SOCIETY OF MASS COMMUNICATION

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Paper-VI

SOCIOLOGY OF MASS COMMUNICATION

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Paper - VI – Sociology of Mass Communication

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UNIT - I

INTRODUCTION TO COMMUNICATION

LESSON - 1.1

MEANING OF COMMUNICATION

WHAT IS COMMUNICATION?

Communication is the name we give to the countless ways that
humans keep in touch with others - not just words and music, pictures
and print, nods and becks, postures and plumages - to every move that
catches someone's eye and every sound that resonates upon another's ear.
Communication is a universal fact not only of human beings, but also
animals and plants and it is an ever continuing process going on all the
time. The need for communication is as basic as the hunger for food and
drink, perhaps even more so.

In a broad sense, communication, in some form or the other, takes
place in all forms of life. For example, in plants, the roots communicate
sap to the trunk, branches and leaves. Animals communicate through
sound and gestures. Men communicate verbally through sound (spoken
word) and visuals (written word), and non-verbally through gestures.

In a strict sense, communication is a human activity for only human
beings can think, imagine, plan and recall information stored in memory.
Since communication is a human activity not in isolation but in relation
to other people, it is by its very nature, social.

Man's need for communication is as strong and as basic as his need
to eat, sleep and love. It is an individual and a social need. It is both a
natural individual demand and requirement of social existence to use
communication resources in order to engage in the sharing of experiences,
through symbol-mediated interaction. The severest punishment for a
human being is to be isolated, to be left alone, not to be spoken to. In this context only, society punishes criminals by locking them up in solitary cells, thus depriving them from the basic need to communicate.

The basic human need for communication can perhaps be traced to the process of mankind's evolution from lower species. Animals, for instance, have to be in sensory communication with their physical and biological surroundings to find food, protect themselves and to reproduce their species. A loss of sensation can even mean loss of life. The same is true with human excommunications.

DEFINITIONS OF COMMUNICATION

1. Etymologically, the word communication is derived from the Latin word 'communis' which means to make common, to share to transmit. For example, when Rajeev tells Sham that he fell from his bicycle, Rajeev is said to be sharing information with Sham. This shared information now becomes common, that is, it is known to Rajeev and to Sham.

2. Simply defined, 'Communication' is the act of transmitting information, ideas, and attitudes from one person to another.

3. In other words, Communication may be defined as a social process of passing on a Message, from a Sender to a Receiver through a Channel (David Berlo's S-M-C-R Model).

CHARACTERISTICS OF COMMUNICATION

1. Communication is a process.
2. Communication is an exchange of meaningful ideas.
3. Communication requires a medium.
4. Communication is transactional.
5. Communication satisfies our needs.

OBJECTIVES OF COMMUNICATION

1. To satisfy our human needs.
2. To build human relations.
3. To have empathy.
4. To hold dialogue.
5. To inform.
6. To have understanding.
7. To discourage misinformation.
8. To provide suggestions and complaints.
9. To have free exchange of ideas.
10. To foster attitudes.
LESSON - 1.2

FORMS OF COMMUNICATION

Each of us communicate with another individual by directing a message to one or more of his senses - sight, touch, taste, smell or sound. This is known as 'inter-personal communication' in contrast with 'intra-personal communication' in which a person "talks to himself". Both forms are subjects of much research study. When we smile, we communicate a desire for friendliness; the tone in which we say "good morning" can indicate feelings all the way from surliness to warm pleasure; and the words we choose in speaking or writing convey a message we want to "put across" to the other person. The more effectively we select and deliver those words, the better our communication.

The contemporary society is far too complex to function only through direct communication between one individual and another. Our important messages, to be effective, must reach many people at one time. A consumer who is angry at high onion prices may talk to a half-dozen neighbours about organizing a protest, but if the editor of the local newspaper publishes a letter from the consumer, the idea is communicated to hundreds of others in fraction of the time it would take to visit them individually. The politician running for State Assembly spends much time visiting families, meetings, shaking hands with the citizens in the hope of winning their votes. The candidate knows, however, that only a small percentage of the voters can be reached this way, so time is bought on television and radio to deliver the message to thousands of voters simultaneously. This is 'mass communication'.

THE FORMS OF COMMUNICATION

1. Intra-personal communication: This form of communication takes place with one's self. For example, thinking, worrying, daydreaming, etc. Man has the capacity to communicate with himself positively and negatively, constructively and destructively. He can build himself or hurt

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himself. Man’s communication with others is an expression of his communication with himself.

2. Inter-personal communication: Inter-personal or dyadic communication is one in which 2 to 4 individuals communicate with each other: a) There is interaction; b) The sending and the receiving of the messages are simultaneous; and c) It can be formal or informal. It is a form of communication we engage in most. This form of communication seems most effective in influencing opinions, attitudes, beliefs and values. This form of communication can be:

a) Face-to-Face: Here the sender and the receiver are present in person. The sender can see the reactions of the receiver and this helps the sender to adjust his communication.

b) Indirect: Where face-to-face communication is not possible, the sender sends the message to the receiver through a medium, e.g. a letter or a telephone.

3. Small group communication: In this form of communication usually about 5 to 15 persons engage in mutual conversation. This form of communication rules out gatherings of people where individual conversations go on but no group communication takes place. Again, physical closeness does not necessarily mean that the group is engaging in group communication. It is important that the group is small enough to allow and encourage all members to share more or less equally in both sending and receiving messages. In a small group communication, the audience is said to be homogeneous and permanent.

a) Homogeneous: because they come together for a common purpose, e.g. students at a college.

b) Permanent: because they are willing to stay together in order to achieve the common purpose, e.g. the acquisition of knowledge for a group of students in college.

4. Public communication: Here the speaker addresses a relatively large audience. In inter-personal and small group communication, it involves a
face-to-face situation with some interaction between speaker and audience. But the interaction is less balanced as the speaker does most or all of the speaking while the audience does most or all of the listening. E.g., a college class. Generally speaking, public communication is formal though it could be at times informal.

5. Mass communication: Mass communication is communication to a mass audience through a mass medium, e.g., Press, Radio, Cinema, Television. In this form of communication:

   a) the participants are no longer in a face-to-face situation.

   b) they do not interact directly because there is a medium between the sender and the receivers, e.g., books, magazines, radio, television.

   c) there is no immediate feedback; it is delayed, e.g., use of letters to the editor or to the station director, etc.

Unlike the small group audience, which is homogeneous and permanent, a mass audience is heterogeneous and impermanent.

   a) Heterogeneous: because it consists of people who are different in age, sex, religion, culture, level of education, etc.

   b) Impermanent: because it consists of people who do not stay together for a long time, e.g., audience in a movie house.

From what we have seen, we notice that the form of communication changes with the number of people involved and the medium used. Inter-personal communication is most effective for influencing opinions, attitudes, beliefs, values, etc., but public and mass communication are very useful for sharing information to large numbers of people.
LESSON - 1.3

BARRIERS TO COMMUNICATION

'Barriers' are any obstacles that come in the way of communication. They may be physical, mechanical, psychological, cultural or linguistic in nature. In the 'jargon' of communication, all barriers whatever their nature, are clubbed under the common label 'NOISE'. This term denotes not only atmospheric or channel disturbance, but all barriers that distort communications in any manner. Noise is anything that distorts (misrepresents) or interferes with the message in the communication process. Noise can be of various kinds. They are the following:

1. Physical Barriers

The following kinds of distractions act as 'physical barriers' to the communication process. They are:

a) The competing stimulus: It is in the form of another conversation going on within hearing distance, or loud music or traffic noise in the background. The cawing of crows or a plane passing overhead can, for example, drown out messages altogether.

b) Environmental stress: A high temperature and humidity, poor ventilation, vibrations felt, a strong glare – these can contribute to distortions in the sending and receiving of messages.

c) Subjective stress: Sleeplessness, ill health, the effects of drugs and mood variations give rise to form of subjective stress that often lead to great difficulties in listening and interpretation.

d) Ignorance of the Medium: The various media for communication in business are: oral, written, audio and audio-visual. The use of a medium, with which the Receiver is not familiar would turn the medium itself into a barrier.
2. Psychological Barriers

These are any defects in the human mind which blocks or interferes with the transmission or reception of the message. For example, bad mood, negative attitude, unfavourable prejudice, fear, depression, etc. Each one of us has a certain frame of reference, a kind of window through which we look out at the world, and events and situations. No two individuals possess exactly similar frames of reference, even if they should be identical twins. To a large extent our frames of reference are influenced by our experiences, particularly our childhood experiences, and the cultural environment we have grown up in. So depending on this communication selectivity takes place.

3. Limitations of the Sender

Quite often, the sender is unable to put across his message in a language and form understandable to the receiver. Not only does he choose the wrong medium, but also uses the medium in confusing manner. For example, in an oral presentation he fails to order his material logically, and includes irrelevant details. His emphasis may be all wrong and his choice of words inappropriate. His speech may be delivered badly in a voice that grates on the listener’s ears. In a written or printed presentation, the sender, not having learnt the art of composition, or due to sheer carelessness, may employ long winding sentences in which connections like ‘if’, ‘but’, ‘unless’, and ‘except’ occur too liberally.

4. Limitations of the Receiver

The extent to which the receiver gets the message depends largely on his span of attention, his level of intelligence in the subject spoken about, his level of understanding and his memory.

5. Unjust Assumptions

The unjust or unstated assumption is a common barrier to communication. A lot of misunderstanding is caused by a speaker or writer who makes an assumption that he need not explain or elaborate. An engineer, for example, wrongly assumes that the workers understand the
technical terms he employs to give instructions, or an executive imagines that his decision to the telephone operator have been clearly grasped.

6. The Barrier of 'Allness'

"Allness" is the attitude of people with closed minds. They assume that they know everything about a subject, and are not prepared to believe that they could be mistaken. They are dogmatic, hot, positive and absolute in their statements. Examples of such statements which are characteristic of the attitude of 'allness' include generalisations about foreigners, local communities, professional and so on:

a) Politicians are corrupt.

b) South Indians are intelligent.

c) Businessmen lack manners.

Most of the time, however, we make these generalisations without realising the implications of what we are saying - that we are prejudiced in favour of or against particular groups. The barrier of 'allness' distorts smooth communications.

7. Either/Or Orientation

We have seen how we tend to interpret messages in terms of our own frame of reference. This is often so narrow that our evaluation of people and the interpretation of their messages are seen in extremely negative or positive ways, in black or white terms of wrong or right. We don't make any allowance for the grey areas in between. In the same manner, we judge people as either good or bad, and refuse to reorganise that there is invariably something bad in the best of people, and something good in the worst. Such either/or orientation in our judgements acts as a barrier to effective communication and leads to much misunderstanding. For example, when someone who has gained our trust, or when someone begins a speech by saying something we fully agree with, we are likely to sit through his entire speech and accept all he says as good and correct. On the other hand, if a speaker whom we distrusted were to give a speech,
we would condemn his views from the start, rarely paying attention to his words.

8. Snap Reactions

As in the case of barriers of 'allness' and 'either/or orientation', with 'Snap Reactions' the listener or reader responds speedily or prematurely to the communicator’s message, pronouncing it favourable or unfavourable. For example, on a point of view, either the Receiver or the Speaker may suddenly react sharply and enter into conflict. This type of 'snap' or sudden behaviour is called 'signal reaction' since a person acts as though triggered by a signal from another person. These snap reactions are a serious barrier as they interpret communications in a hurry, sometimes even before the communications are completed.

9. Tendency to Evaluate

The major barrier in mutual interpersonal communication is our very natural tendency to judge, to evaluate, to approve/disapprove the statements of the other person or other group. The evaluation is invariable from one's own point of view, one's own frame of reference. In a discussion for example, on communal conflicts, we are inclined more easily to jump to conclusions about the participants and their views. Indeed, the stronger the feelings involved in the situation, the more likely it is that there will be no mutual element in the communication. This kind of premature evaluation as a barrier can be avoided when we listen with understanding.

10. Resistance to Change

We have the tendency to resist in any form with all our might, except where we are convinced it is to our benefit. So new ideas that do not support our views are resisted outright. Most of the time we do not actually hear views which conflict with our own. What we do hear with raw attention, is any communication that strengthens our beliefs, our self-image.
11. Defensiveness

One of man's most compelling needs is to justify himself. Even when we are convinced we are wrong, few of us admit, as it means a loss of face. Mostly we tend to rationalize, trying to explain, the mistakes we make, the attitudes and opinions we hold so dear. The defensiveness arises from a sense of threat from the following:

a) A speaker's evaluative approach which seeks to change a listener's behaviour.

b) A speaker's attempt to control and manipulate the listener through persuasion and propaganda.

c) A totally neutral approach to an issue, a person or an event. Such an approach suggests to the listener a lack of interest, and he therefore turns defensive.

d) A speaker's display of superiority.

e) A speaker's show of certainty.

12. Status

Status is determined by the position and power of an individual in an organisation. Status is related to authority, group leadership, prestige and knowledge. The physical environment, like special cabin, title, table, etc. may prevent free communications between the persons.

13. Linguistic and Cultural Barriers

A language is the expression of the thoughts and experiences of a people in terms of their cultural environment. When the same language is made use of in a different culture; it takes on another colour, another meaning. This is equally true of non-verbal language. For example, a nod of the head does not mean in the same way in all the cultures.

14. Mechanical Barriers

Mechanical barriers are those raised by the channels employed for interpersonal, group or mass communication. Channels become barriers when the message is interfered with by some disturbance, which a)
increased the difficulty in reception or b) prevented some elements of the message reaching its destination, or c) both. The absence of communication facilities too would be a mechanical barrier. This barrier includes any disturbance which interferes with the fidelity of the physical transmission of the message. A telephone, which does not work properly is a mechanical barrier in interpersonal communication. In mass communication, mechanical barriers would include such disturbances as static on the radio, smeared ink in the newspaper, a rolling screen on television or type too small to be read in a magazine.

REVIEW QUESTIONS
1. What do you mean by communication and explain its characteristics?
2. Discuss the various forms of communication.
3. Define "noise". What are the various forms of noise in the communication process?

BOOKS FOR FURTHER READING
UNIT - II

MASS COMMUNICATION AND MASS MEDIA

LESSON - 2.1

MASS COMMUNICATION

1. DEFINITION OF MASS COMMUNICATION

In the dictionary, mass is defined as a body of matter of indefinite shape and considerable size. For our purpose, mass is a very large body of people which cannot be reached directly by the source or sender but only indirectly with the help of a medium. If the audience to be reached is a mass audience, it is clear then that a mass medium will be needed. Hence mass communication is defined in the following way:

"Mass communication may be defined as a process of human communication in which a mass medium is used to communicate a message to a mass audience".

2. CHARACTERISTICS OF MASS COMMUNICATION

1. It is public: Messages sent through a mass medium are addressed to no one in particular but to all or many people.

2. It is rapid: Messages sent through a mass medium are intended to reach a large audience in a relatively short time.

3. It is transient: Messages sent through a mass medium are usually made to be consumed immediately and not to be entered into permanent records. There are exceptions such as film libraries, radio transcriptions, videotape recordings.

4. It is mostly one way: Seldom is there a quick or easy way for reader, viewer or listener to talk back or ask questions.
5. It is a social institution: Unlike the other forms of social communication, mass communication is done by an institution with many people involved and not just one individual.

3. FUNCTIONS OF MASS COMMUNICATION

1. Information: People want to be provided with timely and important facts and an evaluation of events which have consequences for their daily life. For example, important local, national and international news, job opportunities, availability and prices of commodities.

2. Education: People want to better themselves. For this they must be taught socialization and provided with general education and class-room instructions. For example, educational and cultural programmes.

3. Entertainment: The pace of modern life and the intensity of competition have increased anxieties. People need to relax themselves through diversion. For example, novels, stories, comics, dramas, musical programmes.

4. ELEMENTS OF COMMUNICATION PROCESS

   The main elements of the communication process are the following:

1. The Sender: The sender of a message has to decode or translate it in a language and an idiom familiar to the Receiver. The impact of his message will also depend on the status and reputation of the Sender. Status relates to authority, knowledge, and prestige, while reputation relates to the kind of person he is generally known to be; whether he is friendly or hostile to others.

