reticent to express their minority views, primarily out of fear of being isolated.

The closer a person believes that the opinion held is similar to the prevailing public opinion, the more they are willing to openly disclose that opinion in public. Then, if public sentiment changes, the person will recognize that the opinion is less in favor and will be less willing to express that opinion publicly. As the perceived distance between public opinion and a person's personal opinion grows, the more unlikely the person is to express their opinion.

2.7.5 GATE KEEPING THEORY

Kurt Lewin used term "gate keeping" by an analogy of the wife or mother as the person who decides which food ends up on the family's dinner table (Lewin, 1947). The gatekeeper is the person who decides what shall pass through each gate section, of which, in any process, there are several. He added the gating process to news item winding through communication channels in a group. This is the point from which most gatekeeper studies in communication are launched. White (1961) was the person who seized upon Lewin's comments and turned it solidly toward journalism in 1950. In the 1970s McCombs and Shaw took a different direction when they looked at the effects of gatekeepers' decisions. They found that the audience learns how much importance to attach to a news item from the emphasis the media place on it. McCombs and Shaw pointed out that the gate keeping concept is related to the newer concept, agenda-setting (McCombs et al, 1976).

Gatekeepers are able to control the public's knowledge of the actual events by letting some stories pass through the system but keeping others out. Gatekeepers can also be seen as institutions or organizations. In a political system there are gatekeepers, individuals or institutions which control access to positions of power and regulate the flow of information and political influence.

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

In the mass media the focus is on the organizational structure of newsrooms and events.

A wire service editor decides alone what news audiences will receive from another continent. The idea is that if the gatekeeper's selections are biased, the readers' understanding will also be a little biased.

2.8 CHANGING PERSPECTIVES

Modernization theories explain the changing ways of communication and media use in traditional and (post)modern societies. Modernization process on human communication means the appearance of 'modes of social life or organization which emerged in Europe from about the seventeenth century onwards and which subsequently became more or less worldwide in their influence' (Giddens, 1991).

One made the attempt to explain the diffusion of Western styles of living, technological innovations and individualist types of communication (highly selective, addressing only particular persons) as the superiority of secular, materialist, Western, individualist culture.

The second wave of modernization theory is a part of the critical theory that was popular in the 1970s and 1980s. It does not support but criticizes the influence of Western modernization (Schiller, 1976).

The third wave of modernization theory rising in the 1990s is the theory of late or post modernity. It tries to be more neutral, being not in favour or against Western modernization. Rather it attempts to unearth the contradictions in the modernization process and to explain the consequences of modernity for individuals in contemporary society (Giddens, 1991).

Traditional society is based on direct interaction between people living close to each other while modern society is characterized by time-space distantiation and disembedding (Giddens 1991). Modern societies stretch further and further across space and time using mass media and interactive media.

2.8.1 COMMUNICATION AND CRITICAL/CULTURAL STUDIES

Critical discourse studies are emerging as the most suitable methods of enquiry in the present context. They study communication as a theory, practice, technology, and discipline of power. Scholars apply critical inquiry that cuts across academic boundaries to focus on social, political, and cultural practices from the standpoint of communication. It promotes critical reflection on the requirements of a more democratic culture by paying attention to subjects such as, but not limited to, class, race, ethnicity, gender, ability, sexuality, polity, public sphere, nation, environment, and globalization.

Collectively, they analyze historical contexts, material and economic conditions, institutional settings, political initiatives, practices of resistance, and/or the theoretical significance of discursive formations in everyday life.

2.9 SUGGESTED READINGS

- Dance Frank (1967). *Human Communication Theory: Original Essays*, US: Rinerhart & Winston.
- McQuail, Denis. (2005). *McQuail's Mass Communication Theory*, Sage Publications.
- Stone, Gerald, Singletory, Michael & Richmond, Virginia P. (2003). *Clarifying Communication Theories*, Surjeet Publications.
- McQuail, Denis. (2006). *Mass Communication (Four volume set)*. Sage publication
- Sereno K.K., and Mortensen (eds). *Foundations of Communication Theory*, Sage publication.

MMC 101: INTRODUCTION TO COMMUNICATION AND MEDIA

UNIT-3: PRINT MEDIA

UNIT STRUCTURE

3.1 OBJECTIVES

3.2 INTRODUCTION

3.3 PRESENT SCENARIO

3.3.1 NEWS AGENCIES

3.3.1.1 PRESS TRUST OF INDIA

3.3.1.2 UNITED NEWS OF INDIA

3.3.2 PRESS COUNCIL OF INDIA

3.3.3 PRESS INFORMATION BUREAU

3.4 HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE PRESS IN INDIA

3.5 PRESS DURING THE FREEDOM STRUGGLE

3.6 NATIONAL AND REGIONAL PRESS

3.6.1 PRESS IN ASSAM

3.6.1.1 THE ORIGIN AND GROWTH OF ASSAMESE PRESS

3.7 MAGAZINES IN INDIA

3.8 SUGGESTED READINGS

3.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this Unit you will be able to

- explain the importance of print media
- trace the historical development of press in India
- discuss the dynamics of media (Print) adaptation to changes
- understand and explain the role press plays in safeguarding people interest
- discuss the status of press in Assam
- explain the distinctive place the magazines occupy

3.2 INTRODUCTION

Print media is still the mother of all media. It continues to be relevant in developing countries to play a socially responsible role. Indian press have travelled a long way in more than 200 years of its momentous journey. It has withstood the test of time and technology and adapted to changes.

This Unit provides an insight into the role of press in the process of democratization that has been going on over the years. Today Indian press is formidable in size and numbers and the readership and circulation of newspapers continue to grow in spite of the pitfalls.

3.3 PRESENT SCENARIO

Today India has one of the most diverse ranges of dailies, weeklies, monthlies and other periodicals in an array of languages. The print media in India is more than 230 years old. The total number of registered Newspapers/Periodical was 69,323 as on 31 March 2008. There were 7,710 dailies, 379 tri/biweeklies, 23,414 weeklies, 9,053 fortnightlies, 20,948 monthlies, 4,687 quarterlies, 605 annuals, and 2,518 of the other periodicity. According to the report submitted by the Press Registrar for the year 2007-08, newspapers were registered in 123 languages and dialects. Apart from English and 22 other principal languages listed in the Eighth Schedule of the Constitution, newspapers were registered in 100 other languages and dialects mostly Indian but also in a few foreign languages. Orissa had the distinction of publishing newspapers in 18 out of 23 principle languages. Maharashtra came next with publication in 17 languages followed by Delhi with publications in 16 principle languages.

The largest number of newspapers and periodicals registered in any Indian language is in Hindi (25,527). The second largest number of newspapers and periodicals registered in any language is in English (10,000). The state with the largest number of registered newspapers is Uttar Pradesh (10,799), followed by Delhi (8,545) (India Year Book 2010).

The story of the modern day journalism in India began during the British rule in 1780 with the first newspaper, “Bengal Gazette” also called “Calcutta General Advertiser” launched by James Augustus Hickey. The paper carried a tagline “a weekly political and commercial paper open to all parties but influenced by none”. Though the story of Bengal Gazette ended in less than two years, it set the stage for emergence of a vibrant print media in the country.

Media in general and print in particular has undergone massive transformation after the process of unleashing economic reform in India. Competitions from electronic media have made the print to adapt to the new environment. The English language press have led the changed structure, professionalism and technologies. Newspapers like the *The Hindu*, *The Times of India*, *The Indian Express*, *The Telegraph*, *The Hindustan Times* etc tend to influence the elites.

Globalization and liberalization have created a demand for more economic and business news leading to increase in business and economic journalism with a number of special newspapers such as *The Economic Times*, *The Financial Express*, *Business Standard*, *Business India*, *Business World*, *Business Line* and *The Mint*. The growth rate of business dailies has been almost 200 per cent while that of general English papers was 15 per cent between 1991 and 1995.

Newspapers in general focus on political news with other regular additions on science, business, entertainment, agriculture and technology. The print media includes the quality newsmagazines like *The Outlook*, *India Today*, *The Week* and *Frontline*.

India has four major national news agencies and many regional agencies. The Press Trust of India (PTI), the United News of India (UNI), Hindustan Samachar, and Samachar Bharati are the major national agencies. The Press Information Bureau (PIB) serves as source of information on the government.

Colour was a revolution for newspapers. Colour pullouts in newspaper were a response to the success of many general and specialized magazines.

3.3.1 NEWS AGENCIES

3.3.1.1 PRESS TRUST OF INDIA

Press Trust of India (PTI) is a cooperative owned by the country's newspapers to provide unbiased news to all subscribers. The PTI began functioning from 1 February 1949. It offers its news services in English and Hindi. *Bhasha* is the Hindi language news service of the agency. The agency has more than 500 newspapers and most TV/radio channels in India and several abroad, including BBC in London, as the subscriber base.

The PTI now has its own satellite delivery system through a transponder on an INSAT satellite for reaching its services directly to subscribers anywhere in the country in addition to providing service through the Internet.