2. The Receiver: Just as the Sender has his own 'frame of reference' so does the Receiver. What he selects to listen or attend to will depend upon his own attitude, opinions and prejudices, and the relationship he has with the Sender. It will also depend on the type of message sent, the channel employed, the manner of its reception, and the cultural situation in which it is received. The frame of the Receiver is of equal importance in his interpretation (encoding) of the message.
3. The Message: After the Receiver has encoded his idea into a message, he transmits it through a medium or channel. The message transmitted, however, does not often reach the Receiver in the same form. Distortions occur because of channel noise (barriers) and other distractions and also because of the psychological selectivity which the Receiver exercises in terms of his own needs and desires, of his past experience in dealing with the Sender and of his ability in understanding the language of the message. The manner in which the message is sent has to be taken into account as well.

4. The Channel: The Channel is the medium employed to convey a message. It is the avenue or means by which a message travels between the Sender and the Receiver. Of the various channels for inter-personal, group and mass communications, the print medium generally enjoys the highest credibility, and the television the lowest, but among the lower socio-economic classes television has good credibility. From the point of view of involvement, however, face-to-face communication offers the greatest possibility; print media the least.

5. The Socio-cultural situation: The situation is the whole physical, psychological, and socio-cultural framework within which communication occurs.

6. Noise: Noise is any kind of disturbance or distraction in the transmission of a message. The result of noise is generally a loss or distortion of meaning during the transmission and the reception. The following are the types of noise that mostly occur in communication process:

   a) Channel Noise: It is any disturbance which blocks or interferes with the transmission or reception of the message. For example, traffic noise, smeared ink in the newspaper, a rolling screen in television.

   b) Physiological Noise: It is any defect in the human body which blocks or interferes with the transmission or reception of the message from the sender or receiver. For example, a person who is deaf, dumb or blind.
c) Psychological Noise: It is any defect in the human mind which blocks or interferes with the transmission or reception of the message. For example, bad mood, negative attitude, unfavourable prejudice, fear, depression.

d) Semantic Noise: It is that which results in the wrong interpretation of messages. This is due to the different uses and meanings of words in a particular language.

7. Feedback: Feedback is the reaction or response of the Receiver which is communicated to the Sender. It could be in a form different from the form in which the original message was transmitted. The medium and channel too could be different.

We can represent the process of communication in the following diagram:

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5. THE OBJECTIVES OF MASS COMMUNICATION

a) To build human relations.
b) To have empathy
c) To hold dialogue.
d) To inform.
e) To influence.
f) To have understanding.
g) To discourage misinformation.

h) To provide suggestions and complaints.

i) To have free exchange of ideas.

j) To foster attitudes.

6. FUNDAMENTALS OF EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION

The authors of the book on "Effective Public Relations", Scot M. Cutlip and Allen H. Center, say about the monitoring of 7 Cs of communication. They are:

1) **Credibility:** A communication message must be credible. In other words, it must be believable to the audience.

2) **Context:** It should be able to be fitted into the context in which it is sent and to which it is addressed.

3) **Content:** The content of the message must be same to both the Sender and the Receiver. Also it must be current and relevant to the audience.

4) **Clarity:** It must be clear and easily understandable. Only then, it will reach the destination.

5) **Continuity and consistency:** It must be coherent and well composed. In other words, there must be continuity and consistency between one part of the message with the other.

6) **Channel:** The channel of communication is an important element in the communication process.

7) **Capability:** The receiver must have the capability to receive and answer the message.
LESSON - 2.2

ROLE OF MASS COMMUNICATION IN SOCIETY

WHY DO WE STUDY COMMUNICATION?
Fredrick Williams, in his book on "The New Communication" says that there are some basic characteristics of communication. They are:

1. Communication is the exchange of meaningful symbols.
2. Communication is a process.
3. Communication requires a medium.
4. Communication can be Transactional.
5. We communicate to satisfy our human needs.

He further goes on to say that the following are the reasons why we study communication, namely,

1. Communication is important to each of us personally.
2. We cannot but communicate.
3. Communication is the basis for interpersonal relations.
4. We are all communications consumers.
5. Communication in increasingly critical in the operation of modern organisation.
6. The communications professions are constantly changing.

BASIC FUNCTIONS OF COMMUNICATION
Communication serves a number of functions in any society, whether it is a democratic one or a communist one. According to Charles Wright, a sociologist, communication performs four basic functions. They are:

1. Surveillance: This means keeping a close watch over what is happening in our environment. This also means that the media keep a constant watch over what is happening in our immediate environment.
2. **Correlation**: This means interpretation of what is happening to us versus whatever we think should be happening.

3. **Socialization**: This means the process of learning at the moment. Socialization means the process of learning the ways, the rules of society. By getting socialized we acquire the knowledge and information about the various formal and informal rules of governance that takes place in our society.

4. **Entertainment**: This means pleasure, escape, and attention arousal. According to Charles, the media provide these in order to make the public relaxed and escape from the day to day monotony of work and home.

    These are the four major functions of communication although some more functions can be added. Communication performs these functions in any society. Communication has to perform these functions effectively in order to fulfill the wishes and aspirations of the people so that people accept the functions of communication.

**GENERAL FUNCTIONS**

Generally communication performs the following functions in our society. They are as follows:

1. It fulfills our information needs effectively.
2. It perform the entertainment function for passing of time and to release tension.
3. It provides instruction to people.
4. It also persuades people on a number of areas.

**SPECIFIC FUNCTIONS**

There are certain specific functions, which are performed in our Indian society. They are as follows:

1. In our country, communication is used as a tool of development.
2. It provides an input into the developmental plans launched by government from time to time.
3. It also acts as a catalyst agent in spreading messages of family planning.

4. It helps for various adult education programmes by which the illiterate get a chance to read and write.

5. The concept of 'health for all' is spread by communication media very effectively.

6. It also performs some social welfare roles by making the people accept the various welfare schemes launched by the government.

7. Communication also helps very much for the national integration.

8. It also promotes communal harmony.

9. Communication plays a very crucial role in the rural development.

10. Communication also promotes cultural values of our country through propagation and promotion of our great cultures.

11. Communication helps to break the barriers of cultures and religions and bring all the people together.

12. Communication promotes the public sector enterprises in India.

13. Communication helps to bring about social changes in certain unsocial practices of our society, like untouchability, casteism, etc.

14. Communication helps to promote the women and child welfare programmes.

15. Communication promotes India's tourism industry both inside and outside the country.

16. It also projects the image of our society to other foreign countries.

17. Communication brings access to people to nearby areas for those who are living in farflung and hilly areas of our country. It physically links various parts of the country with one another.

18. Communication aids in the various stages of our education, starting with primary education to university education.

19. Lastly, communication fulfills the link between state and the central governments by helping in their effective administration.
1. DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MASS COMMUNICATION AND MASS MEDIA

The expressions 'Mass communication' and 'mass media' are different in meaning. Mass communication refers to a process, whereas mass media refers to technical instruments such as the press, radio, cinema and television. Again, the use of mass media does not by itself constitute mass communication. For example, a nation-wide telecast is mass communication but a closed circuit telecast is not mass communication. So also a film projected in a movie house is mass communication but when the same film is projected in the home for a few people, it is not a mass communication. Though in both cases a mass medium is used, yet there is not a mass audience in both cases. Hence a mass medium may be used without a mass audience but we cannot have mass communication without a mass medium and a mass audience.

2. DEFINITION OF MASS MEDIA

"Mass media can be defined as the technical instruments such as the radio, press, cinema and television, which act as channels of communication to a mass audience".

3. CHARACTERISTICS OF MASS MEDIA

1. Complex technology: A mass medium is a mechanical device or complicated hardware such as transistors, printing presses, microphones, picture cameras. These machines are needed to produce and transmit messages to a mass audience.

2. Velocity (speed): The mass medium must be capable of getting the message quickly to a mass audience. For example, a television signal can be sent around the world in less than a second. While not all mass media are that fast, especially cinema and the press, all mass media emphasize timely content.
4. MASS AUDIENCE

Mass audience may be broadly classified into two groups. First, the General Public Audience, which includes everybody. Second, the Specialised Audience, which may be based on sex (i.e. women), age (e.g. youth), interest (e.g. classical music) etc. This specialised audience makes it possible for the Sender to communicate his message which may be of interest only to a particular portion of the mass. Whatever be the type of mass audience, the following are its characteristics:

1. **It is relatively large:** When is an audience said to be ‘large’? It is easy to classify extreme cases. For example, a television audience of millions is large; a lecture audience of several dozens is small. An audience is said to be large only when a communicator cannot interact with the members of the audience on a face-to-face basis.

2. **It is heterogeneous:** The message communicated is not intended for an exclusive or elite audience but for an audience that represents a wide variety of social categories, e.g. people of many ages, of both sexes, of many levels of education, from many geographic locations.

3. **It is relatively anonymous:** The individual members of the audience generally remain personally unknown to the communicator and to each other.

4. **It is scattered:** The individual members of the mass audience are scattered in cities, towns and villages. As a consequence, there is little interaction or exchange of experience among them.

5. **It is permanent:** The same people do not always constitute the same mass audience. For example, at a movie house or a television programme.

5. **FUNCTIONS OF MASS MEDIA**

    1) Act as a channel.
    2) Give special effect.
    3) Give pleasant viewing.
    4) Give pictorial illustrations.
6. HOW IMPORTANT ARE THE SENSES?

According to a study conducted in America, we learn 1% through taste. We all make mistakes through taste. We learn 1.5% through touch. We do make mistakes by touching things. We touch things that we should not touch, and therefore we make mistakes. We learn 3.5% through our sense of smell. But once we start hearing, the learning process also is increased by 11%. We learn much more, 83% through the sense of sight. It means that there is a priority of the sense of sight. If teaching has to be successful, one must use the sense of sight for teaching by slide projector, etc.; then people can learn faster.

According to this study, we retain in memory 10% through reading. Much more through hearing, 20%. Still high, i.e., 30% from seeing. If we combine these two, it comes to about 50% i.e. by hearing and seeing. And when we add speaking to seeing and hearing, the percentage becomes 80%. And lastly 90% for doing and speaking.

We learn

1% through TASTE
1.5% through TOUCH
3.5% through SMELL
11% through HEARING
83% through SIGHT

We retain

10% through READING
20% through HEARING
30% through SEEING
50% through SEEING + HEARING
80% through SPEAKING
90% through SPEAK + DO

So here, from the statistical value, it tells us that priority of sound and sight, therefore AUDIO VISUAL. In the same manner, the priority of speaking and doing, therefore, MICRO MEDIA or what we can call "group media".
LESSON – 2.4

WHAT MEDIA CAN DO AND CANNOT DO

Communicators must be aware of the strengths and weaknesses of each medium in order to plan their work effectively. Many fine efforts become ineffective because of poor understanding of the medium used. Miles Riley, a communicator from the USA, has produced the following check-list which indicates what each medium can and cannot do well.

1. PRINT

Advantages

1. Material inexpensive (paper/ink).
2. Production process simple/rapid.
3. Distribution can be controlled.
4. Long life, permanent referral possible.
5. Subject can be dealt with in variety of ways.
6. Range of illustrative possibilities.
7. Quick to complete.
8. Can be done by one person.

Disadvantages

1. Static.
2. May be hard to distribute.
3. May be discarded before being read.
4. Can easily be dull.

2. MAGAZINES

Advantages

1. Selected audience.
2. Frequently affluent audience.
3. Prestigious.
4. Pass-along readership.
5. Use of colour and visuals.

Disadvantages
1. Deadlines may be months in advance.
2. Placements may be difficult to obtain.
3. Duplication of circulation may occur.
4. Market is unlikely to be local.

3. NEWSPAPERS

Advantages
1. Geographically focused.
2. Relatively low cost.
3. Reach all income groups.
4. Deadlines for copy relatively short.

Disadvantages
1. Short message life.
2. Placements are limited.
3. May be difficult to obtain.
4. No editorial control.
5. High cost for national coverage.

4. DIRECT MAIL

Advantages
1. Highly selected audience.
2. Message can be personalised.
3. Easy to provide means for reader reaction.
4. Competition is not directly with other advertisers.
Disadvantages
1. Poor image of "junk mail".
2. Difficult to maintain good lists.
3. Expensive and time consuming to produce good mailings.
4. Postage is expensive and heavily regulated.

5. PAMPHLETS AND BROCHURES

Advantages
1. Detailed message.
2. Future reference.
3. Thoughtful presentation and distribution enhanced.
4. Many possible formats and colours.
5. May be directed to selected audience.

Disadvantages
1. Deadlines may be long for printing and production.
2. Production cost and time may be high.
3. Effectiveness difficult to measure unless coupon is used.
4. Audience wants classy production but often resents high cost.

5. TELEVISION BROADCAST

Advantages
1. High quality production.
2. Large audience.
3. Impressive authenticity credibility.
4. People relate readily to it.
5. Visual possibilities.
6. Demonstrability.
7. Presence unrealised, creative, artistic and communicational potential.
Disadvantages
1. Shotgun audience.
2. Requires excessive time and production expense.
3. Difficult to get into air time.
4. Air time is costly if paid for.
5. Future referral to message is difficult.
6. Message limited by short segments, commercial interruptions and context.

7. VIDEO TAPE

Advantages
1. Easy to learn.
2. Exciting medium.
3. Inexpensive (compared to broadcast)
4. Tape is reusable.
5. Instant playback.
6. Portable equipment.
7. Involves many people.

Disadvantages
1. Still somewhat expensive.
2. Playback limited to small group.
3. Broadcast quality requires further investment.
4. Lack of consistent compatible hardware and formats in the industry.
5. Spoiled by broadcast TV.
6. People expect too much.

8. RADIO

Advantages
1. Inexpensive to produce.
2. Creative use of music and effects.
3. Low cost and accessible receiving equipment relatively easy to get air time.
4. Applicable for groups and individuals.
5. Some selectivity of audience.
6. Good saturation of local markets.
7. Easy to alter copy, edit, adapt, up-date.
8. Great creative access to the imagination.

Disadvantages
1. Needs quiet surroundings.
2. No visual message.
3. Hard to get cohesive public due to variety of listening habits.
4. May only be heard marginally as people do other things.
5. Message limited by short segments.
6. Audience still often too broad.

9. FILM

Advantages
1. Large audience potential.
2. Powerful creative art form.
3. Playback equipment relatively inexpensive and available.
4. Involves many people.
5. Both audio and visual.

Disadvantages
1. Expensive to produce and duplicate.
2. Long time in production.
3. Formal, final quality, with less process and feedback.
4. Hard to edit or change.
REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Discuss the elements of communication. Illustrate with suitable examples.
2. What are the functions performed by mass communication in a society?
3. Bring out the advantages and disadvantages of the various media.

BOOKS FOR FURTHER READING

1. Denis McQuail – Mass Communication Theory-An Introduction.
UNIT – III

SOCIOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE OF MASS COMMUNICATION

LESSON – 3.1

COMMUNICATION AS A SOCIAL SCIENCE

Variety of disciplines are included in social sciences and communication is one of them. The other social sciences which can be included in the list are: economics, political science, anthropology, social work and sociology to name a few. Communication occupies a unique place among these disciplines as a social science. The social sciences study the various aspects of a society and communication studies the communicative phenomena found among the members of the society. In a social science study, we analyse the human beings and their particular behaviours as members of society in a scientific way. For example, the subject of economics deals with the economic activities of our society and the members and it concerns the human beings in that particular field in a scientific way. Similarly communication deals with the scientific study of how human beings communicate among themselves as members of society and what are the various methods and media they use in the process of communication.