The Photo service is delivered by satellite. The agency is now engaged in archiving its photos dating from 1986 when the photo service was launched. PTI has 80 bureaus across the country and foreign correspondents in major cities of the world including Beijing, Colombo, Dhaka, Dubai, Islamabad, Kathmandu, Kuala Lumpur, London, Moscow, New York and Washington. In addition, about 350 stringers contribute to the news file at home while 20 PTCs bringing news from rest of the world. The agency has also a network of photo stringers across the country numbering about 200. Besides the news and photo services, the other services of the agency include mailer packages of features on science and economy.

A television wing, PTI-TV, does features and undertakes corporate documentaries on assignment basis.

PTI is also a participant in Asianet, a cooperative arrangement among 12 news agencies of the Asia-Pacific region, for distribution of corporate and government press releases.

3.3.1.2 UNITED NEWS OF INDIA

United News of India (UNI) started functioning from 21 March 1961. It became the first news agency in India to launch a full-fledged Hindi wire service 'UNIVARTA' in 1982 and a Photo Service and a Graphics Service in the same decade. In the early 90s, it launched the first-ever wire service in Urdu. UNI is the first Indian news agency to deliver its entire news services in English and Hindi as well as its Photo Service through the Internet. Subscribers can download the stories and pictures from the UNI and UNIVARTA.

3.3.2 PRESS COUNCIL OF INDIA

Press Council is a statutory quasi-judicial authority to preserve the freedom of the press and maintain and improve the standards of newspapers and the news agencies in India. The Council comprises a Chairman

and 28 members. The Chairman conventionally has been a sitting or retired judge of the Supreme Court of India.

The Council has its own funds for performance of its functions under the Act that comprises the fee collected by it from newspapers and other receipts and grants from the central government. The Council discharges its functions primarily through arbitrating on complaints received by it either against the press for violation of journalistic ethics or by the press for interference with its freedom. Where the Council is satisfied, after inquiry, that a newspaper or a news agency has offended against the standards of journalistic ethics or public taste or that an editor or working journalist has committed any professional misconduct, the Council may warn, admonish or censure them or disapprove of their conduct. The Council is also empowered to make such observations as it may think fit in respect of the conduct of any authority, including the government, for interfering with the freedom of the press. The decisions of the Council are final and cannot be questioned in any court of law.

3.3.3 PRESS INFORMATION BUREAU

The Press Information Bureau (PIB) is the agency of the government to disseminate information to the media on government policies and programmes. It functions as an interface between the government and the media. The PIB also provide feedback to the government on people's reaction as reflected in the media. PIB disseminates information through different modes of communication viz. Press Releases, Press Notes, Feature Articles, Backgrounders, Press Briefings, Press Conferences, Interviews, Photographs, Database available on Bureau's website and Press Tours etc.

3.4 HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE PRESS IN INDIA

The history of Indian journalism begins with James Augustus Hickey's *Bengal Gazette* or *Calcutta General Advertiser* launched on January 29, 1780. But the East India Company ruling the country forced Hickey to close down his paper with less than two years of running. However, before Hickey started printing newspaper, the Christian missionaries brought the printing machines to India in the 15th and 16th centuries to publish religious literature.

Calcutta is considered the birthplace of Indian journalism. Another British journalist who championed the spirit of press is James Silk Buckingham. He edited *Calcutta Chronicle* which was launched on October 2, 1818. Buckingham defended press freedom and voiced the opinion of the Indian people. He too was deported back to England in 1823.

The first newspaper in an Indian language was the *Samachar Darpan* in Bengali. The first issue of this daily was published by the Serampore Missionaries in 1818. The Indian pioneer who added value to journalism was Raja Ram Mohun Roy. In 1821 he started a Bengali paper *Sambad Kaumudi* and in the following year in 1822 he started *Mirut-ul-Akhbar* a Persian weekly. Due to the British suppressive regime Roy closed down his papers in protest after one year. He published many other papers, another

distinguishing being *Brahminical Magazine*. He aimed to bring about social reform in the Hindu society. He attacked social practices like Sati as evil.

Overall, in the early stages of the press two opposing tendencies marked Indian journalism, one supporting the English regime and the other marked the struggle against the authority whether British or Indian and also promoted social, religious, educational and political reforms.

In Bombay the first newspaper, the *Bombay Herald* appeared in 1789, followed by the *Bombay Courier* next year (this newspaper was later amalgamated with the *Times of India* in 1861). In then Madras the year 1785 saw the first paper *Madras Courier*.

On July 1, 1822 the first Gujarati newspaper, the *Bombay Samachar* was published from Bombay and is still being published. The first Hindi newspaper, the *Oodunt Marthand* began in 1826. Since then, newspapers have grown in all the prominent Indian languages.

Emergence of prominent Indian newspapers was seen in the nineteenth century. In Calcutta *Amrita Bazar Patrika* came out in 1868. *The Statesman* was founded by Robert Knight in 1875. He earlier started the *Times of India* in 1861 in Bombay by merging three papers. *The Hindu* was founded by G. Subramania Aiyer in 1878. Rudyard Kipling, Indian born British added to the journalistic profession with his service in *The Pioneer* in Allahabad and *Civil and Military Gazette* founded in Lahore in 1872.

Many reform minded writers used the press to attack Hindu practices such as child marriage, untouchability, and advocated widow remarriage and abolition of caste.

Today press in India has really evolved into a professional and market oriented business. It has introduced new technologies, designs, and supplements and colour printing. Computerized typesetting and design and print facsimile editions have become common practice. Many newspapers have websites that add value to the profession and the readers.

3.5 PRESS DURING THE FREEDOM STRUGGLE

During the freedom struggle the Indian press was subjected to suppression and intimidation. Many journalists and editors were jailed, the printing press impounded but press by and large stood for freedom movement and opposed the British rule.

Especially after 1867 the press was seriously engaged in the nationalist struggle against British Raj. Well known personalities like, Bal Gangadhar Tilak, M.G. Ranade, Dadabhai Naoroji and others used the press as a platform to advocate reforms and protest against colonial injustices. Some the newspapers that took the cause strongly are *Indu Prakash*, *Kesari*, and *Mahratta*.

The British government enacted the 1878 Vernacular Press Act to prevent the Indian language press from being critical of the British rule. The leaders of Indian National Congress, founded in 1885, like

Surendranath Banerjee, Bipin Chandra Pal, G. Subramania Aiyer, Motilal Ghosh, Narandranath Sen, Bal Gangadhar Tilak and Dadabahi Naoroji were active in journalism.

The entry of Mahatma Gandhi into journalism by owning and editing newspapers to advance his ideas was important. His *Young India* (1919), *Harijan* (1932) and the Gujarati weekly *Navjivan* (1920) mobilized the people to articulate their sentiments.

Babasaheb Ambedkar after completing his studies in the US came back to India and started four newspapers in order to present before the society the problems faced by the untouchables. These newspapers were: *Mooknayak* (Mute Hero, 1920), *Bahishkrut Bharat* (India Ostracized, 1927), *Janata* (Masses, 1930) and *Prabudhha Bharat* (An Awakened India, 1956). The newspapers in circulation at that time did not present the problems of the untouchables. These newspapers covered social, political and cultural developments in the country, but Babasaheb also wrote about a new social order. He never used the newspapers for propagating his political party, but used them instead to provoke the upper castes and the so-called untouchables to think about this social order.

In Madras, T. Prakasam started the *Swarajya* in 1922 to support the nationalist struggle for independence. The New Delhi based *The Hindustan Times* started in 1923 with the support of Jawaharlal Nehru and his father Motilal Nehru drew the British ire because of its support to the national movement.

The last decade before independence became quite turbulent for press with intensification of freedom movement and the onset of World War II. National leaders were divided on whether to support the Britain unconditionally during the war or to make a conditional offer of support.

Jawaharlal Nehru founded the *National Herald* (1938) to advance the nationalist cause. The imperial government used extensive suppression of the press by censoring the contents, imposing fines and imprisoning many journalists, including Nehru.

Throughout this stage, the Indian press worked closely with the nationalist movement until the attainment of independence in 1947.

3.6 NATIONAL AND REGIONAL PRESS

The Newspapers and magazines circulated and read across different states and language groups is not considered national press. Only English language press is capable of being read across various states. English newspapers like *The Times of India*, *The Indian Express*, *The Hindu* have a truly national character while newspapers like *The Telegraph*, *The Statesman*, *The Asian Age*, *The Hindustan Times*, *The Deccan Herald*, *The Deccan Chronicle*, *The Pioneer* and others are read across many states but they are national papers in a limited sense.

The regional press is typically the language press circulated and read among one linguistic group and region. Many English language newspapers and magazines too form part of the regional press when its readership and target audience are limited to a particular region. For example in Assam and Northeast India Newspapers like *The Assam Tribune*, *Seven Sisters Post*, *The Sentinel*, *The Shillong Times* and *The Nagaland Post* etc are part of the regional press in addition to the newspapers and magazines in Assamese, Bengali, Hindi, Khasi, Manipuri and Bodo etc published and circulated in the region.

The pioneers of Indian language press were the Serampore missionaries with *Samachar Darpan* and other Bengali magazines. Raja Ram Mohun Roy followed suit with an array of journals including *Sambad Kaumudi*, and *Mirut-Ul- Akbar*. The *Bombay Samachar*, a Gujarati newspaper appeared in 1822.

The big story in the history of newspapers is the development of regional press especially after the economic reforms. Regional newspapers like *Malayala Manorama*, *Amrita Bazar Patrika*, *Eenadu*, *Navbharat Times* and *Punjab Kesari* among many others have readers in their respective regions. They have introduced innovative editorial features, regional or zonal editions and people friendly language use. Huge success in print enabled them to diversify into television and compete with other national channels.

3.6.1 PRESS IN ASSAM

Presently there are more than 30 newspapers and many magazines published in different languages in Assam including two Guwahati editions of National dailies, *The Telegraph* and *The Times of India*. The majority of the newspapers are published in Assamese and others are in English, Bengali, Hindi, Bodo and Karbi languages.

Among the Assamese dailies except *Dainik Janambhumi* all other major dailies have witnessed a decline. Top three Assamese dailies *Asomiya Pratidin*, *Asomiya Khabar* and *Dainik Agradoot* had seen a decline of 3 lakh readers in the last one year (IRS 2011 Q1). The same is true for *Amar Asom* and *Dainik Assam*.

The loss of readership however was not general, the opposite trend of increase in readership happened to *Dainik Janambhumi*, witnessing a growth of 3.11 per cent with a total readership of 1.99 lakhs. *The Assam Tribune* grew by 2.62 per cent to a total readership of 2.66 lakh (IRS 2011 Q1). Among the Assamese dailies *Assomiya Pratidin* leads followed by *Asomiya Khabar* and *Dainik Agradoot*.

The Assam Tribune published by the Tribune group started in Dibrugarh by Radha Govinda Barua in 1939. It has been an important witness to the political upheavals over the years and especially the Assam movement in the 1980s and followed by violent ULFA campaign. The online version of the Newspaper is also very popular. It is currently published from both Dibrugarh and Guwahati. The paper currently occupies 4th place in circulation figures among all the dailies in Assam

The Sentinel (since 1983) is an English daily published by The Sentinel group from Guwahati, Dibrugarh, Shillong, Silchar and Itanagar. On the 11th November Kolkatta based Sarada Group of companies has

launched its English daily *Seven Sisters Post* with former BBC correspondent Subir Bhaumik as its Chief Editor. The paper in compact size and attractive design would make other papers pull up their socks. The USP of this paper being both regional as well as pan Northeast India can usher in more professionalism in the field if the crass commercialism of national dailies and the limited focus of local dailies can be changed.

3.6.1.1 THE ORIGIN AND GROWTH OF ASSAMESE PRESS

Printing and publishing of newspapers in Assamese began only in 1846 with *Orunodai*. Before that Bengali newspapers were widely read in the region. *Orunodai* was published by the Baptist Mission Press under the editorship of Nathan Brown. Primarily meant for publication Christian literature, it served as a general newspaper covering science, geography, history and other public interest information. The paper was in circulation until 1880. The *Orunodai* gave an impetus to the birth of a galaxy of newspapers and magazines in Assam. At the close of the 19th century there were appearance and disappearance of over a dozen newspapers and magazines including *The Assam Bilasini* (1871-83). *Assam Darpan* just lasted for a year during 1875-76. Similar was the fate of *Goalpara Hitasadhini*, *Assam Dipika* and *Chandrodaya*.

The first Anglo-Assamese weekly, *The Assam News* (1882) published in Guwahati under the leadership Hem Chandra Barua raised the standard of journalism in Assam, but it too disappeared in 1885.

Most of the press of the day turned a blind eye to British policies, fearing incurring the wrath of the government, excepting papers like the *Dacca News* and *Somprakash*.

Nationalistic view in Assamese print can be traced with the coming of the Assamese monthly *Mau* (1886-88). It criticized British policies openly and gave rise to public opinion on political and national problems. The *Bijuli* (1891) edited by Padmanath Gohain Barua, *The Advocate of Assam* (1904-07) edited by Mathura Mohan Baruah furthered the spirit of public opinion.

On February 9th 1889 the *Jonaki* which left a remarkable imprint in the history of Assamese journalism appeared under the editorship of Chandra Kumar Agarawala. It brought about a literary awakening touching on science, history, literature and more. It went out of print in 1893 and reappeared for a short period in 1901.

Jonaki, was brought out in Calcutta by the students' body with the drive for Assamese nationalism. Till Cotton College was established in the year 1901 in Guwahati, Calcutta was the only centre for higher education for the Assamese students. They took the language as the most important unifying factor for the formation of an Assamese nationality and formed Axomiya Bhaxa Unnati Xadhini Xobha. They proclaimed '*Bhāxār bikāx holehe jātir bikāx hobo*' (The nation develops only when the language develops), which was the slogan of the early Assamese intelligentsia like Lakhminath Bezbaruah, Hemchandra Goswami, and others (information provided by Uddipan Dutta).

The year 1935 is important for Assamese newspapers as the first full-fledged Assamese daily, *Dainik Batori* began from Jorhat. Tea baron Shivaprasad Barua, egged on by nationalist zeal, published the paper from his residence at Thengal. Earlier, he had started the *Sadinia Batori* under his own editorship, but for *Dainik Batori* he appointed Bagmibor Nilmoni Phukan as the editor.

The symbol with a banana tree and a garland of flowers on the first issue of the paper was painted by Mahendra Dekaphukan. Inside the symbol, there was the phrase “Aai! Tur batori pahare-bhoiyame, Jane-juriye bowak”, meaning ‘The news of Assam will reach everywhere, through all the hills and dales in the State’. The paper also supported the idealism and activities of the Asamiya Sangraksini Sabha formed in 1926. The paper was published till June 29, 1937.

Thus the early newspapers of Assam had undoubtedly played a role in education, enrichment of ideas and carrying forward the spirit of journalism.

3.7 MAGAZINES IN INDIA

A magazine boom occurred in 1970s as the magazines capitalized on readers’ unfulfilled needs for news and other information during emergency of 1975 to 1977, when press freedom was revoked. The boom occurred also because of improvements in printing technology and advertising especially colour advertising which added attraction to the magazine.

With the launching of *India Today* and *Illustrated Weekly of India* in mid 70s, magazine publishing not only English but also in regional languages got a boost. *India Today* along with, *Sunday*, *Stardust*, *Savvy*, *Deboair* and *Society* set off a trend of sorts.

The magazines filled the gap in offering incisive and feature based writings on politics, lifestyle, human interest, home, women, children, and films. They were printed in glossy papers in multicolour supported full page by colour display advertisements.

In the early 80s more magazines followed, for example, *Gentlemen*, *Onlooker*, *New Delhi*, *Bombay*, *The Week*, and *G*. All the new magazines looked glossy with colour and flashy style. Photographs, illustrations, graphs, charts and colour made each page attractive which attracted the advertisers. Several special interest magazines too started coming out.

We can classify the magazines into different genres such as general interest magazines, news magazines, business magazines, sports magazines, women’s magazines, children’s magazines, science magazines, competition and career magazines and more.

Magazines on health, motors, computers, fashion, interior design, beauty and travel have sprung up in different languages. Magazines on movies exist in every Indian language. Well known movie magazines are *Filmfare*, *Cine Blitz*, *Showtime*, and *Stardust*. Sport magazines are another most popular segment like *Sportstar*.

Hindi has the largest circulation (60 lakhs) with over 3000 periodicals followed by English which has 2670 periodicals with a circulation slightly less than Hindi. Magazines in Tamil, Malayalam, Gujarati, Bengali, Marathi, Urdu and Telegu too enjoy good circulation figures (India Year Book, 2010) .

News and current affairs magazines have the largest readership and general interest magazines following closely. The diversity of magazines reflects the diversity in taste and information needs of the readers.

Today some of the professionally well designed and well circulated English magazines are *India Today*, *The Week*, *Frontline*, *Open* and *Outlook* which cater to the elite readership.

3.8 SUGGESTED READINGS

- Barpujari H.K. *The Comprehensive History of Assam* (Vol. IV & V).
- Gunaratne A. Shelton, Ed., (2000) *Handbook of the Media in Asia*, New Delhi: Sage.
- Keval J. Kumar (2009) *Mass Communication in India*, Delhi: Jaico Publishing House.
- Khandekar Kohli Vinita (2010) *Indian Media Business*, 3rd Edition, New Delhi: Sage.
- Pavlik, J.V. (2001) *Journalism and New Media*, Columbia, NY: University Press.
- Singhal, Arvind and Rogers M. Everett (2001) *India's Communication Revolution: From Bullock Carts to Cyber Marts*, New Delhi: Sage.