THE FIELDS OF COMMUNICATION

The subject of communication deals with various fields, depending upon the type of interaction that takes place among the members of the society. The fields of communication which deals with various social sciences are as follows:

a) Inter personal communication: Inter personal communication is an important branch of communication. The inter personal communication is that which mostly takes place in a face-to-face situation or that in which communication takes place directly between two or more persons. Its
objective is to familiarise the content and process of interpersonal communication and what are the problems and issues that are involved in its study.

b) Mass communication: It is a branch which deals with the use of various media of mass communication such as press, film, radio, advertising and public relations. The objective of this branch is to familiarize the reader with mass communication institutions and practices all over the world or any particular country in which it is used.

c) Organizational communication: Next to interpersonal communication, another important communication is that which takes place between the members of an organization. When the dynamics of this communication is well understood it does add to the greater and more effective functioning of the behaviour.

d) Journalism: The next important branch of study in the broad field of communication is the study of journalism. Here the learner studies the reporting and writing of a newspaper or a magazine and also practices journalism. Journalism has become one of the professions in our country and it demands trained and qualified personnel. This situation invites a careful study of the subject concerned. Journalism as a subject of communication also uses the skills of communication.

e) International communication: This is yet another branch of communication which studies the international communication or the communication between two different countries and also the communication flow from one country to another.

f) Intercultural communication: In a country like India, where there are various cultural groups co-existing, this study on the intercultural communication gets special importance. During the last half of the 20th century this intercultural communication has gained much importance and momentum because of the intensive interactions both between the members of different cultures in our country as well as in other parts of the world.
g) **Health communication:** This branch studies the communication in health sector and how communication can maximise and increase the health for all. For example, the outbreak of AIDS and other related diseases has brought the attention of various media personnel on the problems of communications confronted in the health sector also. Health communication is also applied in areas of family planning and primary health care in our country.

h) **Rural communication:** India is by and large a rural country and more than 70% of its population live in rural areas and depend upon agriculture for livelihood. Under this context, it becomes essential to study rural communication in our country from the point of view of the planners and policy decision makers, who like to undertake communication programmes in rural areas.

i) **Traditional communication:** The traditional media of communication has gained momentum after the country has gained independence from the British. India has a rich traditional media and we use it for a variety of communication purposes. We need traditional media or communication to study the traditional arts of our folks. India has a rich culture dating back to 5000 years and the traditional media have flourished in our country over the years. Now it is used to communicate complicated themes and subjects for increasing the welfare of the people.

j) **Applied communication:** As the world becomes more and more complex, we need to supply the study of communication in various branches of learning and practice as well. Today communication is being applied in various areas like health, agriculture, industry and corporate sector apart from education. The aim of communication in these areas is to increase the understanding of the people of these areas and how best communication can fulfill the targets set to be achieved in various aspects in these fields. Applied communication has gained importance in our country over the years due to the realisation of the fact that communication has become a necessity to solve problems in these areas.
k) Communication Theory and Research: This is another important branch of communication, which studies the importance of various theories of communication and how these theories are applied in practice. It also studies the various research methods that are followed.

These are some of the fields or subdisciplines of communication study in our country. The subject of communication as a social science discipline has gained momentum in our country which includes the study of several social science discipline in our country in the days to come.
Lesson – 3.2

Communication as a Scientific Study

Communication is a relatively younger discipline that has come to be studied in the late 19th century and early 20th century. Though it has not fully developed its theoretical base, unlike other social sciences like economics, it does borrow heavily from the social and behavioural sciences such as sociology and psychology and it is yet to build a theoretical base of its own. Hence, the study of communication needs a theory basis from the scientific perspective.

The scientific study of communication involves the use of science in communication. This means that communication will be studied systematically from the scientific perspective. Therefore, the nature of communication, as a discipline, is that it is a science. In this section let us try to understand the scientific character of communication.

What is Science?

Science refers to logical, systematic methods by which knowledge of the universe is obtained and to the actual body of knowledge produced by these methods. The sciences are divided into two main branches, the natural sciences and the social sciences.

All sciences, natural and social, assume that there is some underlying order, or regular pattern in the universe. Events follow a pattern that is sufficiently regular for generalizations to be made about them. Generalizations are crucial to science because they place isolated, meaningless events in patterns that we can understand. It then becomes possible to analyse relationships of cause and effect and thus to explain why something happens and to predict that it will happen again under the same conditions in the future.

Non-scientific ‘common sense’ explanations are based on belief, but scientific explanations are based on facts. This does not mean that common
sense cannot provide accurate explanations and predictions; it can and often it does. The problem is that without using the methods of science there is no way to tell whether common sense is correct.

DEFINITIONS OF SCIENCE

"A science can be defined as a body of organized, verified knowledge which has been secured through scientific observations".

"A science is a method of study whereby a body of organized, verified knowledge is discovered".

"Science can be defined as the systematic body of knowledge dealing with cause and effect of the natural phenomena".

From these definitions of science, we can clearly understand that the definition of communication also goes along this line, namely that communication is a systematic body of knowledge dealing with cause and effect of the various forms of communication that take place among the human beings in a society.

CHARACTERISTICS OF SCIENCE

Shapere, a social science scholar, says that there are three basic features in the identification of science. They are: 1) Rationality; 2) Generalizability; and 3) Systematizability. Rationality means giving way to reasons only. Generalizability means that it can be generally applied. Systematizability means it can be made into a system. In other words that it can be studied systematically. Alfred Schutz gives three postulates of science. They are: 1) Logical Consistency; 2) Subjective interpretation; and 3) Adequacy. Logical consistency means that the study of science must be consistent in terms of logic and the subjective interpretation implies that science can be interpreted on subjective basis with fact or reason involved. Adequacy means that science remains consistent with the common sense experience of the social reality. This means that scientific concepts can be explained in terms of day-to-day experiences of the real world compatible with common sense interpretation.
Generally, the following are the characteristics which we can find in science. They are:

1. Objectivity
2. Precision
3. Quantifiability
4. Universality
5. Predictability
6. Verifiability
7. Empiricity
8. Ethical Neutrality.

These above characteristics of science are also found in the characteristics of communication. Since all these characteristics are found in communication, we say that communication is a science. Let us try to understand the scientific characteristics of communication.

1. **Communication is objective:** The study of communication is free from any subjective interpretation of the reality. It is a study which approaches the processes of communication as they take place.

2. **Communication is precise:** The study of communication is expected to be exact and not more or less.

3. **Communication is quantifiable:** Any study undertaken in communication has to be expressed only in quantitative terms. There is no place for any qualitative expressions in communication.

4. **Communication is universal:** Generalisation has to be made once a serious scientific study has been made in communication. Any conclusion arrived at with regard to communication cannot be claimed as 'reserved'.

5. **Communication is predictable:** Based on a scientific theory in communication, we must be able to predict what will happen if a particular step is taken with regard to communication.
6. Communication is verifiable: A study of communication should be available for verification by any body and at any time.

7. Communication is empirical: In communication, a study can be undertaken only on those that are seen by our senses. This means that studies on communication cannot be undertaken on abstract ones, which may not be available to any one of our five senses.

8. Communication is ethically neutral: There is not to be any variation in studies on communication because of the ethical or moral characters of the person who has undertaken the studies. It is the same whether the person is morally good or bad. It never changes its behaviour.

METHOD USED IN SCIENCE

The following are the steps that are used in any scientific enquiry. All these steps are also followed in the studies undertaken in communication:

1. Formulation of the Problem.
2. Development of a working hypothesis
3. Planning the study
4. Collecting and Processing the data
5. Analysis and interpretation of the data
6. Presentation of the result.

The above proof of the scientific character of communication has also been justified by the author of a book called "Perspectives on Human Communication", namely, Aubrey Fisher, who says that communication is a social science. The term 'social' involves the society or people and the term 'science' means the systematic study of communication. We can also support the thesis of Fisher since the systematic study of communication can be a study of social science. The following are the points which are given to say why communication is called a systematic study of social science:

1. It uses social science terms.
2. Communication applies and borrows social science research techniques.

3. Communication conducts experiments in its field with the use of scientific methods.

4. Scholars in communication are borrowing heavily from the experience of social science research experiments.

5. Communication uses social science review of literature.

6. Communication techniques such as content analysis methods and survey research methods are widely used in other social science disciplines as well.

7. In the use of research terms, communication borrows from other social science disciplines.

8. Communication, as a systematic and scientific study, uses the statistical techniques in its study.

9. Communication also applies various research methodologies in conducting studies.

10. Finally, communication believes in the concept of testability.

There are also some of the terms that are used in the study of communication. The scientific study of communication involves the uses of these terms and application of the social scientific research technique. Thus, as far as communication is concerned we can assert that it is a scientific study because of the above logically proof-oriented discussion.
In this lesson, we list some of the most fundamental concepts used in Sociology that can be applied to the public media.

1. ALIENATION

This means, literally, "no ties" and refers to a feeling of estrangement and separation from others. A person who is alienated feels like "a stranger" (alien) with no connections to his or her society or to some group in that society. This feeling of alienation is connected, in many instances, to the bureaucracies that develop in organizations. Bureaucracies are often necessary to deal with large number of people in a fair and efficient manner, but they are also impersonal and generate feelings of alienation. Students in large universities are frequently known to the administrations only by their social security numbers or enrolment numbers and our language about students also has an alienating tone. We sometimes talk about young men and women as being "College Material".

We can use the concept of alienation to understand the behaviour of characters in texts of social groups and subcultures-teen-agers, punk rockers, etc. When we use this concept we must connect it, very specifically, to acts of characters and the behaviour of groups and subcultures.

2. ANOMIE

This word is derived from the Greek word 'nomos', meaning norms. A person who rejects the norms of a given society is described as anomie. Anomie and alienation are quite different. A group of thieves might have a strong sense of fellowship and thus not be alienated. But because they have no respect for the laws of society, they would be described as anomie.

3. BUREAUCRACY

As society becomes larger and more complex, it becomes increasingly difficult to regulate, and keeping things running with any degree of
efficiency can be a problem. Bureaucracies are collections of more or less anonymous people who follow fixed rules and routines in running organizations. There is usually a hierarchy of authority, impersonal handling of problems, and a great deal of red tape.

4. CLASS (SOCIOECONOMIC)

A class is a group of people with something in common. When we use the term sociologically, we usually mean socioeconomic class, which refers to a person's class level or place in the hierarchy of classes that exists in society. W. Lloyd Warner, a distinguished sociologist and anthropologist, has suggested there are six classes in American society: upper, lower-upper, upper-middle, lower-middle, upper-lower, and lower-lower. Warner's estimates (published a number of years ago) of the distribution of these classes in the United States are as follows:

- upper-upper - 1.4% of the population
- lower-upper - 1.6% of the population
- upper-middle - 10% of the population
- lower-middle - 28% of the population
- upper-lower - 33% of the population
- lower-lower - 25% of the population

Warner suggests that the lower-middle and upper-lower classes constitute the "common man" level. These figures are somewhat outdated, but they give an idea of the class make-up of American society that is still fairly accurate.

Socioeconomic class is determined by a number of components, such as education, income, and occupation, and different social classes have different lifestyles, ways of raising children, and values.

5. DEVIANCE

Deviance refers to behavioural patterns that are different from typical or conventional ones (and some would say normal ones). Our attitudes toward different deviants change over time. Thus, homosexuality was once considered criminal but now it is defined as deviant and tolerated by most
people. Deviance generates anxiety in people because it forces us to consider how valid our practices are and how correct our attitudes are about what is normal.

6. ELITES

This term refers to people at the top of the social pyramid, the upper-class and lower-upper-class people who have positions of power, who are affluent, and who generally have professional and executive occupations. (The opposite of the elites would be the common man and common woman). It has been documented that television heroes tend to be relatively young; well-educated, white professionals; there are very few working-class heroes. We might wonder what effect this over-representation of elites has on people.

7. ETHNICITY

This is conventionally understood to mean group existing in a society that share certain cultural traits and traditions that distinguish them. Ethnic groups are often stereotyped in the media.

8. FUNCTIONALISM

Sociologists say something is functional when it contributes to the maintenance and stability of whatever entity it is part of; likewise, something is dysfunctional (or dysfunctional) if it is a destabilizing or destructive factor. If it has no effect on the entity it is part of, it is called "nonfunctional". What complicates matters is that something may be functional in some regards and dysfunctional in other regards at the same time. Thus television in general may be functional in that, it provides a great deal of information to people, helps fuel consumption, and stresses certain values, but it may be dysfunctional in that it provides negative roles for many people, suggests that the world is more violent than it really is, and creates feelings of anxiety and discontent in people who cannot afford all of the good (and bad) things advertised on television. There is a conservative bias to functional analysis in that it emphasizes the
maintenance and stability of society, instead of focusing on changes that might be made.

We can also examine phenomena in terms of whether or not their functions are intended or unintended, conscious or unconscious. Thus the manifest function of news programs might be to inform people, while the latent function of these programs might be to indoctrinate people with certain political values and beliefs. The reporters and newscasters may not be aware that they are indoctrinating people; they may believe that all they are doing is reporting the news.

As media analysts, we are interested in the roles individual performers play in texts and in the roles assigned to women, ethnic and racial minorities, old and young people, and representatives of other groups (sexual, political, religious, socio-economic) as well. Viewers of films and television programs often identify with the heroes and heroines in these texts and use them to create identities. There is, many believe, a considerable amount of "social teaching" that is generated by the media.

Many critics argue that the roles that women play in the media are demeaning. They are treated, all too often, only as sexual objects, used for display or as dummies who get excited about some brand of toilet articles. They are seldom portrayed as professionals who can be productive and should be taken seriously. Frequently, they are not shown as active, but rather as passive figures who react to the initiatives of others, usually males.

These roles give people very destructive images about what women are like and how they should be treated and have negative consequences not only for women, but for men as well.

When we look at roles from a sociological perspective, then, we must ask ourselves about the roles that are assigned to people (who must be seen as representatives of social groups) and what impact these roles might have upon individuals and society, in general.
There is one other concept that is of interest - functional alternatives. Sociologists use this idea to explain situations in which, for example, an original institution loses its viability (to some extent) and is replaced by a substitute institution. According to functionalist theory, institutions are created and evolve because certain things have to be done to keep a society operating properly. If the original institution no longer works, something must be found to take its place.

All of these different aspects of functional analysis are summarized in the list that follows:

a) functional: maintains an organization, society, or the like.
b) disfunctional: destabilizes an organization, society, or the like.
c) nonfunctional: plays no role.
d) manifest function: intended and recognised by people.
e) latent function: not intended and not recognized by people.
f) functional alternative: substitutes for original institution, practice.

9. LIFESTYLE

Here we have a comprehensive term that covers a person's tastes in fashion, cars, entertainment and recreation, literature, and related matters. "Style" suggests fashion, and the term "lifestyle" describes how a person fashions his or her life. Lifestyle is often connected to socioeconomic class, and is reflected in a person's "image".

Lifestyle is reflected in various kinds of taste decisions: in the kind of car one drives, in the kind of dog or cat one has, in the magazines one reads (or, at least, has on the coffee table), in where one lives, what one's house is like (how big, the color of the walls, the kind of furniture), what one does for a living, what kind of food one eats and what restaurants one goes to, what kind of vacations one takes .... the list is endless. All of these phenomena tend to be class specific and are reflections of one's class and so-called level of sophistication. The institution which tutors us about these matters is advertising, one of whose basic functions is to make sure,
to the extent it can, that "expenditure" always rises to meet, if not exceed, income.

10. RACE

David Dressler (1969: 518-519) defines race as "a category of people with a common genetic heritage" and mentions that physical anthropologists "often cited three broad classifications of race: Negroid, Mongoloid and Caucasoid (although other divisions are sometimes listed). "Race, it must be added, is not the same thing as ethnicity, which is connected to nationality and not genetic make-up. I mention the subject of race because there has been a considerable amount of racism in the public arts, historically, and it is still a problem.

11. ROLE (SOCIAL)

We know what a role is in a play, and the concept of social roles is very similar. It refers to certain kinds of behaviour that we learn, that relate to expectations people have of us, that are connected to specific situations, and that are determined, in part, by our place in society. In the course of a day the average individual plays many roles: parent, worker, companion, and so on.

12. SEX (GENDER)

Sex is an important sociological concept when it is linked to roles and some of the other terms discussed here. Many media critics argue that the media have given women destructive sex roles, or images, and are "sexist". This is certainly an important matter to keep in mind when analyzing the media.

A content analysis made by sociologist E. Barbara Phillips is most instructive. She analyzed random selections of two magazines Ms. and Family Circle—and discovered considerable differences between them.

The women who were the subjects of articles in Family Circle were homemakers and there were no articles about women who were involved in politics or social concerns. The articles in Ms., on the other hand, didn’t
deal with any women as homemakers (though many of them were married and had families) but were focused on the way these women were involved in social, cultural and political life, and public service. The two magazines projected different roles for women and, no doubt, helped support and reinforce the value systems of the women reading each publication.

13. SOCIALIZATION

This refers to the process by which people are taught the rules, roles, and values of their society. We may look upon socialization as a kind of indoctrination that is done formally through institutions, such as the family, the school system, and the church, and informally through the media. What is important about informal socialization is that we generally do not recognize that we are being taught (some would say programmed) what roles to play and how to play them, what values to espouse, what attitudes to have, what goals to strive for, and so on.

14. STATUS

Status is often confused with role; the two are actually quite different, though one is connected with the other. Status involves the position a person has in some group or organization and the prestige that is connected with this position. It is associated with a person’s role. Within universities, for example, Professors have more status than Assistant Professors or Readers and play different roles. Within society in general those who have certain occupations have great status (doctors, lawyers, professors, bankers) and others have little status (ditch diggers). Status or prestige is a powerful force in society that is used to control people in subtle ways.