MMC 101: INTRODUCTION TO COMMUNICATION AND MEDIA

UNIT-4: BROADCAST MEDIA

UNIT STRUCTURE

- 4.1 OBJECTIVES
- 4.2 INTRODUCTION
- 4.3 BRIEF HISTORY OF DEVELOPMENT OF BROADCASTING IN INDIA
 - 4.3.1 BRIEF HISTORY OF RADIO IN INDIA
 - 4.3.2 BRIEF HISTORY OF TELEVISION IN INDIA
- 4.4 EDUCATIONAL TELEVISION
 - 4.4.1 SITE
 - 4.4.2 KHEDA COMMUNICATION PROJECT
 - 4.4.3 FARM & HOME BROADCASTS
 - 4.4.4 HEALTH & FAMILY WELFARE PROGRAMMES
 - 4.4.5 WOMEN'S PROGRAMMES
 - 4.4.6 CHILDREN'S PROGRAMMES
- 4.5 SATELLITE, CABLE TV AND DTH
- 4.6 PUBLIC SERVICE BROADCASTING IN INDIA
- 4.7 FM RADIO IN INDIA
- 4.8 COMMUNITY RADIO SERVICE
- 4.9 FILMS IN INDIA
- 4.10 SUGGESTED READINGS

4.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this Unit you will be able to

- give a brief overview of origin and growth of radio and TV in India
- explain the functioning of AIR and DD in India
- discuss the changes the broadcast has undergone over the period
- explain the broadcast media presence in India
- discuss the socio-economic functions the public broadcaster plays in India
- describe the new technologies in broadcasting

4.2 INTRODUCTION

Today India has one of the largest networks of radio and TV in the world. Broadcasting has a unique advantage under Indian conditions where nearly half its population is illiterate. By virtue of its sheer size, diversity and growth India can boast of the fastest growing sector in the world. Irrespective of the lower density the electronic media's presence and operation is huge. Television in particular is becoming a medium for news, entertainment especially after the neo-liberal policies adopted by India. India is projected to become the largest DTH satellite pay TV market by 2015 with projected 70 million subscribers. Similarly, Indian radio industry with 250 stations in 2009 is expected to reach 700 stations by 2014. In this Unit we shall briefly trace the growth of broadcasting services in India. We shall discuss how the electronic media AIR and DD, primarily the state run media with public service orientation has been

transformed to be important media industry today for private operators with fast growing public consumption.

4.3 BRIEF HISTORY OF DEVELOPMENT OF BROADCASTING IN INDIA

4.3.1 BRIEF HISTORY OF RADIO IN INDIA

Radio communication was born of many minds and developments. In 1860 Maxwell predicted the existence of radio waves. Later Hertz demonstrated that rapid variations of electric current can be projected into spaces in the form of waves similar to those of light and heat. In 1895 Marconi transmitted radio signals for a short distance. At that time the intention of using the new technology was for communicating from ship to ship, from land to ship and from ship to land. It was named as wireless in the beginning. The term radiotelegraph was used later and it changed finally to radio. It became popular since 1912 in the US when some radio stations started experimental broadcasting.

The first licensed regular broadcasting began in 1921 in Springfield in America. In 1926 the National Broadcasting Company (NBC) started regular network with 24 stations.

Radio broadcasting in India began in 1927, prior to that some amateur broadcasting clubs set up radio clubs in Calcutta, Madras and Bombay starting from 1923. In 1927 with two private owned transmitters in Bombay and Calcutta broadcasting began. The government of India took them over in 1930 and started broadcasting in the name of Indian Broadcasting Service. In 1936 it was renamed as All India Radio. In 1957 it got an additional name Akashvani.

In the beginning Lionel Fielden who was with BBC came over from Britain to assume the charge as the Controller of Broadcasting in India. Radio before coming under the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting was under the ministry of labour and industries and subsequently it went to the Department of communications and then to Department of Information and Broadcasting until it finally became a ministry.

In 1937 the Central News Organisation now known as News Service Division came into existence. In 1939 during the World War II AIR began its first foreign broadcasting service. Following British policy it used to broadcast anti-Nazi and anti-Japanese propaganda in the local languages of the Asian neighbours.

At the time of Independence in 1947 All India Radio (AIR) had just six stations. After independence the Jawaharlal Nehru government gave priority to expansion of radio broadcasts but the programmes catered to high culture unlike its counterpart in Sri Lanka. In the 1940s and 50s film songs and commercials considered as low culture was almost banned. Many listeners happily tuned into Radio Ceylon and Radio Goa (then under Portuguese rule) to listen to film songs and commercials.

The home services of AIR consist of programmes in music, talks, plays, news, sports, and educational programmes. The music programmes include classical music, folk, devotional, western music, and community singing. The educational programmes consist of programmes on family welfare, women and children, national integration, science, agriculture and health. Only in 1957, ten after independence, India started broadcasting films songs and entertainment fare. Commercial broadcasting under *Vividh Bharati* was launched in 1967. Advertisements and sponsored programmes were carried out in these channels. From 1989 the broadcasting became 24 x 7 on the national channel.

Yuva Vani is another important service of the AIR. This service provides a forum for the youth to present their viewpoints in the form of talks, discussions, interviews, plays, features and music.

The AIR with its huge radio network operates on a three-tier structure- national, regional and local services to cater to vast geographically, linguistically and culturally diverse listeners. In the year 2000 AIR broadcast from its 200 stations programmes covering 97 percent of the geographical area of the country.

Today, there are 232 AIR stations and a network of 374 transmitters (149 MW, 54 SW & 171 FM) which provides coverage to 99.16% of the population spread over 91.82% area of the country in 24 languages and 146 dialects. (India Year Book 2010).

All India Radio is laying thrust on modernization and digitalization of the existing network. Digitalization of programme production facilities, uplink and downlink facilities is in progress to ensure good quality convergence-ready content, which will also support interactive radio. This will be followed by Digitalization of transmitters. Computer Hard Disc based recording, editing and playback system is now gradually introduced in most stations.

News on Phone or NOP is news update every hour and listeners from any place or part of India can access brief news in English, Hindi & Regional language at any time. This service is on revenue sharing basis with BSNL.

Latest news in various categories i.e. National, International, Regional, Business, Sports, Science & Technology and Art & Culture can be accessed through NSD website ([www: newsonair.com](http://www.newsonair.com)). Audio of all national bulletins, 40 regional bulletins from 22 Regional News Units (RNU) in 14 regional languages, 32 language bulletins in 13 languages from NSD headquarters, four newly introduced news based programmes on FM Gold and various other news based programmes of primary channels are available on the website.

National news headlines can now be accessed from any part of the country through SMS as well. This service was launched from Delhi in May, 2008 and has a very high potential. With the breaking of any news, the contents of SMS are updated.

4.3.2 BRIEF HISTORY OF TELEVISION IN INDIA

The first television or what is commonly called as TV broadcasts began in the late 1920s and early 1930s. Though in the early days the picture quality and transmission range were not of good quality, systematic

broadcasting started in Britain and the US in the 1930s. The Second World War worked as impediment to the spurt of television broadcasts, but it picked up momentum after the war.

In Britain, by 1947 there were 100 thousand sets and by 1980 every household had a set. The situation in the rest of the world too was similar with rapid growth. In 1965 there were 192 million sets in the world, which became 710 million in 1986, but of course the distribution of sets was uneven in different countries.

Newer technology altered TV growth by the 1970s. The VCRs (Video cassette recorder) were introduced that helped in recording of programmes and spurt in rental activities of movies. Transmission by cable brought another revolution in the evolution of television as mass media. This allowed a large number of programmes being broadcast and also TV to be used for other purposes like data transmission other than audiovisuals.

Television was introduced in the country in 1959 on September 15, at that time there was only one transmitter. In 1980 the number of transmitters rose to 18. The launch of INSAT series of satellite in 1982 was a boon in broadcasting. The INSAT (Indian national satellite) is India's indigenous satellite which ensured a massive expansion of television reach. The number of transmitters went up to 175 in 1985, and by the end of another decade in 1995 it rapidly rose to 672. In 2000 there were 1000 transmitters across India covering almost the entire country.

Similar is the story of the number of TV sets in the country. In the 60s there were only a handful of sets. In 1980 the number had gone up to 1.5 million, but only less than five percent of the population had access to television. In another five years, in 1985, the number of sets crossed seven million. In 1988 about 60 percent of the population could access television signals. In 1995 the number of TV sets reached 52 million. In 2000 about 90 percent of India's population could access TV signals and 500 million people, that is, 50 percent of the population watched Television.

Tracing important milestones in the development of television in India, the following years are important:

1959, September 15 is the day when TV was born in India as a UNESCO supported venture. It was more a pilot television centre in Delhi to test the medium in India for carrying education and social purposes.

On August 15, 1965 regular daily service was launched broadcasting one hour each day. In May 1969 it was increased to two hours each day and Hindi movies became part of the menu. The following year in 1970 another hour was added to the programme duration.

In 1972 a second station was established in Bombay and the following year two more stations started in Srinagar, and Amritsar. The year 1975 saw another milestone with TV stations in Chennai, Calcutta and Lucknow. In the same year a significant television experiment started in six states called, SITE which we shall discuss in detail later in this Unit. In 1976 Doordarshan was delinked from AIR in its programming and administration structure and began commercial service with spot ads and sponsored programmes.

On August 15, 1980 colour broadcast was experimented for the first time by broadcasting prime minister's Red Fort Independence day address. When India hosted the Asian games in 1982 colour TV was introduced all over the country. It was in 1984 when the famous soap opera as a sponsored programme, "Hum Log" began to be broadcast. In 1987 morning broadcasts began and in another two years, 1989 afternoon broadcasts began.

The year 1990 was watershed in the history of television as cable operation began in Delhi and the following year, 1991 first satellite channel Star TV was carried to the viewers via cable TV.

4.4 EDUCATIONAL TELEVISION

Education is one among three major functions of television in India besides information and entertainment. Vikram Sarabhai, the founder of Indian space research, campaigned for using television for social and economic development. He envisaged that the satellite component would allow India to make strides in communication technology and speed up development process. With his initiative a national satellite communication group (NASCOM) was established in 1968. In the first step they took up pilot experiment using satellite for development communication.

4.4.1 SITE

The Satellite Instructional Television Experiment (SITE) was a one-year project during 1975-76 involving American NASA's satellite ATS-6 to broadcast directly to 2400 villages across six Indian states. The project aimed to improve rural primary school education, provide teacher training, improve agriculture, health, hygiene, nutritional practices and contribute to family planning and national integration.

4.4.2 KHEDA COMMUNICATION PROJECT

The Kheda Communication Project was somewhat a continuation of SITE with a limited scope. Kheda Communication Project, KCP in short, was a decentralized experiment in community based television in Kheda district of Gujarat near Space Application Centre, Ahmadabad. It consisted of one low power transmitter located in Pij village, about 50 KM south of Ahmadabad which was connected to a local studio and local Doordarshan station and to a satellite earth station in Ahmadabad. They could broadcast both local television programmes and national programmes. In all 650 community TV sets were provided to 400 villages in public locations where village audience gathered in the evenings for viewing.

The project promoted rural development and social change. The villagers were involved as actors, writers and visualizers in production on themes centered on caste discrimination, minimum wages, alcoholism, cooperatives, elections etc. Different formats like serials, puppets shows, folk drama and others were used to take up issues like family planning, gender equality, and sanitation.

The KCP represented a model of community level decentralized television broadcasting. It received the prestigious UNESCO Prize in 1984 for rural communication effectiveness.

4.4.3 FARM & HOME BROADCASTS

All stations of All India Radio broadcast Farm & Home programmes directed at rural audience. In fact, special programmes have been designed to cater to the day-to-day seasonal needs of the farming community. These programmes besides providing information about agriculture create awareness about increasing the standard of life.

Farm & Home programmes also include programmes for Rural Women, rural Children and Rural Youth. The agriculture programmes include subjects like animal husbandry, fisheries, agriculture related activities, dry & wasteland agriculture, and also talks about the employment schemes, loans, training facilities, sanitation, health-hygiene and nutrition etc.

AIR has stepped up its Agriculture Broadcast with the launch of an exclusive project Mass Media Support to Agriculture Extension with the title Kisan Vani on AIR from 15th February, 2004 in collaboration with Ministry of Agriculture to inform local farmers about the daily market rates, weather reports and day to day activities in their area at micro level.

4.4.4 HEALTH & FAMILY WELFARE PROGRAMMES

The themes covered in regular broadcast of health programmes are appropriate marriageable age, delay in the birth of the first child, space between two children, terminal methods, maternal care, child survival, women empowerment, promotion of inter-spouse communication, male responsibility, neutralizing male preference syndrome, medical termination of pregnancy, promotion of institutional legal provisions, management of reproductive tract infections (RTI) and sexually transmitted infections (STI), Pre-natal Diagnostic Techniques (Regulation and Prevention of Misuse) Act 1994, AIDs, drug abuse, breast feeding, child right, child labour, girl child, disability, T.B, leprosy and reproductive child health etc.

National AIDs Control Organization launched the Red Ribbon Express train carrying messages on HIV/AIDs which traversed 180 stations across the country. All India Radio has given wide publicity and coverage to the campaign to mobilize listeners to visit the train and to increase the knowledge and awareness among the masses.

4.4.5 WOMEN'S PROGRAMMES

These programmes cover subjects related to socio-economic development of women, health and family welfare, food and nutrition, scientific home management, women entrepreneurship, education, including adult education, women empowerment, gender issues etc. These programmes also aim at creating social awareness about the rights and privileges of women through the propagation of legal literacy.

4.4.6 CHILDREN'S PROGRAMMES

All AIR Stations broadcast programmes for children on a regular basis. In the programmes addressed to women and general audiences, stress has been laid on programmes regarding health and care of mothers as

well as children. Programmes dealing with immunization, primary health and education form a regular part of our broadcasts.

4.5 SATELLITE, CABLE TV AND DTH

Cable TV had its germinations in India with some private entrepreneurs in Mumbai and Ahmadabad who wired apartment buildings to transmit films and video games in mid 1980s. This phenomenon caught up in many urban centres. Cable TV in real sense began in 1991 with availability of foreign channels via satellite. However terrestrial transmission was monopoly of the government controlled Doordarshan.

In 1990 only Doordarshan had the right to transmit television programme in India. No other broadcaster was allowed to operate from Indian soil. Circumstances forced changes of events and destiny of television in India forever. The Gulf War in 1991 made many people especially the relatives of those working in the Gulf countries hunger for information on war. In major cities wherever five star hotels subscribed to CNN and other international networks, people huddled around television sets to watch news. This event made entrepreneurs broadcast to Indian viewers by uplinking to satellites from Hong Kong, Singapore, Moscow, and other cities. Until 1998 the private network in India sent videos by courier to one of these sites and the programmings were uplinked via satellite transmission to India.

Star TV was the first to beam to exclusive Indian viewers in Hindi and English. Star (Satellite Television for Asian Region) with headquarters started in 1991 by Hutch Vision Group of Hong Kong and it was later bought over by Rupert Murdoch's News Corporation in 1995. Zee TV followed suit in 1992 and ever since enjoyed remarkable success. Sony Entertainment Television is owned by Sony corporation Japan. It began broadcasting in India in 1995. The other players, ETV (Eenadu TV targeting Telugu audience and SUN- TV targeting Tamil audience were later entrants but made fast inroads into several other language networks.

People of India realized that by putting a dish on the roof, satellite signals could be downlinked to their TV sets, bringing all kinds of channels up to now unknown in India. Dishes sprouted on rooftops of a number of homes in a country hungry for information and entertainment.

Any and every channel was voraciously watched. It was in this situation Star TV and Zee brought television programmes formats made on the same lines of Bombay film industry and aggressively attracted urban Indian viewers.

Films and music already aplenty in India readily filled the programmes on every channel. Zee became an instant success. Many other players began to plan on Zee strategic lines. Television attracted huge numbers unlike newspapers.

STAR- TV beamed BBC, CNN, English movies and entertainment channels. By 2000 there were more than 40 private networks broadcasting to India including Zee TV, Star TV, Sony, CNN, and BBC.

Once satellite channels began broadcasting in India, cable operators installed satellite receiving dishes to catch signals from Star, Zee or Sony and distributed to homes.

Cable TV operated in India as illegal and unregulated activity with no policy until 1995. The Cable Television Regulation Act of 1994 required registration of cable operators at local post offices and they needed to follow advertising code. They must carry at least two DD channels, and pay 40 percent entertainment tax on sales (Rogers & Singhal 2001). The Act disallowed transmission of certain programmes and specified the use of standard equipments.

Papathanassopouios (1990) identify four phases in the development of cable TV. In the first phase cable system were only used for relay of television broadcast to homes from different stations. In the second phase additional signals usually from nearby areas were transmitted. In the third phase materials not directly available from broadcast TV was made available. This consisted of films, local albums, and it worked somewhat like community television with close circuit.

In the fourth phase some enterprising cable operators explored additional revenues by giving premium services like new releases and sports and local advertising.

The new economic policy in 1990s coincided with the invasion of foreign channels through satellite which brought about immense socioeconomic changes in India.

DTH is the current television technology that is sweeping India. Direct to Home (DTH) broadcasting operates like regular broadcasting but transmits signals in Ku-band which allows a small dish with less than half a metre of diameter to receive the signals directly from the satellite to the viewer who has a dish and a set-top box. DTH therefore does not need a intermediary like cable operator, but gets the service directly from the DTH operator. The DTH has additional facilities like Electronic programme guide, interactive services, movies on demand, tailor-made packages, and multiple options of subscription payment.

There are both public and private players in the DTH field. Doordarshan has free to air DD Direct, while the private players include, Zee TV owned Dish TV, Tata group's Tata Sky, Airtel's Airtel TV, Reliance group's Big TV, Videocon group with the same name and Sun group's Sun Direct.

4.6 PUBLIC SERVICE BROADCASTING IN INDIA

Prasar Bharati is the public service broadcaster in the country, with All India Radio and Doordarshan as its two constituents. It came into existence on 23 November 1997, with a mandate to organise and conduct public broadcasting services to inform, educate and entertain people and to ensure balanced development of broadcasting on radio and television.

Prasar Bharati was formed by an Act of 1990 by subsuming AIR and Doordarshan. But the actual implementation of Act began only on September 1997 with Jaipal Reddy as the Information and Broadcasting Minister retrieving it from cold storage.