15. STEREOTYPE

In Horton and Hunt’s Sociology, stereotype is defined as “a group-shared image of another group or category of people. Stereotypes can be positive (the kindly, dedicated family doctor), negative (the unprincipled, opportunistic politician) or mixed (the dedicated, fussy, sexless, old-maid school teacher)”. Regardless of whether stereotypes are positive or negative, they are very dangerous. They give millions of people
oversimplified, erratic, and sometimes pernicious images of Dalits women, doctors, police officers, the list could be endless. No matter what the form—racial stereotyping, occupational stereotyping, sex-role stereotyping, or some other—stereotypes are over-simplifications and over-generalizations that minimize individual differences; they tend to be very destructive.

16. VALUES

This refers to attitudes people have relative to what is desirable and undesirable, good and bad. Our values, in indirect ways, affect our behaviour and cover a wide spectrum of social phenomena: sex, politics, education, and so on. As media critics we must concern ourselves with the values of the characters we see in dramatic productions and with what these values suggest about our society.

This lesson in sociological concepts is meant to alert us to some of the concerns sociologists (and other social scientists, as well) have and what they look at when they examine the public media. Frequently it is useful to combine the concepts and consider such matters as sex-role stereotyping, socioeconomic class and status, racism and sexism (and all the other isms), the values of deviants, and so forth.

We must remember that, we are dealing with works of art when we analyze sitcoms, soap operas, commercials, and all the other genres carried in the public arts. We should not consider them to be merely documents to be examined in terms of their sociological content; we must take other considerations into account, such as artistic conventions and the difficulties involved in dealing with some artistic or creative personalities.
USES AND GRATIFICATIONS THEORY

There is a good deal of controversy related to "uses and gratifications" theory, but the same can be said about every other theory that deals with media. Despite the fact that much research on media has been of an empirical nature and concerned with the effects media have on attitudes (and many other matters), there has been a considerable amount of interest in the ways people use media and the gratifications media offer to people.

Regardless of whether we think that soap advertisements are stupid or that situation comedies are silly, the functions that these programs—and others—perform for people may in some cases be quite important.

In the material that follows we will list and briefly describe a number of suggested gratifications that the media offer and needs that they help assuage. There is a good deal of scientific work that remains to be done on our needs, on the gratifications we seek, and on the role media play here, but it seems quite obvious that people do use media (though they may not be aware of the fact that they are doing so) in varying ways.

It is difficult to decide, in some cases, whether we are dealing with a need, a use, a gratification, or a desire. The list is also incomplete: we may be able to add important topics to it that will help us to understand more fully how the media function.

1) TO BE AMUSED

We seem to want to be entertained, to find things to laugh about, to be put in a happy spirit. This is a source of positive pleasure.

2) TO SEE AUTHORITY FIGURES EXALTED OR DEFLATED

We like to see authority figures deflated and ridiculed, especially politicians, soldiers, professors, and psychiatrists. There are some authority figures we tend to exalt, however: clergymen, surgeons, and detectives, to
name a few. The media play an important role in teaching us how to relate to authority and deal with authority figures.

3) TO EXPERIENCE THE BEAUTIFUL

We give high status to beautiful music, beautiful works of art, and people who are physically attractive, in particular, beautiful women. What is beautiful is another matter, however, and our definitions of beauty change over the years.

4) TO HAVE SHARED EXPERIENCES WITH OTHERS (COMMUNITY)

One of the more important functions of the mass media is to give people a common cultural frame of reference. In some cases, such as when go to football games in huge stadiums, we are actually with others in a momentary kind of community. And this experience is often shared with millions of others who may listen to the game on the radio or watch it on television. In other cases we merely watch a program "along with" millions of others. It has been discovered that one of the most important topics of conversation is media, so sharing the same programs or films helps people relate to one another.

5) TO SATISFY CURIOSITY AND BE INFORMED

This has to do with our wish to know what's going on, to be up to date on things, to follow stories as they develop, and that kind of thing. The satisfaction of curiosity probably has to do with nosiness and a natural inquisitiveness we seem to have, while the desire to know what's going on and to be informed has to do with surveillance and the anxiety we feel when we are "in the dark". One thing is certain—we learn a great deal from the media both directly and indirectly.

6) TO IDENTIFY WITH THE DEITY AND THE DIVINE PLAN

Many people have some form of what might be called "the God concept", and the media often help people gain a sense of the nature of life, the power of spiritual forces, and so forth.
7) TO FIND DISTRACTION AND DIVERSION

Many people find that the public arts help them escape (if only momentarily) from worry and anxiety and help them pass the time when they are bored. This kind of thing is sometimes described as "killing time" by those who feel the public arts tend to be mindless and destructive, but from our uses and gratifications perspective, the public arts never allow us only to "kill me". We may seem to be doing nothing (and even think we are doing nothing) when we watch television or listen to rock music, but in truth a great deal is going on.

8) TO EXPERIENCE EMPATHY

By this I mean being able to share in the joys and sorrows of others and deriving – from this, psychological pleasure often catharsis or "relief". Although we relate to the various characters we see in the media vicariously, we still are able to share in their emotional experiences and this enriches us greatly. It also helps us prepare ourselves emotionally for the difficulties we all face in real life at one time or another.

9) TO EXPERIENCE, IN A GUILT-FREE AND CONTROLLED SITUATION, EXTREME EMOTIONS, SUCH AS LOVE AND HATE, THE HORRIBLE AND THE TERRIBLE, AND SIMILAR PHENOMENA

This is slightly different from experiencing empathy, which involves identifying with characters. Here we are talking about our desire to experience powerful emotions without being carried away by them or feeling guilty about them. The media enable us to have powerful experiences without paying for them, so to speak, and to take risks without having to worry about being devastated. (There is some question, however, as to whether we do escape from being affected by our media experiences. Despite the "controls", we may end up having various morbid residues, triggerings to violence, and so on that we are unaware of consciously, but that may trouble us.)
10) TO FIND MODELS TO IMITATE

These models help us to gain a sense of identity, teach us how to cope in certain situations, and, informally, socialize us. One problem here is that we may identify with villains rather than heroes and heroines and pick up ideas, attitudes, and behaviour patterns that are harmful and destructive. For example, there is a great deal of fear that children who watch cartoon programs full of violence will learn to be violent and to use violence as a means of solving problems.

11) TO GAIN AN IDENTITY

An identity can be defined as a coherent sense of self, a personal style, a "defined" personality. We are no longer a traditional society, and as our traditions wither, as we become more mobile, modern, and materialistic, we find it increasingly more difficult to gain an identity. This is where the media come in—and, in particular, the various heroic and unheroic figures we follow in the comics, watch on television, read about in popular novels, and so on. They help us manufacture identities, so to speak. But whether or not these identities are suitable, long lasting and good for us is another matter.

12) TO GAIN INFORMATION ABOUT THE WORLD

In some cases this is obvious: we hear economists talk about economic problems, professors are called upon to explain things to us, documentaries deal with topics of interest, and, at items, courses are actually taught on television. But we also learn a great deal "incidentally" all the time. This incidental learning involves some matters I've already mentioned—learning how to behave in certain situations, finding heroic figures to emulate, and having certain values reinforced. The media are always teaching us something, even when they are not intentionally doing so, and even when we don't realize they are doing so. A good question we might keep in mind, then, is, "What are we learning from the media?"
13) TO REINFORCE OUR BELIEF IN JUSTICE

It doesn’t always work out this way, but generally speaking we like to see heroes defeat villains and to see evil punished and virtue rewarded. In other words, we want to believe that the universe is moral and that crime doesn’t pay.

14) TO BELIEVE IN ROMANTIC LOVE

Although our belief in the power of love may be waning, we still tend to see romantic love as a wonderful thing and as a prime motivating force in relationships. Implicit in the belief in romantic love is the notion that our emotions are powerful forces that are capable, at times, of overwhelming logic, reason, class differences, age differences, racial differences, and anything else. We also believe that romantic love doesn’t always lead to happiness.

15) TO BELIEVE IN MAGIC, THE MARVELOUS, AND THE MIRACULOUS

This belief, which probably stems in great measure from childhood (fairy tales, seeing magicians, and so on), explains our interest in horror, science fiction, and the like. It also represents a way of dealing with the demonic.

16) TO SEE OTHERS MAKE MISTAKES

"To err is human", it has been said, and we all do make mistakes. When we see others make the same or similar mistakes as us, we feel less guilty or upset, since we can conclude that it is perfectly natural to make mistakes. In certain instances we also gain a sense of superiority, since, we weren’t "stupid" enough to make that mistake. In addition, we can also learn by watching others make mistakes and pay for them—mistakes that we can try to avoid.

17) TO SEE ORDER IMPOSED ON THE WORLD

We want to believe that the universe makes sense, that things have reasons for being the way they are, and that we can plan ahead. The media constantly help us gain a sense of the orderliness of the world by teaching
us about such things as the laws of nature, human psychology and motivation, and social phenomena.

18) TO PARTICIPATE IN HISTORY (VICARIously)

We all want to be on the scene when important events take place—to be there when the big ball games are played, to hear what politicians have to say when history is being made—and the media help us do this. We can even spend our evening overhearing (so to speak) celebrities chatter about their love lives. I would argue that this desire to "participate" in history is a powerful force in our lives and reflects our feelings of alienation and insignificance. Television allows the nobodies, huddled in front of their sets, to watch the somebodies on the talk shows.

19) TO BE PURGED OF UNPLEASANT EMOTIONS

The public arts often provide for a catharsis or purgation of our emotions through art. We can find ways of discharging anger, anxiety, hostility, and a host of other negative feelings by watching plays, football games, movies, listening to music, and so on. Some public art forms, such as soap operas and professional wrestling, provide us with clearly defined "hate" figures to help with this purgation.

20) TO OBTAIN OUTLETS FOR OUR SEXUAL DRIVES IN A GUILT-FREE CONTEXT

In recent years a number of people and groups have attacked the allegedly excessive amount of violence on television. This has led television (and other media, as well) to find other ways of attracting and maintaining audience interest. One of these is humour and the other is sex. Sexuality is treated much more explicitly in films than on television, where everything tends to be implied but where "wiggle and jiggle" or "tits and ass" now are major elements in programming. Our sexual experiences are always vicarious ones when it comes to media. Whether these vicarious experiences provide relief or generate anxiety and negative feelings (because, for example, our wives or girl friends are not beauty queens and sex goddesses) is a matter for conjecture.
21) TO EXPLORE TABOO SUBJECTS WITH IMPUNITY AND WITHOUT RISK

Because media allows us to examine taboo subjects "from a distance", we are able to obtain double benefits. We can explore the subject and derive whatever excitement or scintillation it may generate, and we can gain a sense of moral satisfaction by condemning it or coming to some kind of a conclusion about it. When the media examine, either dramatically or in documentaries, topics such as incest, homosexuality, rape, drug abuse, or child beating (to name just a few topics) we get the "thrill" of finding out about these subjects and the reward of being able to condemn them.

22) TO EXPERIENCE THE UGLY

This is the opposite side of our desire to experience the beautiful. People have always been fascinated with ugliness, grotesques, and monsters in a rather complex way. We are both attracted and repelled by ugliness. I should also point out here that our attitudes toward what is beautiful and ugly change over the years and this further complicates the matter.

23) TO AFFIRM MORAL, SPIRITUAL, AND CULTURAL VALUES

Values are beliefs we have (which we learn from our families, friends, religions, and other institutions) about what is good and bad, what is desirable and undesirable, what is just and unjust. They deal with our actions and conduct, and tend to be "ultimate". That is, they are the bedrock upon which we build our lives and societies. Two of the more important values in American society are egalitarianism and achievement. We may not have always put these values into practice but they are goals toward which we work.

The media tend to reinforce certain values and neglect others. When we examine media we must be mindful of the values we find and consider whether they are positive or negative, when they are being championed, and what they tell us about our social order.
24) TO SEE VILLAINS IN ACTION

Villains are often more interesting than heroes and heroines, who must be good, moral, and thoughtful—at least most of the time. (The matter isn’t quite so simple now, since we often find “good-bad” heroes and “bad-good” villains). Villains can do all kinds of things, have much more room for their manoeuvring, and can be of all sorts and natures. We like to see all the terrible things they are capable of doing, but we also like to see them punished. This gives us two satisfactions for the price of one.

The list below provides a summary of the uses and gratifications of the media we have just discussed:

1) to be amused
2) to see authority figures exalted or deflated.
3) to experience the beautiful
4) to have shared experiences with others
5) to satisfy curiosity and be informed
6) to identify with the deity and the divine plan
7) to find distraction and diversion
8) to experience empathy
9) to experience, in a guilt-free situation, extreme emotions.
10) to find models to imitate
11) to gain an identity
12) to gain information about the world
13) to reinforce our belief in justice
14) to believe in romantic love
15) to believe in magic, the marvelous, and the miraculous
16) to see others make mistakes
17) to see order imposed on the world
18) to participate in history (vicariously)
19) to be purged of unpleasant emotions
20) to obtain outlets for our sexual drives in a guilt-free context.
21) to explore taboo subjects with impunity
22) to experience the ugly
23) to affirm moral, spiritual, and cultural values
24) to see villains in action.

When we analyze a text from a uses and gratifications point of view, we try to determine which uses and gratifications are most important and which are secondary. Also we must be sure that we can cite an event in the text (some event in a film, situation comedy, soap opera, comic book) for each use or gratification we see being taken care of. That is, we should have some justification for your assertions.

One problem with the uses and gratifications approach is that different critics often see the same event (in a film, for instance) as being used in different ways or as providing different gratifications. This is because uses and gratifications are somewhat ambiguous. But the uses and gratifications approach helps us to understand the power media have. One question we must continually keep in mind when we think about the public arts is this—they do a great deal for us, but what are they doing to us?

**REVIEW QUESTIONS**

1. What do you mean by ‘communication is a social science’? Discuss the various fields of communication to prove this.
2. Discuss the nature and scope of mass communication.
3. Explain the theory of uses and gratifications.

**BOOKS FOR FURTHER READING**

MEANING OF COMMUNICATION MODELS

A model is a representation of a real world phenomenon in more abstract terms which can be applied to different forms at different times.

TYPES OF COMMUNICATION MODELS

a) Mental models: are those models which exist in one's mind.

b) Symbolic models: are those models which exist in the form of symbolic words, objects, etc.

c) Physical models: are those models which exist in the form of concrete physical shapes and forms.

3. FUNCTIONS OF COMMUNICATION MODELS

a) Models help us to organise the various elements.
b) Models help us to question a communication process.
c) Models enable us to make predictions.
d) Models provide means of measuring the elements and processes involved in communication.

4. LINEAR MODELS

a) Aristotle's model: He included five essential elements of communication. They are: 1) the speaker; 2) the speech; 3) the audience; 4) the occasion; and 5) the effects.
b) **David K. Berlo's model:** Berlo identified nine elements in the communication process. They are: 1) Source; 2) encoder; 3) channel; 4) receiver; 5) decoder; 6) meaning; 7) feedback; and 8) noise.

5. **INTERPERSONAL (NON-LINEAR) MODEL**

This model considers the response from the receiver of the message. The element of feedback is introduced.

6. **A COMPOSITE MODEL - RELATIONAL**

In this model, an important factor, that is the relationship between the participants, is stressed. The relationship will depend on the following:

a) Attraction
b) Dominance
c) Involvement
d) Time
e) Situation
REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Explain the various functions of communication models.

2. Critically examine the communication model given by David K. Berlo.

3. What do you mean by composite model of communication. Illustrate with example.

BOOKS FOR FURTHER READING

1. Pavasker Madhoo - Communication.


3. Agee, Warren K. - Introduction to Mass Communication
UNIT – V
THEORIES OF MASS COMMUNICATION

LESSON – 5.1

MEANING OF MASS COMMUNICATION THEORIES

The subject of mass communication theories need to be studied carefully by the scholars and students of various disciplines. Each one of the theory of mass communication attempts to answer a particular set of questions relating to media and its effect or application on society. While it is true that they have advanced a theory, it needs to be researched and proven with enough documentary evidence to be accepted as fact. Otherwise many of these theories will remain as theories only. Some have succeeded in conducting research and were able to gather enough documentary evidence to prove their theories.

The subject of theories of mass communication deals with how the process of mass communication takes place. It also deals with the content and impact of media on society on various fronts. These theories are propounded by a number of authors of mass communication and allied fields. These individuals who advanced a theory have carried out active research in the area of mass communication over a certain period of time and have come to their respective conclusions. These conclusions are given in the form of theories. Also, there are theories which have not been validated by the authors. These are mainly at the theoretical stage and not been put into action yet.

2. MEANING OF THEORY

The word ‘theory’ has been defined by the dictionary as a speculation, a hypothesis or abstract principles. This precisely means that the theory is making a serious effort to understand the phenomenon being studied or attempted to be studied. A researcher, while analysing a phenomenon makes a number of guesses. These guesses can be proven true or can be
proven false by the subsequent research carried out by the researcher. However, a theory guides the researcher through various stages of investigation of a research problem and it provides him with clues and guidelines. Basically, a researcher in mass communication needs to have a theory to find out whatever he or she chooses to finding out and be able to express it in concrete terms.

3. DEFINITION OF THEORY

"Theory can be defined as a speculation, or a hypothesis or abstract principles".

4. THEORIES OF MASS COMMUNICATION

In mass communication, we are concerned with scientific theory and this involves much more than mere hunches or guesses made by individuals whether they are laymen or researchers in mass communication. It intends to find out about a phenomenon and tries to provide a rational explanation to it based on firm scientific principles. In finding out about the phenomena, the researchers try to describe the various elements in the phenomena and it is and how it ought to be. Thus, the theory is useful in mass communication to provide hunches and guesses to various events that are happening in mass communication. It is important that these guesses are based on scientific study and analysis and the researcher is able to come to an understanding out of these guesses. Further, these guesses have to be scientifically tested to validate them and proven in actual practice. Then only they will come to be accepted by the scientific community as theories.

Therefore, mass communication theories tell us how the process of mass communication takes place. They also tell us about the impact of mass communication on various segments of the society. The broad aspect of mass communication theory deals with how the process of mass communication takes place and while the process is taking place who are the parties affected by the media and technology of mass communication.

Now let us take a look at the theories of mass communication and what do they have got to say about the various aspects of mass communication.
I. FOR THEORIES OF THE PRESS

In the book, 'Four Theories of the Press', its authors, namely, Fred Siebert, Theodore Peterson and Wilbur Schramm talk about the four theories of Press that are prevalent in societies around the world.

1) The Authoritarian Theory

This theory implies the role of communication in authoritarian societies and reflects the media prevalent in authoritarian countries. The authoritarian countries are those that are ruled by authoritarian leaders and who control the mass with the use of the power vested in them. The examples that could be given to these types of countries are the countries of middle east where the ruler is an authoritarian who controls the masses with the use of force. There is little or no freedom prevalent in these countries and as a result the press is not free. This theory says that authoritarian rulers do not allow any freedom for the press. Further, they maintain that the press is controlled by the government and acts as an instrument of the rulers. If the rulers are not happy with the press, then they can censor and restrict the freedom of the press. These are the basic tenets of the theory. The concepts of authoritarian theory comes from the authoritarian thinkers of 19th century and this theory believes that the government and the rulers have a right to intervene in the freedom of the press when the press threatens the rulers.

2) The Libertarian Theory

According to this theory, the government has no right to intervene in the functioning of the press and the press is given absolute freedom to publish anything and everything they want. The fate of the press is decided by the market, and the government will not and should not intervene in the functioning of the press. The concept of liberty is emphasized here and
the press is given full liberty to publish anything that they want and feel like. This is exactly opposite to authoritarian theory in the sense that this theory does not believe in government censorship. According to this theory, the government has no right to intervene in the freedom of the press. This type of press is found in Anglo-American democracies and in many countries of the Western Europe.

3) The Social Responsibility Theory

According to this theory, the media can be free provided they have the responsibility towards the society. This means that the media has to perform the social responsibility to be free. This type of freedom can be found in the countries like India, where the press is expected to meet a number of social responsibilities vested in it. The press can be able to function freely only when it meets the social responsibilities that are vested in it. In that case, what are the social responsibilities that are vested in the press? They are expected to inform the public correctly on the current happenings and moulding public opinion on any given issue of importance. The Social Responsibility Theory is a development of the 20th century and it can be said as the phenomenon of 20th century when the new countries have acquired independence from their colonial rulers. As a result, the social responsibility theory exhibits the trends in the 20th century in the areas of press.

4) The Soviet Communist Theory

According to this theory, the media or the press is a part of the government and should reflect the voices of the government. According to this theory, there is no freedom for the press and it is expected to further the aim of the government. The communist party is considered supreme and the activities of the party should be reported in the press. The government has the right to intervene in the functioning of the press and curtail their freedom if it is warranted. This type of press can be found in the countries of the communist world such as Soviet Russia and China although this has undergone sweeping changes over the years due to the
changes that are taking place in the affairs of these countries in social and political spheres.

These are the four theories propounded by the authors of the Four Theories of the Press. But there have been two more theories added to the current thinking of the theories of the press. They are: 1) Development Media Theory and 2) Democratic Participant Theory. The Development Media Theory says that the role of the press and the media in general is to contribute towards development. The Democratic Participant Theory says that in the affairs of the society, the press must be allowed freely to participate, and thus making them enjoy the real democracy which in turn will be used for the good of the society.

Besides these theories of the press, there are some more theories of mass communication. Let us have a look at those theories briefly.

II. OTHER THEORIES

1) Development Media Theory (Denis McQuail)

This theory, the role of press and the media in general is to contribute towards development. It stresses on the development journalism.

2) Democratic Participant Theory (Denis McQuail)

According to this theory, there should be free and fair participation on the part of the press and other media in the development process of the country. The independence enjoyed by the media will pave way for progress of the nation.

3) Bullet Theory of Mass Communication

According to this theory, the messages of the mass communication media do not have direct one to one effect, but the media interacts with other segments of the society in influencing public opinion.

4) Two Step Flow Theory (Paul Lazarsfeld)

According to this theory, the messages of mass media do not reach the audience directly. It first goes to the 'opinion leaders' (those who occupy high positions of power and those whose opinion will have considerable
impact on the people). After reaching the opinion leaders, such as doctors, scientists, engineers and politicians, it reaches the ordinary people.

5) Agenda Setting Theory (Maxwell E. McCombs and Donald Shaw)

According to this theory, the mass media themselves suggest to people which ideas are more important and which are less important.

6) Social Infusion theory (Everett M. Rogers)

According to this theory, new ideas, which are spread into a community, go through various phases before being accepted or not. The steps are: a) knowledge, b) persuasion, c) decision and d) confirmation.

7) Dependency Theory (Melvin Detleur and Sandra Ball - Rokeach)

This theory says that mass communication do not affect society as one-way process but the media, the audiences, and the social structures mutually affect one another.

8) Social Learning Theory (Albert Bandura)

This theory says that we learn both the positive and negative aspects through social learning.

9) Media Cultivation Theory (George Gérhner)

According to this theory, television cultivates reality by portraying images and people.

10) Aggressive Stimulation Theory (Leonard Berkowitz)

According to this theory, an individual’s nature of aggression is found to be increasing if a) violence is depicted in the medium; b) it seems justifiable; and c) the individual saw a similarity between the depicted violence and a situation that he or she had faced or experienced.

11) Symbolic Catharsis Theory (Seymour Feshback)

This theory says that viewing violence allows a person to ‘let off steam’. This means that by viewing violence, a person reduces his or her violence or aggressive tendencies and his or her intentions to engage in them.
LESSON – 5.3

INDIAN COMMUNICATION THEORY

Western studies of communication are confined to the study of what may be termed ‘surface structure’ features, such as verbal language, body language, nonverbal gestures, facial gestures, etc. But it is often the ‘deep structure’ features that make a critical difference to our understanding of communication. This ‘deep structure’ is shaped by the cultural and metaphysical assumptions about the definition of truth and reality, the place of an individual in the universe, and one’s relationship with other living and non-living elements of the environment, the concept of time and space, and so on.

Western theories of communication are thus reflective of the biases of Western thought and culture. The distinctive marks of this philosophy are categorisation, classification, linear sequencing and rational logic. Indian philosophy, on the other hand, is characterized by complexity and pluralism; it is wholistic and intuitive, and believes that reality is one. In Indian rhetoric, opposites are co-ordinates, contradictions are illusory, and the world is a dramatic portrayal of God playing hide-and-seek with himself, trying to resemble all the divergent parts back into their original unity.

1) The Concept of Sadharanikaran

The most important assumption in the process of sadharanikaran is that it can be achieved only among sahridayas, i.e., only those who have a capacity to accept a message. This is an innate ability acquired through culture, adaptation and learning. Thus communication is an activity among ‘sahridayas’. It is to be noted that the concept of Sahridaya is not co-terminus with predisposition or in favour or against. It only denotes the quality of mind or receptivity on the part of the audience. It does not speak of the quality – positive or negative – of attitude on the part of the audience. It may however, qualify the depth or level of sensory experience that shapes the human personality. The human psyche in terms of this theory is
composed of permanent moods, called 'sthai bhava'. These moods are capable of arousing a corresponding state of feeling, rasa. There are nine permanent moods and they give rise to nine rasas or forms of aesthetic pleasure. For instance, the permanent mood 'bhayanaka' arouses the 'byhayanak' (furious) rasa, the hrsha triggers the hasya (laughter) rasa, the dina the karuna (compassion) rasa and so on. The entire range of human emotions is covered in this categorisation. The state of arousal of the nine permanent moods is termed rasa utpathi.

The sthai bhavas are accompanied by many fleeting or secondary moods that are common to several dominant moods and serve the purpose of completely manifesting the permanent mood, such as nirveda (dependency) or glani (fatigue), and may help to manifest the permanent moods, like the erotic helps the pathetic. These are called sancharis or vyabhichari bhavas. In India, there are vibhavas and anubhavas, the emotions that unite a man and woman in love. It is at the climax of this relationship that sadharanikaran is attained.

2) The Buddhist Theory of Communication

Wimal Dissanayake explores the classical Indian tradition of communication theory through an examination of the ancient Indian text on grammar, the 'vakyapadiya' by Bharathi, also propounds a Buddhist theory of communication, derived from the concept of dependent, co-origination, 'patticasamupadda/pratitya-samutpada'. This concept lies at the heart of the Buddha's teaching. It is related to the three principles that sum up worldly existence: 'anitya' or impermanence', dukkha or suffering and anatma or no-self. It is a highly connotative concept which implies that every phenomenon, including communication, is in a state of impermanence and flux.

3) The Hindu Communication Theory

T.B. Saral, in his book "Hindu Philosophy of Communication" looks at communication theory from a Hindu Philosophical perspective. The Hindu's concept of the universe is based on the 'Virat Purush' (cosmic
view). A natural extension of this concept is that it espouses the systems approach, the authority of Universal law, the law of Dharma. Dharma is the basic principle of the whole universe and is existing eternally. This natural law of Dharma regulates human existence and governs relations of individual beings: communication too is governed by the same law.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Explain the meaning of communication theory.
2. What are the Four Theories of the Press?
3. Compare and contrast the Indian theories of communication with that of western theories.

BOOKS FOR FURTHER READINGS

1. Merton R.K. - Social Theory and Social Structure.
UNIT – VI

CONTENT OF MASS MEDIA

LESSON – 6.1

CONTENT ANALYSIS

INTRODUCTION

Content analysis is a research technique based upon measuring (counting) the amount of something in a random sampling of some forms of communication such as comics, soap advertisements, news shows, serials, etc. The units of analysis can be violence, usages of Dalits, women, sex, professional types, etc. The basic assumption implicit in content analysis is that an investigation of messages and communication gives an insight into the people who receive these messages. An early content analysis was made on magazines by a sociologist called Leo Lowenthal who dealt with the "Biographies in popular magazines". He studied biographies of popular heroes that were found in two magazines: 'Collier's' and 'The Saturday Evening Post'. He classified the biographies in terms of whether they dealt with political life, business and the professions, or entertainment.

Lowenthal discovered some interesting things. First, there was an increase in the number of biographies over the years. Second, the number of articles on politicians and business/professional people declined and the number of articles on entertainers increased. And the articles on entertainers changed from being about serious artists and writers to popular entertainers of one sort or another. Lowenthal suggests that the earlier biographical articles focussed on "idols of production" (providing education and orientation) and the later articles focussed on "idols of consumption" figures. They dealt with what we would describe now as the lifestyle preferences of these figures. He went on to discuss how these "idols of consumption" related to matters such as our attitudes toward
childhood, success, adjustment, and the socializing function of these biographies.

DEFINITIONS OF CONTENT ANALYSIS

1) Walizer and Weinir define content analysis as any systematic procedure devised to examine the content of recorded information.

2) Krippendorf defines content analysis as a research technique for making replicable and valid references from data to their context.

3) Kerlinger's definition is fairly typical. He defines that content analysis is a method of studying and analyzing communication in a systematic, objective, and quantitative manner for the purpose of measuring variables.

CHARACTERISTICS OF CONTENT ANALYSIS

When we analyse the above definition of content analysis, especially that of Kerlinger, we come across three important characteristics of content analysis. They are as follows:

1. Content Analysis is Systematic

This means that the content to be analyzed is selected according to explicit and consistently applied rules: sample selection must follow proper procedures, and each item must have an equal chance of being included in the analysis. The evaluation process also must be systematic; all content under consideration must be treated in exactly the same manner. There must be uniformity in coding and analysis procedures, as well as in the length of time coders are exposed to the material. Systematic evaluation simply means that one and only one set of guidelines for evaluation is used throughout the study.

2. Content Analysis is Objective

This means the personal idiosyncrasies and biases of the investigator should not enter into the findings; if replicated by another researcher, the analysis should yield the same results. Operational definitions and rules for classification of variables should be explicit and comprehensive enough
that other researchers who repeat the process will arrive at the same decisions. Perfect objectivity is seldom achieved in a content analysis, however.

3. **Content Analysis is Quantitative**

The goal of content analysis is the accurate representation of a body of messages. Quantification is important in fulfilling that objective, since it aids researchers in the quest for precision. The statement "Eighty percent of our films are having violence" is more precise than "Most films are violent". Moreover quantification allows researchers to summarize results and report them with greater parsimony. If measurements are to be made over intervals of time, comparisons of the numerical data from one time period to another can help to simplify and standardize the evaluation procedure. Finally, quantification gives researchers additional statistical tools to use that can aid in interpretation and analysis.

**PURPOSES OF CONTENT ANALYSIS**

Although it is difficult to classify and categorize studies as varied and diverse as those using content analysis, they are generally employed for one of five purposes. A discussion of these aims will help illustrate some of the ways in which this technique can be applied.

1. **Describing Communication Content**

   Statements about what values are judged to be important by a society could be inferred by a study of the nonfiction books on the bestseller list at different points in time.

2. **Testing Hypotheses of Message Characteristics**

   A number of analyses attempt to relate certain characteristics of the source of a given body of message content to characteristics of the message that are produced. This category of content analysis has been used in many studies that test hypotheses.
3. **Comparing Media Content to the "Real World"**

Many content analyses may be described as reality checks, in which the portrayal of a certain group, phenomenon, trait, or characteristic is assessed against a standard taken from actuality.

4. **Assessing the Image of Particular Groups in Society**

An ever growing number of content analyses have focussed on exploring the media image of certain minority or majority or otherwise notable groups. In many instances, these studies are conducted to assess changes in media policy toward these groups, to make inferences about the media’s responsiveness to demands for better coverage or to document social trends.

5. **Establishing a Starting Point for Studies of Media Effects**

The use of content analysis as a starting point for subsequent studies is relatively new. The best known example is ‘Cultivation Analysis’, whereby the dominant message and themes in media content are documented by systematic procedures, and a separate study of the audience is conducted to see whether these messages are fostering similar attitudes among heavy media users.

**STEPS IN CONTENT ANALYSIS**

In general, a content analysis is conducted in several discrete stages. Although the steps are listed here in sequence, they need not be followed in the order given. In fact, the initial stages of analysis can easily be combined. Nonetheless, the following steps may be used as rough outline:

1. Formulate the research question or hypothesis.
2. Define the population in question.
3. Select an appropriate sample from the population.
4. Select and define a unit of analysis.
5. Construct the categories of content to be analysed.
6. Establish a quantification system.
7. Train coders and conduct a pilot study.
8. Code the content according to established definitions.
9. Analyze the collected data.
10. Draw conclusions and search for indications.