The Act freed the accountability of the institution to parliament and instead a Prasar Bharati Corporation Board was instituted to run broadcasting in India. The first chairman of the Prasar Bharati Board was Nikhil Chakravorty and S.S Gill functioned as the Chief Executive Officer. Headquartered in Delhi, the Corporation is governed by the Prasar Bharati Board, which comprises a Chairman/Executive Member (also known as Chief Executive Officer), a Member, a representative of the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting and Directors General of All India Radio and Doordarshan as ex-officio Members. The Chairman is a part-time member with a six-year tenure.

The major objectives of the Prasar Bharati Corporation, as laid out in the Prasar Bharati Act, 1990, are to promote unity and integrity of the country ; to ensure a fair and balanced flow of information; to enhance education and spread of literacy, agriculture, rural development, health and family welfare and science and technology; to create awareness about women's issues and take special steps to protect the interests of children, the aged and other vulnerable sections of the society; to provide coverage to diverse cultures, sports and games and youth affairs; promote social justice, safeguarding the rights of working classes, minorities and tribal communities; and to expand broadcasting facilities and promoting research and development in broadcast technology.

4.7 FM RADIO IN INDIA

FM was first introduced in 1977 on experimental basis in Chennai. In 1993 FM (frequency- modulated) radio broadcasts were launched in India on regular basis by AIR. Private companies were allowed to buy time slots on AIR. Companies like *Times FM* and *Radio One, Mid-Day*, Star Entertainment (not the Star TV group), and Vaishali Udyog acquired a few slot to broadcast FM radio. For every hour of programming the operators were allowed nine minutes of commercial ad time. Initially ads for FM channels were difficult to come by. They were all making losses. But it gradually picked up. FM was in people's homes and cars.

Only in 1999 the government approved about 150 fully private FM stations in nearly 50 cities and opened the doors for non-governmental organizations, educational institutions to establish community radio stations.

In 2000, the government held an open auction for 108 radio licences. The bidding went out of spin as companies overbid. Against the government expectation of Rs 800 million it collected Rs 3.86 billion (Khandekar Vanita-Kohli 2010). And in 2006 the second phase of privatization by auctioning for 91 cities took place. In 2008 there were 248 stations broadcasting FM across 91 cities. Now there are five major players- Kalanithi Maran's S-FM, Anil Ambani's Adlabs Films (*Big FM*), Times of India group

owned ENIL (*Radio Mirchi*) and India Value Fund-Music Broadcast owned (*Radio City*) group operating across India.

In the northeast India FM radio is mainly popular in Shillong and Guwahati. We have stations like, *Red FM*, *Oo la la*, *Big FM*, *S-FM*, *Gupshup FM*. FM radio in India cover only 25 percent of geographical area catering to about 40 percent of the population, since they are now urban centric.

4.8 COMMUNITY RADIO SERVICE

The government approved a policy for grant of licences for setting up community radio stations in December 2002 to well established educational institutions in India. This policy was further liberalized to include Non-governmental and Non-public organizations with a proven record of community service for a minimum of three years. The guidelines for broadcasting include strict restrictions on content and they should be relevant to the listening community.

The present policy does not permit individuals, political parties and their affiliates to obtain license under CRS (community radio station) system.

4.9 FILMS IN INDIA

India is the largest producer of cinema in the world. They are made in a number of languages – Hindi, Tamil, Telugu, Malayalam, Assamese, Marathi, Gujarati, Bhojpuri, Bengali, Manipuri, Bodo among others. More than 1000 films are produced annually for exhibiting them in theatres, multiplexes, digital theatres, on home video, DTH, and so on.

Cinema in India has evolved a long way from its first feature film *Raja Harishchandra* (1913) by Dhundiraj Govind Phalke. The other film *Pundalik* (1912) by Nanabhai Govind Chitre, for reasons of foreign collaboration is not recorded as the first India film. Whatever the story is, cinema has really evolved today to make a Rs 126 billion business a year ((Khandekar Vanita-Kohli 2010). From silent to sound, from black and white to colour, from art to commercial, from small budget to big budget studio based productions, star line up, overseas distribution --Indian cinema as seen it all.

Cinema not only functions as industry today, there are training institutes, academic research institutes offering higher education on cinema, and state run institutes for financing, festivals, and regulations are in place.

Institutions such Film and Television Institute of India, National Film Development Corporations, Directorate of Film Festival of India, Satyajit Ray Film and Television Institute, Central Board of Film Certification, to mention a few are working on training, finance, control and creating excellence in the field.

The coming of television has influenced films in a significant way. Indeed, there is a symbiotic relation between the two. There are more than 1000 TV channels catering to various genres broadcasting in India, yet films continue to fill the majority of the content in television even today. There are exclusive movie channels 24 x 7 continuous broadcasting movies in different languages. In addition, many entertainment channels slot movie a day. Film music fills up most music channels.

Players from television industry have started film production, distribution and exhibition business too. UTV, Zee telefilms, Sun TV, Big TV, Sony TV, among others have become major stake holders in film industry in India today.

Television also helps the viewer to watch rare and classical films otherwise difficult to obtain today. The internet and digital technology and mobile devices have been bringing in more changes to the traditional making and viewing of films all over the world.

4.10 SUGGESTED READINGS

- Abercrombie Nicholas (1996) *Television and Society*, Polity Press.
Chatterjee P.C. (1991) *Broadcasting in India*, New Delhi: Sage.
Gunaratne A. Shelton, Ed., (2000) *Handbook of the Media in Asia*, New Delhi: Sage.
Keval J. Kumar (2009) *Mass Communication in India*, Delhi: Jaico Publishing House.
Khandekar Kohli Vinita (2010) *Indian Media Business*, 3rd Edition, New Delhi: Sage.
Lievrouw A. Leah and Livingstone (2006) *The Handbook of New Media*, New Delhi: Sage.
Ninan, Sevanti (1995) *Through the Magic Window: Television and Change in India*, New Delhi: Penguin Books.
Pavlik, J.V. (2001) *Journalism and New Media*, Columbia, NY: University Press.
Singhal, Arvind and Rogers M. Everett (2001) *India's Communication Revolution: From Bullock Carts to Cyber Marts*, New Delhi: Sage.
UnniKrishnan Namita & Bajpai, Shailaja. *The Impact of Advertising on Children*, Sage.

MMC 101: INTRODUCTION TO COMMUNICATION AND MEDIA

UNIT-5: NEW MEDIA

UNIT STRUCTURE

5.1 OBJECTIVES

5.2 INTRODUCTION

5.3 CONCEPT AND STATUS OF NEW MEDIA IN INDIA

5.4 HISTORY AND DEVELOPMENT OF NEW MEDIA

5.4.1 THE INTERNET

5.5 INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGY (ICT)

5.6 SOCIAL NETWORKING SITES

5.7 DIGITAL CONVERGENCE AND TELECOMMUNICATION

5.9 SUGGESTED READINGS

5.8 THE SOCIAL IMPLICATIONS

5.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this Unit you will be able to

- explain the concept of New Media
- trace the origin and development of technology in relation to information society
- discuss different policies and initiatives by the government
- explain the impact of New Media on other sectors including Mass Media
- discuss the use of the New Media for socio-economic development.

5.2 INTRODUCTION

New media is taking the world by storm affecting every sphere of life on earth. It is therefore all the more important for students of mass communication to unravel the meaning of this phenomenon. Understanding the concept will help us to explore the medium better and enable us to start using them in our profession. The unit attempts to give the meaning of the terms and trace the historical developments and present conditions mainly from Indian perspective. However, this media is fast changing and taking newer shapes by day. It is recommended that one should update this information with latest developments.

5.3 CONCEPT AND STATUS OF NEW MEDIA IN INDIA

In 1993 only grownups had a cell phone and only researchers, and a few academics had email address in the West. In India the mobile technology just came in and only the rich could afford to buy a cell phone and able to make or receive calls with charges up to Rs 8 per minute either to make or to receive a call. Amazon was understood as river and windows meant the openings on the wall. That was the year the

World Wide Web took off. For the first time the American vice president Al Gore participated in a live news conference by computer network on January 13, 1994.

Ten years ago when Google stopped publishing the number of pages it claimed to index eight billion pages, some experts estimated the web was 400 times bigger than that, about 3000 billion pages. It was growing by more than 25, 000 pages per hour, a revolution by any standards. Today after about two decades, nobody knows for certain how big the web is.

A computer scientist John S. Brown calls this trend 'endism', a perspective that sees new technologies replacing old ones. For instance, TV news meant end of newspaper, CD-ROM meant demise of printed book, though none of these extinctions actually took place but had substantial influence on them.

A cultural critic Neil Postman uses a term media ecology. An ecosystem is defined as a dynamic system in which living organisms interact with one another and their environment. This interaction is complex and takes many forms, as organisms prey on one another, compete for nutrients, have parasitic or symbiotic relationship, prosper and decline. It is never static, but is in a state of perpetual ferment.

When we apply this analogy to media we can see that the dominant organism television broadcasts content to billions people who are mainly too passive. In essence it was few-to-many, that is few broadcasters transmitting to many viewers. This ecosystem is drastically changing. Alternative to broadcast TV are fast emerging in the forms of narrowcast digital TV in which specialist content is aimed at subscription based audience, internet protocol TV, TV-on-demand delivered via internet and mobile. It is predicted that the TV will lose its dominant position and internet will take its place. In the West it has already become so.

So what is new media? It is a broad communication concept which refers to terms such as digital technologies and platforms, online journalism, electronic and multimedia publishing on the internet and world wide web.

Therefore, New Media technology means that content can be presented in a far better way than it was possible in a traditional medium of print and broadcast, leading to the emergence of new forms of news perhaps best described as contextualized journalism which facilitates the use and application of multimedia, interactivity, hypertext and customization (Pavlik, 2001).

But new media is not limited to medium of information and communication, it is radically changing every aspect of our lives, how we communicate, and with whom, and about any aspect of our lives from dating to making money to healthcare to hacking. The pace of technological changes seems to speed up with every coming day as newer and newer technologies are announced every day.

The nature of new media combines interpersonal and mass communication characteristics. While interpersonal communication is face-to-face interaction between two or more individuals where the

message is high in emotional content, the feedback is immediate, compared to mass communication that flows from one to large audience, using some mechanical interface, feedback is limited and delayed and message is low in socio-emotional content. The new media combines the characters of both interpersonal and mass communication.

The communication that occurs through new media is often between small groups of people. Video chatting, social network is similar to face-to-face communication. Often messages are targeted at specific individuals such as email. Information exchange is interactive. At the same time use of hardware devices like computers, satellite, mobile, telephones, brings in mass communication characteristics. The decentralized nature of Internet enables potentially connecting people with various bodies of the governments at local, regional, national and international levels.

There is a spurt of online activities like, e- filing of tax, online bill payments, online banking, e-ticketing, e-paper, online shopping, and many more that have changed the socio-economic, political, and cultural interactions on new media platform.

A concept introduced by Marshall McLuhan 'global village' can easily fit to describe the present society in which a web of information and networks interconnects individuals and organizations in almost instantaneous global communication. The world is increasingly interconnected by communication technologies that are tending towards a global culture. The Internet and World Wide Web are examples of these interconnections. (Singhal and Rogers 2001)

Today the entire world is interconnected by the Internet. Internet removes the cost of commuting the physical distance. Computer hardware, software, and Internet based e-governance, and e-commerce are now vital inputs in faster socio-economic growth.

A new communication paradigm emerges based on global media landscape. This framework consisting of computer based digital technology has changed the way information is gathered, processed, produced, transmitted, stored, received and displayed.

While the boundaries of the new media landscape itself are on the constant state of change and flux, it is difficult to restrict the shape, form and functions of new media in a definite way. It is constantly evolving and is of unsettled nature.

The concept 'information society' is widely used now to describe the changed socio-economic and cultural environment of the present day society ushered in by Information and Communication Technologies (ICT). Prior to that the traditional agrarian society mainly dependent on agriculture for living and economy changed to 'industrial society' when mass production started with the coming up of industries supported by capital and mechanized method of manufacturing. Whether it was industrial society or information society, they drastically changed the socio-economic relations of the people. The

changes affected the employment, education, family structure, community structure and subsequently the political structure as well.

Information society is defined as the countries in which people working in the information sector are in a majority when compared with the people engaged in other occupations such as agriculture, industry or other services (Singhal and Rogers 2001). The Japanese writer who pioneered the term described it as “a society which would eventually move to the point at which the production of information values became the formative force for the development of society”(Keval J. Kumar, 2009).

India is still far from becoming an information society as more than 50 percent of its population is engaged in agriculture, but it has more people working in information sector than those in Japan or United States. These millions of information workers are mostly urban, educated, young and lavish.

5.4 HISTORY AND DEVELOPMENT OF NEW MEDIA

About 20 years back owning a telephone was a luxury in India. Only one in every 200 persons had telephone in India. It was given the least importance by the government policy makers. This view drastically changed in mid 1980s when the government realized that telecom services are essential for business, industry, and economic development. The revolution in telecommunication occurred in India during Rajiv Gandhi's government when he roped in Sam (Satyen) Pitroda, U.S returned technocrat for advice and technology. It got the final momentum when New Economic Policy was unleashed in the 1990s in India. By the year 2000 there was one telephone for every 34 persons in India (Singhal and Rogers, 2001).

Mobile telephone services were introduced in India in 1995 and by 1998, the country had one million cell phone subscribers. Some analysts feel that mobile telephones would have spread faster if the cost of the handsets were not that high (Singhal and Rogers 2001).

A communication scholar, Marshall McLuhan aptly termed the printing machine as the ‘mechanical bride’. A bride that moves into one's life and family does not just become a new member but alters its structure for ever. Newer and newer forms of media have been emerging ever since Johann Gutenberg's printing machine came in 1400s. All have their impact on society and economy. The advent of print and newspapers brought in the emergence of newer political systems, and national borders. Cinema, Radio, television and internet have all had their dramatic impact on society and on one another.

The computer technology drastically changed the printing process and subsequently printing of newspapers and magazines. The new technology gave management more control over the production process, while providing opportunities for editions to be updated with late stories. Colour printing was introduced and facsimile transmission adopted, allowing the simultaneous printing of newspapers at different sites.

With the arrival of internet as a source of information the media technology and industry have undergone metamorphic changes. The introduction of high powered personal computers, portable telephones, laptops, digital cameras, has made it possible for stories to be filed in seconds in an age of round-the-clock news.

When in 1961 Ted Nelson created hypertext or non-linear text, it forever changed the story telling from 'once upon a time' style. Non-linear texts became the basis for interactive, multimedia communications representing an entirely new approach. Rather than telling a single story with a beginning and end, narrations in hypertext let the reader take his or her own course.

Table: Comparison of the agricultural, industrial and the information society (Source: Rogers & Singhal 2001)

Characteristics	Agriculture Society	Industrial Society	Information society
Time period	From last 10 thousand years	From 1750 in England	Began in 1995 in the U.S
Basic resource	Food	Energy	Information
Main employment	Farming	Factory work	Information and communication
Basic technology	Manuel	Steam engine	Microelectronics, computers, and internet
Nature of mass communication	Folk and Traditional communication	One-way mass media like newspapers, radio, TV, Film	Interactive media that are de-massified in nature

The penetration of mobile in rural India has a huge impact on socioeconomic development. Farmers, for example, can keep in touch with block or district level officials checking market information, scheduling transportation of products.

Telecommunication began in India in 1851 in Calcutta when British set up telegraph service and in 1882 telephone was introduced for their administrative and commercial purposes. In 1883 the British government merged telegraph services with postal services. After independence the legacy continued with organizing telegraph and post exclusively in the control of the state. A hundred years after posts and telegraph were merged, in 1985 an exclusive Department of Telecommunications (DoT) was formed under a new Ministry of Communication to focus exclusively on telecommunications.

There is still an unbalanced subscription between urban and rural India, while 75 percent of the population live in the rural areas, almost 90 percent of telephones are in urban India. In 1988 only 4 percent Indian villages had telephone access, but this drastically changed by 2000 when more than 50 per cent of Indian villages were connected by telephones.

The Indian Statistical Institute in Calcutta acquired the first computer in India in 1955. In another about 20 years the number of computers in India was around 175 made by IBM. During those days the computer was the size of a refrigerator and cost about Rs 20 lakhs and it was used mostly for advanced tabulations.

At that time only large business houses and institutes could afford the machine. Like telecomm sector, microcomputer industry too got a boost during Rajiv Gandhi's government in the '80s.

Meanwhile microcomputers were designed to be owned and used by an individual, getting its new name PC or personal computer. The first personal computer was developed by Xerox company in US. They also developed the bit-mapped computer display, pull down menus, icons, the mouse and laser printing.

In India computerization of railway passenger reservation system was launched in 1986, followed by computerization of banks. In the 1990s the demand for personal computers started growing and its applications increased in various sectors. The Internet too was born in the early 1990s and by the year 2000, the number of PCs in India crossed five million mark-- roughly five computer for every 1000 people (Singhal & Rogers 2001).

5.4.1 THE INTERNET

The Internet brought the computer's real value to the world by shrinking the space, making it what McLuhan called, 'Global Village'. The origin of Internet is traced to American Defence research team that developed ARPANET for exchanging information between military contractors and universities engaged in research for defence purpose which worked similar to local area network. The network of Pentagon's Advanced Research Project Agency (Arpanet) in 1975 handed the technology to Defense Communication agency, which evolved into Internet, which means a network of networks. In the late 1980s internet usage grew fast. The development of World Wide Web in 1993 further speeded up Internet usage and availability of internet resources.

Internet services were introduced in India in 1991. Initially it was opened only for public institutions, universities, private research bodies, and non-profit organizations. Insufficient telecommunication and the government internet monopoly hampered the growth of the internet. Videsh Sanchar Nigam Ltd (VSNL) under the Ministry of Communications had been the country's main internet service provider (ISP). Two other agencies, NIC (National Informatics Centre) and ERNET (Educational and Research Network) of the Department of Electronics provided Internet to specific, closed user groups. Only in 1995 VSNL, the state owned international telephone service provider, began offering commercial Internet services to individuals and organizations. A major shift took place in 1998 when the Department of Telecommunications privatized the sector by issuing ISP licences to private operators. By 1999 there were 116 ISPs (Viswanath.K & Kavita Karan 2000).