1. Formulating a Research Question

One problem to avoid in content analysis is the "counting-for-the-sake-of-counting" syndrome. The ultimate goal of the analysis must be clearly articulated, to avoid aimless exercises in data collection that have little utility for mass media research. Content analysis should be guided by well-formulated research questions or hypotheses. A basic review of the literature is a required step.

2. Defining the Universe

To "define the universe" is to specify the boundaries of the body of content to be considered, which requires an appropriate operational definition of the relevant population. If researchers are interested in analyzing the content of popular songs, they must define what is meant by a popular song. Basically two dimensions are used to determine the appropriate universe for a content analysis: 1) the topic area; and 2) the time period. The specification of the topic area should be logically consistent with the research question and related to the goals of the study. The time period to be examined should be sufficiently long so that the phenomenon under study has ample chance to occur. By clearly specifying the topic area and the time period, the researcher is providing a basic requirement of content analysis: a concise statement that spells out the parameters of the investigation.

3. Selecting a Sample

Once a universe has been defined, a sample is selected. Most content analyses in mass media involve multistage sampling.

4. Selecting the Unit of Analysis

The unit of analysis is the thing that is actually counted. It is the smallest element of a content analysis, but it is also one of the most
important. In written content, the unit of analysis might be a single word or symbol, a theme, or an entire article or story. In television and film analyses, units of analysis can be characters, acts, or entire programmes. Specific rules and definitions are required for determining these units to allow for greater agreement between coders and fewer judgement calls. Operational definitions of the unit of analysis should be clear-cut and thorough; the criteria for inclusion should be apparent and easily observed.

5. Constructing Categories for Analysis

At the heart of any content analysis is the category system used to classify media content. To be serviceable, all category systems should be mutually exclusive, exhaustive, and reliable.

6. Establishing a Quantification System

The data that are collected, which are qualitative in nature, should be transferred to some scaling techniques and thus quantification process is inevitable. There are many scaling techniques available to do this quantification work.

7. Coding the Content

Placing a unit of analysis into a content category is called 'Coding'. Individuals who do the coding are called 'Coders'. Careful training of coders, which usually results in a more reliable analysis, is an integral task of content analysis.

8. Analyzing the Data

The descriptive statistics such as percentages, means, modes, and medians, are appropriate for content analysis.

9. Interpreting the Results

If an investigator is testing specific hypotheses concerning the relationships between variables, the interpretation will be fairly evident.
MERITS AND DEMERITS OF CONTENT ANALYSIS

The merits of the content analysis are:

1. It is inexpensive.
2. It is usually relatively easy to get material.
3. It is unobtrusive (and thus doesn’t influence people)
4. It yields data that can be quantified.
5. It can deal with current events or past events, or both.

The demerits of the content analysis are:

1. It is hard to be certain that the sample studied is representative.
2. It is often hard to obtain a good working definition of the topic being studied (for example, what is violence?)
3. It isn’t easy to find a measurable unit such as a frame in a comic strip. What does one do about films or magazine articles?
4. It isn’t possible to prove that the inferences made on the basis of a content analysis are correct.

ELEMENTS OF CONTENT ANALYSIS

1. Physical characteristics (of heroes and heroines, villains and villainesses)
   - colour of hair
   - colour of eyes
   - height
   - weight
   - age
   - body structure
   - sex
   - race

2. Social aspects of characters:
   - Occupation
   - education
   - religion
   - socio-economic class
   - status
   - role
   - ethnic background
   - (nationality)
3. Emotional nature of Characters:

- warm or cold
- anxious or calm
- stable or unstable
- authoritarian or
- dependent
- hostile or friendly

- Powerful or weak
- loving or hateful
- individualist or
- conformist
- vivacious or apathetic

Thus content analysis is a popular technique in mass media research. Many of the steps involved in laboratory and survey studies are also found in content analysis; in particular, sampling procedures need to be objective and detailed, and operational definitions are mandatory. Coders must be carefully trained to ensure accurate data. Interpreting content analysis, however, requires more caution; no claims about the impact of the content can be drawn from an analysis of the message in the absence of a study that examines the audience. Nowadays, the computers have become an integral part of many content analysis.
COMMUNICATION RESEARCH

1. THE NEED FOR RESEARCH

The enormous growth of the various forms of mass communication in the twentieth century has resulted in an increasing need for better knowledge of the processes and effects of mass communication. The complex mass media system has produced a need for research not only among practicing communicators, but also among policy makers, consumers, and various social groups. Many of the problems and criticisms in media have led to research questions. Consequently, a core of specially trained research men and women has risen to search for and supply this knowledge.

Much of the mass communication research conducted today attempts to answer the questions of broadcasters, advertising specialists, and other communicators. The magazine or newspaper editor, for example, needs to know such things as these: How many persons read my publication? What kinds of persons read my publication? How am I doing as an editor? Am I printing the kinds of things my audience wants to read about? Are my stories easy to read or hard to read? How can I improve the content of my publication? How can I improve the presentation of this content in terms of layout and typography?

2. DIFFICULTY OF FEED BACK

Time was when an editor could know many of these things pretty well by personal contact with the people in the community or area. By informal means, through experience, the editor developed a rough idea of the composition of the audience and how well the publication was liked. This unsystematic, informal "intuitive" method no longer is adequate for the modern communicator for several reasons:
a) The increasing number of communications media

In the present day community, the average person has access to many media—local and out-of-town newspapers, a number of television and radio stations, and hundreds of magazines, books, and films.

b) Increasing competition among the media for the attention of the public

Since no individual has enough time to read or listen to all media, or even to pay attention to all the output of just one medium, this means a small fraction of the available output will be selected, and the rest ignored. This leads to intense competition among the different media to capture as much of the public’s time and attention as possible—obviously, the newspaper or magazine or station that succeeds in satisfying the needs of the public, whose messages are interesting and easy to absorb, will get a good share of public attention. Those that do not succeed in doing this will eventually fall by the wayside.

c) The increasing number of people in the audience

An editor or broadcaster has from several thousand to several million readers, viewers, or listeners, and the tendency is constantly toward larger audiences. No communicator can possibly have personal contact with everyone in the audience and knowledge of all their varying needs, likes, dislikes, and opinions.

d) The changing tastes of the public

People are becoming better educated and more sophisticated; they travel more, know more about the rest of the world, and are constantly developing broader interests through exposure to more communications from outside their immediate environment. Any communicator’s audience is in a constant state of turnover and interest change. Decisions cannot be based on what was known to be true ten years or five years or even one year ago. It is a fickle public in the sense that it is constantly changing in taste and mood.
These are all good reasons why the effective communicator – whether advertising copywriter, editor, or broadcaster – can no longer rely on hunches and intuition alone to capture and hold the attention of the public. As Harry Henry says in Motivation Research, “There are examples, of course, of ‘hunch-merchants’ who hit on successful ideas with enormous success, and finish up as classic case histories. But no case histories are written up of the 99 equally self-confident but not so lucky venturers whose only spell of glory is in a brief trip to the bankruptcy courts”.

3. HOW TO OVERCOME THIS?

In the face of all these changing requirements, then, just how do modern mass communicators get the precise information they need to make their media successful? They turn to communications research, a speciality that has grown up in the past two decades, to help answer some of the questions they do not have the time or training to answer for themselves. The communications research is just one member of the team of writers, editors, artists, advertising persons, and others working together to help a medium do its job, which is to transmit information. The researcher may be a scholar in a university setting whose main objective is that of adding to our general knowledge of the communication process.

Modern communicators also face criticism and questions about their role in society. For example, do TV commercials in children’s programs mislead or take advantage of young viewers? Is there any relationship between television programming and violent behaviour? Do news media distort the news? Such questions often lead to research that is as important as that describing the changing tastes of the public. Thus, although the media need research telling them how to compete with one another and how to serve their audiences, they also need answers to broader questions about their role in modern society. Much research of this type is being conducted in schools of journalism and mass communications.
4. WHAT IS COMMUNICATIONS RESEARCH?

A broad definition of research is simply "careful investigation" or a diligent inquiry into any subject. This broad term would include almost any kind of study.

Mass communications research, however, has taken on a somewhat more specialized meaning. First of all, it is usually (though not always) considered behavioural research – the study of human beings (rather than inanimate or nonhuman objects). It is a branch of the behavioural sciences such as psychology, sociology, and anthropology.

Thus we see it is also interdisciplinary research. That- is, it borrows the tools and knowledge of various other fields of study that will help in the understanding of mass communications problems. It does not confine itself to any particular point of view or theory or subject matter. It may borrow from linguistics, general semantics, philosophy, economics, or any other discipline that might help communications effectiveness.

It is scientific research, since it uses scientific methodology in solving communications problem. As in any science, its aim is to explain, predict, and control. In achieving this end, its methods must be objective (as opposed to subjective) and systematic (as opposed to unsystematic). Although most mass communication research is done on specific problems, the goal–as in any scientific field–is to formulate general principles and theories that can bring about more effective communication. Being scientific, it is, of course, quantitative research. Random sampling methods, the laws of probability, and mathematical statistical techniques all help to make more precise and meaningful the findings from any particular investigation.

5. THE TYPE OF RESEARCH

It is generally primary research rather than secondary. That is, the mass communication researcher customarily gathers new and original information rather than relying on printed source material. This is not always the case, however, since one may, for example, have to consult
year-by-year statistical figures gathered in the past by other researchers in order to spot a trend over a period of time.

6. SUBJECT MATTER OF COMMUNICATION RESEARCH

And, of course, the subject matter of communications research is communication. More specifically, it is concerned with mass communication, the communications behaviour of large numbers of people, particularly those who make up the audiences for the different media. But other groups can be studied too, of course - newspaper reporters, news sources, magazine editors, or public relations specialists, for example. In order to understand the behaviour of groups, however, it is usually necessary first to understand individual behaviour.

To summarize the definition of mass communications research: It is generally the scientific study of the mass communications behaviour of human beings, usually in current situations requiring the gathering of primary quantitative information. It also includes the study of the communicators, their media, and the content of their message.

This is not the only definition that might be legitimately applied. It leaves out other kinds of research done in the field of journalism and mass communications (historical, literary, biographical, legal, economic, international aspects). It also includes some topics that might be claimed by other disciplines. It is, however, a reasonably comprehensive definition of the specialized type of mass communications research that has grown up in recent decades.

7. AREAS OF COMMUNICATION RESEARCH

The volume of communication research has grown in recent years as an increasing number of scholars have been attracted to the subject. Two trends have accompanied that growth. The breadth of communication research has grown as scholars with varying interests have delved into and media economics, for example. And the depth of communication research has increased as scholars taking different avenues have tended to specialize within one area or another. Consequently, communication research could
be divided in a number of ways. One approach is to categorize research within the four aspects of the communication process: the communicator, the message, the channel, and the audience. Extensive research has been done in each area.

a) Communicator Research

One way to improve communication is to find out what kinds of people are best suited for the job and what factors affect communicator performance. We need to know the essential characteristics of good reporters, editors, and advertising people, among others, so that the proper training may be offered to future professionals. Even the most professional communicator, however, may be unaware of some of the factors affecting his performance. In one study it was found that stories resulting from assignments by editors were more accurate than those originated by the reporter or stemming from coverage of general meetings. Another study disclosed that news personnel with "supportive images" (more establishment-oriented than others) reported so-called good news more accurately than bad news, whereas those with critical images of society did a more accurate job on bad news. Communicators increasingly are using sophisticated tools such as the computer to analyse complex problems. How will journalists adjust to the new demands placed upon them? How will reporters perform with the new technologies? These are questions for communicator research studies.

b) Message Research

The effects of different forms of the same message may be compared through variations in style, length, degree of difficulty, and the like, with attention paid to comprehensibility, interest, and attention value. We often vary our personal conversations as to complexity and word usage in terms of some determination of the sophistication of the intended receiver. With scientific content analysis we can easily determine the relative degree of difficulty of any message, and we can make inferences about the intent of the communicator as well.
c) Channel research:

The channel through which a message is transmitted is closely related to the effectiveness of the message. This is due in part to the differing characteristics of the various media, which perform somewhat differently the functions of informing, interpreting, entertaining, and selling. By great extent, they are able to select their desired audiences. Advertisers are especially interested in determining which media can best deliver their messages and in knowing something about the people who comprise the potential audience of a medium. And in face-to-face communication, we often use facial expressions—a smile, for example—to much greater advantage than a flow of pleasant words.

d) Audience Research

The bulk of communication research ultimately is concerned with mass media audiences. Communicators need to know the behaviour, interest, tastes, attitudes, and opinions of the people whom they seek to reach. Advertisers must know the number and description of people in a medium’s audience so they may reach the right kind of person for their products. For example, a baby food manufacturer may want to learn which of two magazines with equal circulations has the larger number of young married women. Publishers and editors require audience information so they may select editorial content that fits their readers’ needs. The reading interests of young newspaper readers are quite different from those of older folk. More recently, researchers have gone beyond simply describing the audiences of mass media. In some studies, researchers are seeking to determining the motivations for media use: in others, the goal is to determine the gratifications people derive from using the media. Still other scholars are focusing on children of different ages, trying to learn how children understand what they see and hear on television. Specialists in political communication are examining how people use the media to follow candidates and their campaigns. One strain of research focuses on the relationship between the media’s inventories of campaign issues and the personal lists of reader focuses on the relationship between the media’s
inventories of campaign issues and the personal lists of readers and viewers.

The overall goal is to find out how mass communications affects audiences, just as we individuals need to know how our words affect other individuals with whom we communicate. The object of mass communications is to affect human behaviour and attitudes. The object of communications research is to find out how and to what degree, human behaviour and attitudes are affected by mass communications.

8. COMMUNICATIONS RESEARCH METHODS

In survey research the scientific sample is studied to gather demographic information or sociological facts as well as psychological information - opinions and attitudes. As opposed to the status survey, which produces an inventory of facts, survey research gathers both factual information and the opinions of subjects. Thus, the researcher is able to talk about the relationships among variables for example, the relationship between educational level and media usage, or between sex and opinion concerning a particular political candidate.

A similar method, but one in which independent and dependent variables are related and hypotheses tested, is the field study. Whereas in a third method, the field experiment, the independent variable is introduced by the researcher in an environment in which considerable control of extraneous variables is possible; the field study is ex post-facto. In both the field study and field experiment an attempt is made to establish causal relationships between independent and dependent variables. The most closely controlled method of study of causal relationships is the laboratory experiment, in which all except the independent variable to be studied are eliminated.

The survey is frequently used to determine relationships between demographics and mass communications behaviour, as in determining the relationships of sex and age to television program viewing. An example of a field study is a case in which it is hypothesized that the grade
performance of school children has a stronger and more consistent relationship to the extent of usage and comprehension of mass communications than do other variables in the school and home environment. In a field experiment, one might designate two groups or communities that are similar in relevant characteristics and introduce a variable, such as two forms of advertising of the same new product, to determine which form of advertising is more conducive to the purchase of the new product. Both the field study and the field experiment are difficult to control because variables other than those studied may affect the measured or dependent variable without the researchers being able to know what really happened.

The laboratory experiment provides the best opportunity for control of variable since the researcher can be practically certain that the causal variables introduced actually brings about the measured effect. For example, using two equivalent or matched groups, the researcher might present a message in oral form to one group and in written form to the other. If a standard test then demonstrates that comprehension was consistently higher for the oral message group than for the written message group, one could be reasonably certain that the oral message was more easily understood by people like those in the two groups.

9. EFFECTS OF MEDIA RESEARCH

What are the effects of mass communication? For many years this question directed the work of scholars interested in mass media processes. The model of communication provided the elements, with arrows indicating that the major flow is from communicator to message to audience. More recently researchers have noted that the model is too simple: TV viewers and newspaper readers are not just passive agents reacting to what they see and read. As a consequence, research projects have sought to determine what people seek in the media, what happens when they use them, and what they get out of them. The more complex perspectives recognize that people have varying interests, biases, and needs which they "take with them" to the media. At the same time, other researchers have chosen to
work with families, groups, and communities rather than with individuals. The following are a few examples of current trends in mass communication research:

1) Community Media Systems

One strain of research has focused on the role of the mass media in communities. Editors, broadcasters, and other communicators act as "gatekeepers", deciding what information community residents will receive about various issues. Are there differences in the types of information conveyed by communicators in small as contrasted with large communities? One study suggests that editors in smaller, more homogeneous communities tend to avoid controversial issues and concentrate on more positive, socially supportive information. Editors in larger communities, which have organized interest groups and more mechanisms for handling disputes, distribute more conflict information and are more likely to stress opinion leadership.