Hundreds and thousands of sites are placed on the Web. The commercial sites (com), educational sites (edu), governments (gov), organizations (org) were given different domain names. By 1998 most major newspapers, magazines, publishing houses, radio, television, political parties, banks, business houses, traders, and governments set up their own websites.

5.5 INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGY (ICT)

ICT is not one technology. It is multiple. It includes global web of computer networks known as internet, the broadband packet-switched telecommunication network of optical fibre, coaxial cable, twisted pair cable of delivering video, wireless communication, DBS using compression technology and digital interactive television.

In 1835 American Samuel Morse perhaps invented the first generation of electronic information system, the telegraph. The telegraph, the first electronic signaling system was first used in 1844 for a communication in Washinton D.C to newspaper colleagues at the Baltimore (Maryland) Patriot with dots and dashes.

The basic raw material that is driving the information Technology is silicon. Silicon is found in abundance in beach sand and in most rocks. What makes the semiconductor valuable is the information that is etched on this thin slice of silicon in the form of tiny electronic circuits. Semiconductor chips are the most core technology in computers, mobile phones, and in most other communication devices (Singhal and Rogers 2001).

The Indian government established two public enterprises, Electronics Corporation of India (ECIL) and the Computer Maintenance Corporation (CMC) to manufacture and facilitate indigenous electronic and computer parts. At the same time IBM which had set up its firm in India was forced to leave as the government refused to allow more than 50 percent ownership by foreigners of any company operating in the country.

Starting from mid 1980s imports were liberalized and the government encouraged joint ventures with multinational companies. Bangalore, Hyderabad, Gandhinagar, Pune, and other cities became software centres with a number of companies like Motorola, HP, Microsoft, IBM, Honeywell began operating. Computer software services, majority of them for export, brought about new economic opportunities to the country. India had an advantage as computer hardware and software were dominated by the English language. India had millions of qualified, English speaking people who took advantage of the situation.

The central and state governments have been setting up software technology parks to attract multinational IT companies. Indian IT industry has been growing rapidly. Many Indian companies came up to take advantage of the industry such as Infosys, Tata Consultancy Services, Wipro, Mahindra- Satyam, Pentafour Software, and Silverline industries.

ICT also gave birth to newer training and education in which India is a leader. National institutes and private institutes came up in thousands to offer advance training in computers. More than 50 thousand professionals are created every year in India. Many of these trained professionals go abroad for better prospects.

ICT helped in carrying out socio-economic development. Production, storage, display and exchange of information helped education, business organizations, and the State machinery in governance. Students can access huge volumes of articles, books, and other library documents, doctors could send x-rays and scans to faraway colleagues for expert opinion, and farmers could utilize information on weather, seeds, and market rates for buying and selling.

5.6 SOCIAL NETWORKING SITES

A social networking site (SNS) is an online place where a user can create a profile and build a personal network that connects him or her to other users. In the past five years, such sites have become a phenomenon that engages tens of millions of internet users.

In India *Facebook* is the most used social networking sites in addition to *Twitter*, *Orkut*, *Google+*, *LinkedIn*, *Myspace*, *Friendster*, *Hi5* and *BigAdda*. An eventual burnout seems inevitable, the report indicated.

The growth in the popularity of these sites has generated concerns among some parents, school officials, and government leaders about the potential risks posed to young people when personal information is made available in such a public setting. Recently a film *The Social Network* (2010) based on *Facebook* founder Mark Zuckerberg received a lot of attention and critical acclaim. The film, an adaptation of Ben Mezrich's book *The Accidental Billionaires*, subtly conveys the potential of new media for extraordinary opportunities in the new media.

In a study conducted in the US among the teenagers (Amanda Lenhart and Mary Madden, 2008 Pew Internet & American Life Project), it was found that boys and girls rely on social networks to keep close tabs on their friends, while some use them to meet new friends in the comfort of an online environment. It was also found that more than half (55%) of all of online American youths between ages 12 and 17 years use online social networking sites. For girls, social networking sites are primarily places to maintain their existing friendships; for boys, the networks also provide opportunities for making new friends.

The study further says, 55% of online teens have created a personal profile online, and 55% have used social networking sites like *MySpace* or *Facebook*. It found 66% of teens say that their profile is not visible to all internet users. And 48% of teens visit social networking websites daily or more often; 26% visit once a day, 22% visit several times a day.

In a similar study, recently conducted in India (by Associated Chambers of Commerce and Industry of India (Assocham) *India Today*, January 2012) found the early craze among the youth has started waning. , a large number of youngsters are spending less time now. The study covered 2,000 youths in the age group of 12 to 25 years across India. The survey found that more than half of the youngsters - about 55 per cent - have either reduced the time they spend on their favourite social networking sites or have deleted their accounts/profiles.

Interestingly, the voyeuristic nature of such websites is largely responsible for the social media fatigue. The study claims that compulsive social networking is negatively affecting the lives of the urban youth as it leads to insomnia, depression, poor interpersonal relationships, poor concentration, anxiety and rudeness in their general behavior.

Many, in fact, feel worn-out after being on such websites. Of nearly 200 youngsters interviewed in Delhi, about 60 per cent admit that their fascination with social networking is waning as they now find it boring to see the same old status updates and photographs on the website.

5.7 DIGITAL CONVERGENCE AND TELECOMMUNICATION

India had one of the poorest telecommunication systems. Only in mid 1980s it had embarked upon modernizing the facility by promoting indigenous technology and involving the private sector participation. In 1997 it established Telecom Regulatory Authority of India (TRAI) to regulate telephones in India. In 1998 there were 17.8 million telephone connections – a meagre 2.3 telephones for 100 people. The coming of digital technology changed the scenario.

Convergence is the coming together of all forms of mediated communications in an electronic, digital form driven by computers. Convergence presents profound challenges for the existing media order and has paved the way for the developments of multimedia products, blending text, data, graphics, full-motion video and sound.

The electronic media technologies driven by computers are rapidly merging into a single communication environment. What was once a separate and distinct media are now becoming increasingly indistinct and overlapping as the old lines blur.

The conventional mass media were stand-alone technologies. The news paper, radio, television, cable, and telephony were seen and used and practiced in the profession independently. Indeed, telecommunication (mainly telegraph and telephone) was never part of mass media and in same way computers and other information technologies were simply considered as technology for processing information but no one considered them as part of mass media. It was also reflected in the government administration which had separate ministries for Broadcasting, telecommunications and electronics. The universities which taught mass communication and journalism was far removed from computer science and electronics. At best in the late 1990s some universities outsourced computer teachings to the students of mass communication from these departments.

Digital technology used in computers and the same technology transferred to telecommunication changed mass communication forever. The birth of Internet merged the computer, media and telephone. One can hear radio on TV and Internet, watch films and listen to music on computers, read newspapers online, get FM radio on mobile phones, surf the internet on television, and video chat with people on Internet, pay

and watch new movies on TV, write letters to the editor online, and media person served simultaneously to more than one mass media. This is what we call convergence.

5.8 THE SOCIAL IMPLICATIONS

New media has revolutionized the world by making information available literally at the finger tips. Among others, it has created network of NGOs to fight for human rights and environmental protection. It has also made the advocacy on various matters of public interest possible. There are some negative developments too. Virus, phishing, hacking, spam, are threats that are real and growing. Commercial interests always lead the way in any new technology and innovation. Information is seen as commodity with a price instead of being a public resource for the good of the community.

Entertainment has become the primary motive for accessing the Net. Games, pornography and other such activities affecting social relations especially the young and children are increasing. There are studies which suggest that people who spend too much time on social networking sites tend to be more irritable and anxious and live in a world of fantasy rather than dealing with real people and real situation. Debates have started whether some kind of regulations and restrictions have to be put in place for the betterment of all.

5.9 SUGGESTED READINGS

Evans, H (1994) *Good Times, Bad Times*, London: Phoenix.

Franklin, B (1997) *Newszak and News Media*, London: Arnold Gunaratne A. Shelton, Ed., (2000)

Handbook of the Media in Asia, New Delhi: Sage.

Singhal, Arvind and Rogers M. Everett(2001) *India's Communication Revolution: From Bullock Carts to Cyber Marts*, New Delhi: Sage.

Pavlik, J.V. (2001) *Journalism and New Media*, Columbia, NY: University Press.

Lievrouw A. Leah and Livingstone (2006) *The Handbook of New Media*, New Delhi: Sage

Danah M. Boyd & Nicole B. Ellison (2007) "Social Network Sites: Definition, History, and Scholarship", *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*, Vol 13 (1), 210–230.

Keval J. Kumar (2009) *Mass Communication in India*, Delhi: Jaico Publishing House.

Khandekar Kohli Vinita (2010) *Indian Media Business*, 3rd Edition, New Delhi: Sage.

.