2. Information Diffusion

People are provided with an abundance of information by the mass media, and technologies in the not too distant future will accelerate this "information explosion". In coping with this barrage, people must be selective. They learn things from the mass media, but not necessarily the same things nor the same amount. For example, those who use more of the print media—newspapers, magazines, and books—tend to be more knowledgeable than those who rely mainly on radio and television for their information.

3. Media Socialization

Adults do not suddenly appear with full-blown reading, viewing, and listening habits. They acquire these habits, among others, through many years and under the influence of many factors. One approach to understanding the development of communication behaviour is called socialization research. Scholars try to specify the social origins and processes by which people learn and maintain such things as reading and
viewing habits. In a sense they are turning around the question of effects and asking what leads to use of the mass media. Researchers taking this perspective have found varying TV viewing patterns among children from different family environments. In families in which a child is encouraged to explore new ideas and to express them openly, children spend far less time with TV and pay more attention to news and public affairs programs when they do watch. By contrast, in families placing greater emphasis on obedience and social harmony, children spend the most time with TV of any group and their interest is concentrated on entertainment rather than on news and public affairs programs.

4. Agenda-setting Function

For years researchers have been interested in the relationship between media use and attitude change. More recently, studies have focused on information and the new cognitions acquired from the media. An example of this trend is the notion of an agenda-setting function of the press. The view is that the media often may not be successful in telling people what to think, but they have considerable success in telling people what to think about. Studies here, for example, look at the relationship between the agenda of political campaign issues set by the media and the personal agendas of the audience.

5. Children and Television

Parents, broadcasters, government regulators, and others have been concerned with violence shown on television. This has led to a large number of studies trying to determine whether there is any relationship between watching TV violence and real acts of violence. Do children use the violent characters shown on TV as models for their own behaviour? How do children understand the violence they view on the TV screen? These are among the questions researchers are asking. Obviously small children have more limited capacities than adults for understanding the world around them. For example, do children under the age of seven have difficulty relating the different parts of a plot sequence? This has implications for
their TV viewing, since they may be unable to connect the punishment accorded to a TV murderer with the criminal act or the motive.

6. Motives, Uses, and Gratifications

As noted earlier, researchers are delving into the motives people have for using the mass media, and are reading, TV viewing, and the like. In one study, readers relied on the newspaper for help in deciding how to vote in a nonpartisan election. In another study, people who had switched to a four-day work week started watching TV programs that had direct application to activities planned for expanded weekends. Other researchers are examining the different things people seek in the media-specific information, a chance to relax, favourite programs, and so on.

The preceding examples demonstrate the range of communication research today. Each area has implications for communicators. For example, editors may want to rethink their coverage of political candidates if their readers' "issue agendas" are not closely linked with a newspaper's campaign coverage. Media consumers also need to understand how communication works, and much of the research discussed helps to provide that information.

One of the most satisfying aspects of communications research is in doing original, imaginative thinking and investigation. Creative researchers try to think of different ways to do a particular communications job and then test the alternatives to see which is the most effective. They critically analyse the long-standing traditions and accepted practices of the media and then test these tricks of the trade to see if they are really the most effective ways to communicate. They devise new and original research techniques and methods to solve particular problems. They keep abreast of developments in related disciplines such as psychology and sociology, applying the findings and theories from those fields to communications problems. Creative communications researchers also make valuable contributions to theory and practice in those related disciplines. They both borrow from and contribute to other areas of knowledge.
REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Define content analysis. Explain the characteristics of content analysis.
2. Bring out the need and relevance of researches in communication.
3. Explain with suitable example the various methods adopted in communication research.

BOOKS FOR FURTHER READING

1. Agee, Warren - Introduction to Mass Communication
UNIT - VII

SOCIOLOGY OF MASS AUDIENCE

LESSON - 7.1

MASS BEHAVIOUR

I. MEANING OF MASS BEHAVIOUR

Mass behaviour, as the term implies, is behaviour of very large groups in which interaction and intercommunication is at a greatly impersonal level such as is found in mass society, crowds, mobs or audiences. Such very large groups may be formed deliberately as is happening by the rush of people from villages and towns or in huge fairs like trade fairs and exhibitions, or the assemblage of large masses of people on Independence day to hear the Prime Minister's speech. Or they may come about by accident spontaneously or as people gather on the road when there is an accident, a fire or a burglary. In this lesson we shall study the behaviour of people in mass society along with their features.

II. MASS SOCIETY

We have known several types of groups and their characteristics, but some groups are too large like crowds, and audiences. In our own times there has been a large-scale movement of population from countryside to towns, as a result of which towns have grown to immense sizes containing millions of people. Rapid industrialization and technological advances have opened up vast opportunities for employment in urban areas and uprooted village people to migrate to big towns. In villages they lived in small communities with face-to-face relationship in close intimacy knowing about each other everything there is to know. When they migrate to towns that close personal intimacy is lost, even neighbours may not know each other and seldom greet or talk to each other. Such large collections of people in modern urbanized areas have been termed as "mass society", and are the
products of industrial revolution. The secondary groups are small in comparison and have some determining features, but this mass society is indeterminate.

III. FEATURES OF MASS SOCIETY

1. Impersonal Relationship

In mass society, secondary groups predominate and the relationship between individuals are impersonal, lacking in intimacy and friendliness. That is why people in large cities feel lonely in spite of the busy streets and over-populated neighbourhood. This loss of intimacy and resulting loneliness leads to insecurity. Nobody knows anybody and nobody cares for anybody, and the sense of belonging and security is very weak. Our social responses are incomplete and half-hearted, there are no social norms, customs or traditions governing our behaviour, and nobody takes any notice of what his neighbours do, how they behave or live, and what vocations they pursue. There is utter lack of personal involvement in the affairs of others. In village communities all people know each other's lives and experiences. They are governed by common social norms, have a sense of belonging and security, and feel at home in each other's company.

2. Emphasis on Rationality

In mass society, there is emphasis on rationality, people are inclined to reason and argue. There is division of labour and specialization of vocations. Mass society is therefore very complex, and individuals are trained for the work in which they are engaged. The bank clerk, the postman, the barber, the hotel manager, the salesman, and others are doing highly specialised jobs. We meet them only when we need their service, our interaction and intercommunication with them is based on certain expectations and reasons, and we do not try to know more about them.

3. Desire for Secondary Groups

Because of such impersonal, mechanical and formal social contacts in daily life, people have a very strong desire for social relationships to
satisfy their hunger for emotional warmth and sense of security. They form associations, clubs, societies, and other secondary groups.

4. Sense of Equality

Arising out of their rationality, members of mass society insist on equality of wants and satisfaction among people and assert their rights very strongly. They are inclined to fight for justice and fair play. Demonstrations, strikes, processions, and the like are common in large cities, and so strongly people feel for the down-trodden that they are prepared to fight for them on the road and even against the police.

5. Easy Victims for Suggestions and Imitations

In spite of the rationality, sense of fair play and justice, and impersonal social contacts, mass society falls easy prey to suggestion and imitation, to advertisements and propaganda and to emotional appeal leading to grossly irrational thinking and acting. The distribution of rewards in terms of wages and prestige is fairly rational and systematic, and in almost every area of life and work the expectations are very well defined, yet the approach of members of mass society is highly irrational. That is why fake advertisers, demagogues, leaders and the like find mass society a favourable field to push their own interests.

6. Sense of Loneliness

Many social thinkers bemoan that in modern urban living man has lost his individuality, his sense of belonging, his emotional warmth, his sociality. He seems to be running a race, competing and trying to excel others, but without moorings and without any sense of direction and purpose. He crowds at matches, political rallies, cinema-houses, restaurants, and what not to regain his sense of belonging and security, but these are only temporary cures followed by a relapse. Indeed the modern man is isolated and lonely even though surrounded by crowds of people.
LESSON - 7.2

TYPES OF AUDIENCES

I. FORMAL AND INFORMAL AUDIENCES

Audiences are distinguished into informal and highly casual, such as the gathering of people in the street around a flute player or a juggler or the crowd that gathers around a policeman when he has caught a thief, and the more formal and scheduled audience such as the crowd which assembles to watch a film show or to listen to a lecture. Casual audiences gather spontaneously and accidentally. A motor-car arrives in a village and women and children gather round it just as a camel in a metropolitan locality attracts a crowd of townspeople. Such audiences are not organized, their programmes are not regulated.

The chief characteristics of the formal audience are: 1) It has specific purpose about which most of the members have already been informed; 2) It meets at a predetermined time and place which have also been notified; and 3) It has a standard form of polarization and interaction, that is, people already know who will perform, speak or lead, who will watch, listen or follow, and how the two parties will react to each other. The person of the leader is designated, and the number of seats, the seating plan and the distance between seats are physical features which help the polarization. In many audiences the situation is highly conventional, the reactions of the people are highly standardized and the whole programme is institutionalized. At a prize distribution in a school or at a university convocation what will be spoken by the people seated on the stage, what people will do, and the order of the several items in the programme are pre-arranged. The audience is well prepared to accept the leadership of the person who presides and he needs little effort to dominate them. Maintaining leadership at this situation is easy and simple. The audience is easily satisfied and the leader need not be particularly forceful, clever and eloquent. In most of the formal audiences, therefore, the cultural
influence is at work. Some audiences merely give a mild clap of hands, others give prolonged cheers, and still others get up from their seats and shout in applause.

Different methods are used to gather people in audiences. For highly academic lectures, notices may be printed in newspapers, for popular lectures handbills may be distributed, for election meetings the announcements may be made by the beat of the drum or by loudspeakers placed in a jeep, and the people may be drawn by film records played on loudspeakers. The cinema house manager may get the picture reviewed in the papers, provide preview for heads of educational institutions and pressmen or get coloured posters fixed at predominant places in the town. All these techniques are employed and they differ with the different types of audiences to be gathered.

In every audience there are two types of interaction: one between the leader and the people assembled to watch, listen or follow him, and the other between members of the audience themselves.

III. TYPES OF AUDIENCES

Kimbball Young speaks of three types of audiences: those which seek information, those which seek to be persuaded and converted, and those which seek entertainment and recreation. We shall now discuss them briefly.

1) Audience Seeking Information

Such an audience will be found in the lecture of a scientist, philosopher, or statesman who may provide information or give new interpretation. Such lectures are arranged in a quiet sober place for a select audience. The aim of the lecture is not to win over people nor to entertain them but to add to their stock of information. New facts or ideas are put across to the audience and they are left to think for themselves. A scientist may propound a new theory or describe his experimental investigation; a philosopher may put forward a new point of view about some of the problems of life and the world; a statesman may bring out the implications
of, and reasons for, a new policy or a new measure taken by the government or analyse an emergency facing the nation. The speaker may read a manuscript, speak from notes or speak freely from memory. The last method helps in effecting a rapport between the speaker and his audience which other methods fail to achieve. At many audiences the paper or the address to be read is distributed beforehand and the audience follow it as it is being read.

The information audience aims at seeking understanding and the speaker will do well to use such aids as will facilitate understanding. The press conference of a Prime Minister or an eminent spokesman of the government is also an audience of this type. It is very helpful for better understanding if the lecture or statement of the speaker is followed by questions and answers or a general discussion. Such a procedure clears doubts and difficulties of people, and at a press conference press people ask supplementaries to bring out the finer shades of meaning and implications of the statements made by the speaker.

Many audiences of the intellectual types really enjoy lectures or science papers as they would enjoy a film show, and describe lectures or papers by eminent leaders or scientists as a great treat. It is mainly because of their own profound interest in the subject of the lecture and the clear presentation of the speaker. Such audiences become then recreational audiences to some extent.

2) Conversational Audience

Such audience seek to be persuaded and converted to a new approach, a new way of thinking and feeling. Emotional appeals are very common at such audiences and their programmes are either religious or political. The statesman speaking about his policies and programmes in a university, a college, or a party meeting may be giving information and ideas only for the understanding of his listeners, but while addressing a large crowd in a maidan may resort to emotional appeals and try to convert the audience to support his policies and programmes. The religious leader will try to
persuade people to adopt his way of worship or creed. Both audience are
aroused in the first instance to think and feel in the same way as the
leader does and later on to act according to his political religious creed.

In such audiences there is shoulder-to-shoulder contact and often
people are asked to sing a national or devotional song in chorus to break
down barriers of status differences and to produce group cohesion. Such
mass singing also paves the way for establishing rapport between the
speaker and his audience and helps to make the latter's emotional appeals
more effective. Mahatma Gandhi's audiences were both religious and
political and his appeal was aimed at making listeners better persons and
persuade them to take keener and more active interest in national struggle
and activity. But then Gandhian approach was unique giving national
struggle and service a religious fervour and seeking the solution of political
problems and ills on an ethical basis. Hitler, Jinnah and Lloyd George
were highly effective with conversional audiences and could rouse people
to strong emotions and intense activity along their own lines of thinking.

3) Recreational Audience

Such an audience seeks amusement and entertainment. In India a
snake-charmer, a monkey-man, a juggler or an acrobat can easily attract
a small crowd at any street corner. Such a crowd assembles spontaneously
just for the fun of watching a show, and beating the drum is enough to
bring them together. Audiences at a theater, cinema house or musical
programme or variety show are recreational. People go there to enjoy and
relax and they pay for the privilege to be there. But most of them have
their own expectations of the show and are very critical if their expectations
are not fulfilled. Cinema audiences have their own favourite fans as film
stars. They have formed certain tastes about music, dance and story, and
if their sensibility is in any way offended they hiss and boo. Film producers
are very careful they pander to the tastes of that class of population which
frequents the cinema-house, and if the intelligentsia complain that standard
of film is falling, producers pay no heed to it knowing fully well that such
people do not matter much. They seem to know their audiences and go
on repeating the same formula of triangles in film stories. The new film should be new and different and yet must conform to the public conventions and expectations. That is why films do not deviate much in cast, music, dances and story. Quite a few films which have struck a new line have become flops. In every cinema audiences are found a few individuals who go on criticizing the film during the show. They do not seem to be seeking recreation.

Theatre audiences are more critical. While old plays may be accepted and only their cast and performance is commented upon, new plays may or may not prove effective in audience leadership. A good play may be spoiled by a bad cast and a bad play may be redeemed by a good cast. Audience satisfaction depends on a number of factors which are not at all under the control of the producer.
I. CONCEPT OF AUDIENCE BEHAVIOUR

The audience behaviour can be defined as the action and reaction of the people, who are scattered in various places, having access to the mass medium. Their behaviour can be classified into:

a) Active behaviour: This is a behaviour which is shown outwardly reacting in a particular manner.

b) Passive behaviour: This is a behaviour which is not shown outwardly but reacting inwardly.

c) Positive behaviour: This is a behaviour which help both individual and the society. And this is basically constructive in nature.

d) Negative behaviour: This is a behaviour which does not help anyone. On the other hand it only destroys the society.

II. AUDIENCE SELECTIVITY

Audience selectivity is a process of choosing the correct target of people, when a communicator wishes to communicate a message.

The impact of audience in either strong or weak depending on the audience selection. If this is ignored, semantic noise will be present, making the communication meaningless and irrelevant.

III. OPINION LEADERS

Opinion leaders are those people, who hold high, important and respectable positions in the society and whose words and the opinions will have considerable impact on the mass audience, creating a public opinion (eg. cine actors and actresses, king, politicians, journalists, student leaders, president, teachers, scholars, scientists, doctors, religious leaders, etc.)
VI. MESSAGE DIFFUSION

Message diffusion is the process of spreading the mass media message from one place to others. This diffusion is at times very fast and it is slow at other times. The process of diffusion can be shown in the following:

a) From Multiplicity to Simplicity  

\[ S \rightarrow R \]

b) From Simplicity to Multiplicity

\[ R \rightarrow S \]

The factors influencing the diffusion of messages are:

a) Channels
b) Receiver
c) Noises
d) Socio-cultural environment, etc.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Define mass behaviour. And bring out the features of mass society.
2. Define mass audience. Discuss the various types of audience.
3. Critically examine the sociological aspect of the mass audience.

BOOKS FOR FURTHER READING

2. Davis McQuail - Mass Communication Theory.
UNIT – VIII
DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION

LESSON – 8.1

MASS COMMUNICATION IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

I. WHAT COMMUNICATION MEANS IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES
   a) Communication is conceptualised as applied.
   b) Communication is goal-oriented.
   c) Communication is result-oriented.
   d) Communication is a linear process.
   e) Communication is having effect.
   f) People may be discontent or making demands.

II. PRIORITIES OF COMMUNICATION
   The communication priorities are national development oriented. The following communication contexts are significant:
   1) Creating ambience for development (publishing development plans and strategies)
   2) Showing the means by which exploitative social structures are perpetuated.
   3) Initiating sweeping cultural changes.
   4) Transforming the traditional society to modernity.
   5) Bringing attitude and behaviour changes for development.
   6) Conducting audience reaction studies.

III. FUNCTIONS OF COMMUNICATION
   a) Specific Functions
      Six functions are specifically assigned to communication in developing countries:
1) **Information:** Not only dissemination of information but creating awareness.

2) **Education:** Educating the people about the various aspects of both material and social innovations.

3) **Communication within cultural context matrix:** In order to get the information and innovations accepted and adopted, the communication should be within the cultural matrix.

4) **Motivation:** To make people feel their needs, express them and implement them.

5) **Entertainment:** To make people relax and relieve their tensions.

6) **Discontent:** To make people feel and express their dissatisfaction.

b. **General Functions**

1) Mass media can provide information, education and entertainment to the people.

2) They can persuade people to participate in development process.

3) They can pass on new ideas from one place to the other, one community to the other and from one city to the other.

4) Mass media can provide a forum for discussion and debate.

5) In the field of agriculture, mass media can pass on agricultural information from the developed countries to the benefit of the developing countries.

6) They can also provide agricultural research information that is coming out of universities and the research institutes to farmers and others involved in agriculture.

7) Also, the mass media can communicate to the policy makers, planners and others involved in agriculture the progress that is being made by the farmer while utilising new and improved agricultural methods.
8) In the field of industry, mass media can communicate to the industrialists about the industrial practices being followed in advanced countries so that developing countries' industrialists can emulate them.

9) They can communicate about availability of raw materials and manpower in a particular place so that industries can be set up in that place.

10) Apart from these, mass media can publish and carry articles and news stories on successful industries in developed countries so that similar stories can be made by industrialists in developing countries.

11) Also the mass media can communicate to the government about the industrialists' problems and how solutions can be found to their problems.

12) In the field of science and technology, the mass media can bring about the developments that are taking place in the advanced countries so that people in developing countries can be aware of the same.

13) The media can diffuse science news among the scientific community in developing countries from the policy makers to the actual implementers.

14) The media can also bring out the problems faced in the science and technology by the developed countries to the developing countries, so that the people in developing countries can be aware of the same and efforts can be taken to avoid the same mistakes made by scientists in the developed countries.

15) In the field of demography, health and family planning, the mass media have a pivotal role to play. Mass media need to inform the people in developing countries not only on the problems faced by excessive population but also motivate the people to undertake family planning measures.

16) The media can talk about the achievements made by developed countries in the sphere of family planning to the benefit of the developing countries.
17) In the field of health, the mass media do have a very important role to play. This role involves people to participate in the health program launched by the government and the various other agencies and securing their co-operation for the success of these programs.

18) The media can also tell people about health problems facing them and what kind of remedies need to be undertaken to solve them.

19) The media can tell people about how preventive steps can be undertaken in case of serious and deadly diseases such as AIDS and how to cope up with them when they attack them.

20) The mass media can motivate people to increase the food production in developing countries.

21) Mass media can inform people about the availability of raw materials so that people can take steps to get them in developing countries.

22) In the industrial sector, the role to be played by media includes passing of information, motivating industrialists and passing of successful stories of industrialists from developed countries.

23) In the field of transportation mass media have a role in telling people about the policies made by the government and also the solutions that can be found to transportation problems.

24) In the energy sector too, mass media have a role to play. This includes informing people about policies made by the government as far as energy is concerned and also the steps taken by the government and others to locate various sources of energy.

25) In the field of labour also, mass media do come to play a role. This includes informing the availability of labour resources and how these labour can meet the demand of the people. Also, information can be provided on policies that are being made as far as labour is concerned in developing countries.
I. THE NATURE OF DEVELOPMENT

a) Definition of Development

1) "Development is change toward patterns of society that allow better realisation of human values, that allow a society greater control over its environment and over its own political destiny, and that enables its individuals to gain increased control over themselves".

2) ‘Development is a widely participatory process of social change in a society, intended to bring about both social and material advancement (including greater equality, freedom, and other valued qualities) for the majority of the people through their gaining greater control over their environment.'

b) Development Goals

1) *Equality of the distribution* of socio-economic benefits, information, resources, wealth, etc.

2) *Popular (people's) participation in self-development planning and execution*, usually accompanied by the decentralisation of certain of these activities to the village levels.

3) *Self-reliance and independence in development*, with an emphasis upon potential of social resources.

4) *Integration of traditional with modern systems*, so that modernisation is a syncretisation of old and new ideas, with the exact mixture some what different in each locale.

c) Key Concepts


2. *Dependency*: Relying on somebody, on something.

4. Decentralisation: Sharing of power, authority, etc.

5. Participation: Active people's involvement.

6. Urbanisation: Quality or state of being or becoming urbanised.

7. Modernisation: Process by which individuals change from traditional way of life to a more complex, technologically advanced, and rapidly changing style of life.

8. Industrialisation: Process of introducing new technologies or production techniques in manufacturing.

9. First, second, third, fourth worlds:
   
   First World: All industrialised countries with per capita income above 3,000 US $.

   Second World: Eastern European nations (Soviet Russia, Poland, Romania, etc.) Here the category is based on the level of technology rather than per capita income - the level of income is about the same between citizens.

   Third World: Developing countries with per capita income above 300 US $ (most Latin American countries, some ASEAN countries, some Middle East countries, African countries, Communist China, etc).

   Fourth World: Countries with per capita income lower than 300 US $ (most populated countries, like Bangladesh, India).

10. Basic needs: Refers to basic needs in food, nutrition, health, education and housing.

d) Blocks for Development
   
   1) Traditionalism
   2) Politics
   3) Natural resources
   4) Capital resources
   5) Labour resources
6) International trade  
7) Transnational corporations  
8) Communication systems  
9) Bureaucracy  

II. DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION  

a) Definition of development communication  

1) 'Development communication is the art and science of human communication applied to the speedy transformation of a country and the mass of its people from poverty to a dynamic state of economic growth that make possible social equality and the larger fulfilment of the human potential'.

2) 'Development communication is an element of the management process in the overall planning and implementation of development programs. Development communication is, in a broad sense, the identification and utilisation of appropriate expertise in the development process that will assist in increasing participation of intended beneficiaries at the grassroots levels'.

b) Roles of Development Communication  

Development communication is primarily associated with rural problems, but it is also concerned with urban problems. Development communication has got 2 primary roles. They are:

1) A Transforming Role: It seeks social change in the direction of higher quality of life.

2) A Socialising Role: It seeks to maintain some of the established values of the society.

In these roles, development communication seeks to create an atmosphere for change, as well as providing innovations through which society may change.
c) Goal of development communication

The development communication is goal-oriented. The ultimate goal of development communication is a higher quality of life for the people of a society.

We should not view the goal of development communication purely in economic, but also in terms of social, political, cultural and moral values that make a person's life whole, and that enable a person to attain his or her full potential.

However, the goal of development communication in a specific society will be influenced by the ends and values of that society.

d) The Process of development communication

1) Development communication flow.
2) Formulation of messages.
3) Transfer of messages.
4) User's response to messages.

III. DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION PLANNING

a) Definitions of Planning

1) 'Planning is a process for determining appropriate future action through a sequence of choices'.
2) 'Planning is the conscious effort to adapt a system to its environment in order to achieve system goals'.
3) 'Planning is an organised, conscious and continual attempt to select the best available alternatives to achieve specific goals. Planning involves the economising of scarce resources. It has been used for variety of ends, by different societies and in different ways. It is not limited to totalitarian or socialistic solutions. It can be and is used by democratic and capitalistic countries'.

b) Key concepts of planning

1) Deliberate effort: conscious action.
2) Socio-technical resources: social institutional potentialities.
3) Planned change: changes brought about by deliberate planning.
4) Selection of alternatives: choosing among many choices.
5) Societal needs: the needs which a society is primarily concerned with.
6) Decision: final acceptance in word and action.

c) Characteristics of Planning
1) Planning is a human activity.
2) Planning is future-oriented.
3) Planning intervenes into and attempts to influence decision.
4) Planning is part of a process of change.
5) Planning has problem-solving orientation.
6) Planning is goal-oriented.
7) Planning is based on optimism.
8) Planning utilises data.
9) Planning is a descriptive explanation of action.

d) Objectives of Planning
1) To take meaningful and effective action.
2) To bring about the needed social change.
3) To avoid unnecessary blocks in development.
4) To achieve the goal for a society.
5) To develop and control environment.
6) To maximise the human and natural resources.
7) To raise the quality of life of the people.

e) Definition of development communication planning

'Development Communication Planning can be defined as a deliberate, systematic and continuous effort to organise human activity for the efficient use of communication resources and for the realisation of communication policies, in the context of a particular society's development goals, means,
and priorities, and subject to its prevailing forms of economic, social and political organisation'.

f) Relevance of Development Communication Planning

1) Communication has a role in the total development process as an active and dynamic participant.

2) Communication planning is an indispensable requirement in a country's usage of its communication resources, and an integral part of any planning process.

3) Communication planning must necessarily be done within the perspective of a country's social, economic, political and cultural realities as well as its development plans.

g) Aspects of Development Communication Planning

1) Communication Infrastructure Planning deals with the development communication systems such as radio, television, audio-cassettes, etc.

2) Communication Operation Planning deals with the uses of communication systems, elements and contents.

h) Complexities of Development Communication Planning

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Political-Ideology and issues  Societal Issues  Communication Systems  Resources Availability

Development Paths and Goals

Planning Methods and Models Used

Communication Policy  Communication Planning

Complexities of Development Communication Planning
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i) Elements of Development Communication Planning

1) Identification of communication needs and resources
2) Goal specification
3) Planning Development Communication strategies
4) Planning for implementation
5) Planning for evaluation

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I. MEDIA ISSUES AND THE MEDIA APPROACH

a) Media issues: Media are established by the society and for the society. The primary concern of the media must be removal of social problems from the society. The issues will vary from society to society. The following are the general issues found in almost every developing country:

1. Culture
2. Women
3. Youth
4. Terrorism
5. Civil Wars
6. Violence
7. Crime
8. Religion
9. Politics
10. Health
11. Environment
12. Basic Values
13. Law
14. Social Welfare
15. Public Morality
16. Social Change
17. Ethnicity
18. Parochialism
19. Education
20. Illiteracy
21. Unemployment
22. Prostitution
23. Poverty
24. Economic Crisis

b) Media approach: To the above mentioned social issues, the media must respond in a responsible manner. But the reality is that they are not sensitive to these issues and spend their time mostly entertaining the people, thus following a counter value system. The causes of this situation can be:

1. Political threat
2. False value system
3. Making money as a motive
4. Inefficiency
5. Communal basis
6. Lack of sponsors
7. Lack of social responsibility

II. MEDIA AND SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY

The concept of social responsibility need to be fully defined here. It means being responsible as a whole to the society in general. In what way media need to be socially responsible? The media need to be socially responsible in a number of ways and those are the following:

1) During the crisis of war situations.
2) During the crisis of internal disturbances and internal emergencies.
3) When communal and other conflicts and riots erupt in the nation.
4) When the government has launched Massive Welfare Schemes such as Family planning programme for the benefit of the public.
5) In conflicts of religious nature among different religious leaders in the country.
6) Conflict over territorial dispute.
7) Reporting on a new invention in science and technology which is promised to provide lasting solution.
8) Reporting on pharmaceutical and medical discoveries.
9) Reporting on the plan process, targets, goals and achievements.
10) Reporting on agitations launched by sections of the society against the government demanding concession, recognition and provision of funds for their welfare.

III. MEDIA CRITICISM

While people generally applaud the role played by mass media, there is also another side of the mass media which they criticise. The reasons given for criticising mass media are many. Mass media are criticised by people for the following reasons:
1) Mass media while playing a role in our society, also portray members of our society in a negative way.

2) They not only portray negatively but also exert a negative influence on the members of our society especially the younger ones.

3) Media, sometimes tend to be sensational in their coverage.

4) Media, sometimes, ignore one section of the society over the others.

5) Media resort to obscenity and pornography in order to sell their products and services.

6) Media promote commercialism in the market place.

7) Only those who have resources can have access to mass media. This means that elderly, poor and minorities do not find much coverage in the mainstream mass media.

8) Another valid criticism of mass media has been that they cover too much of negative news.

9) The development journalism or communication has not been practiced by many a mass media.

10) Lastly, mass media provide too much of political news over other forms of news and comments.

In this context, it becomes imperative to ask one question. What should the mass media do in order to avert major criticism? The following can be suggested under this context or situation:

1) The mass media should be responsible in their approach to men and matters.

2) They should be objective in their reporting of news and comments or views.

3) They should avoid sensationalism.

4) They should give equal representation to women, minorities and other neglected members of society.

5) Media should avoid obscenity and pornography.
6) They should advocate national integration and universal brotherhood.

7) They should not compromise their editorial standard for reward of money.

8) They should give prominence to development reporting.

9) Media should provide equal access to all sections of the society disregarding their position in our society.

10) Lastly, media should be responsible section of our society in all possible ways so that other sections of the society can emulate their example.

IV MASS MEDIA AND SOCIAL CHANGE

These are the general guidelines that the mass media need to play in bringing about social change:

1) Media should provide accurate information on politics and culture to the people.

2) Media should not only provide information but also motivate people in participating in development oriented efforts.

3) They should mould public opinion and provide a forum to create public policy.

4) Bring about the changes that are taking place around the people and tell them about their significance to the people.

5) Media need to prepare the people to take up challenges facing the nation.

6) In times of crisis, the media should become guardians of public morality and sentiments.

7) Media should educate the masses on new methods, new practices and new applications of technology.

8) Media should play its part in communicating messages on family planning, adult education and primary health care etc.
9) On development planning, media have a role to discharge in informing about them to the people and getting their approval and participation.

10) When the country faces crisis situation, internal or external emergency, the media should not only be objective but helpful to the government in discharging their duties.

11) Media should mobilise public support for various development projects undertaken by the government and non governmental agencies.

12) Media should contribute towards eradication of illiteracy and superstitions.

13) Media should mobilise public support for family planning, adult and primary healthcare.

14) Media need to be impartial and unbiased in reporting events of public importance and where the government and others are involved in a controversy of some sorts. They need not support the government but be factual, truthful and objective in reporting.

15) During natural and man-made disasters and accidents, media should be first there and report it as fast as possible. In reporting they should not be sensational. What is reported should be a fair and objective reporting.

While concluding we can say that the media have a definite role to play in social change. We do need social change and more importantly positive change. This change should not be rapid, violent and earth shaking. But, it should be a normal, gradual and slow one. Whether we want it or not, social change is bound to come and media do have a positive role to play in bringing about the desired social change. Media are important factors in the process of social change.
REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Discuss the functions that are expected from mass communications in the developing countries.

2. Define development communication. And explain how planning can help the development communication.

3. Define media issues. Enumerate the various social issues prevailing in the Indian society and the approaches adopted by mass communication in tackling these issues.

BOOKS FOR FURTHER READING

1. Kuppusamy B. - Communication and Social Development

2. Rogers, Everett, M. - Communication and Development

PG 2406

Second Year
Sociology
Paper VI — SOCIOLOGY OF MASS COMMUNICATION

Time: Three hours  Maximum: 100 marks

SECTION A — (5 x 8 = 40 marks)

Answer any FIVE out of Eight of the following questions.

1. Describe the characteristics of audience.

2. Give the importance of feedback in communication.

3. Explain the characteristics of non-verbal communication.

4. Discuss the advantages and dis-advantages of mass-media.

5. Write the different types of communication.

6. Briefly explain the composite models of communication.
7. What are the barriers of mass communication in India?

8. What are the limitations of using books as a medium of communication?

SECTION B — (3 x 20 = 60 marks)

Answer any THREE out of Five of the following questions

9. “Group communication is a more complex process than interpersonal communication” — Discuss.

10. Critically evaluate the formal and informal channels of communications.

11. Describe the process of communication and evaluate the elements involved in it.

12. What role do the media play in preserving Indian Cultutal tradition?

13. Discuss the different aspects of communication as a social science.