

## **Introduction to Media and Communication**

### **Syllabus**

#### **Unit I Media and Everyday Life**

Mobile phones, Television, Ring tones, Twitter The Internet- discussion around media and everyday life, Discussions around mediated and non mediated communication

#### **Unit II Communication and Mass Communication**

Communication, Types of Communication, Barriers to effectiveness,

#### **Unit III Mass Communication and Effects Paradigm**

Direct Effects; Mass Society Theory, Propaganda, Limited Effects; Individual Difference Theory, Personal Influence Theory

#### **Unit IV Cultural Effects and the Emergence of an Alternative Paradigm**

Cultural Effects: Agenda Setting, Spiral of Silence, Cultivation Analysis, Critique of the effects Paradigm and emergence of alternative paradigm

#### **Unit V Four Models of Communication**

Transmission models, Ritual or Expressive models, Publicity Model, Reception Model

## **Introduction to Media and Communication**

### **Tutorial**

#### **Unit I Media and Everyday Life**

Discussion around media and everyday life

From the wealth of theoretical aspects of action and experience, which Schütz develops, two concepts which offer immediate help in understanding television are picked out: the ordinariness and familiarity of everyday life; action and its constituting process in everyday life. Ordinariness and familiarity For the present generation of researchers, one aspect of everyday life in relation to children's, young people's and families' use of television is hard to understand: television as "the unquestioned reality" of current everyday life, as television only became apart of everyday life for the researchers when they were older. Only the present generation of children, teenagers or young adults grew up with television as a quite normal and ordinary matter. Children and young people take for granted this their everyday world, that is in the ubiquitous media and consumer network, as their parents' generation structured and organised their lives around the car. This everyday world of media and consumption as "unquestioned reality" conveys the idea, as it always has, of one's own world being a universal valid

constant as it always was: Schütz speaks of the ordinariness of the everyday world as a universal constant: the "structures of the world", the "validity of our experiences of the world" and our chances for influencing the world - all this is accepted as something valid and constant. This constancy of experience and action - which includes present day television and the way people respond to it - confront the media educationalist with considerable problems: how to handle and reflect something as a problem of special meaning and "relevance" although its everyday occurrence does not give cause to do so. The researcher must equally take fundamental account in his research plan of the constancy of television and its ordinariness in everyday life, This goes beyond questions of research methods, e.g. that television taken for granted as an element of everyday life excludes simple questioning techniques: you do not really know the point at issue. That means that questions about everyday life can only offer superficial explanations, by providing information about watching patterns, e.g. switching on times. Of decisive importance for research, on the other hand, is to take a close look at action and at what people tell researchers, seeing this information as a representation of their complex everyday world. In terms of research strategy, this means using research observation and informative documents to uncover the very varied layers of everyday life and of the mediation process of experience and action in relation to the ordinary everyday reality of mass communication. This leads to interpretation methods in which texts which at first sight appear simple and insignificant (they are after all understandable in an everyday sense) are analysed from very abstract and theoretical perspectives, which make everyday life seem questionable. One question, for instance, then to be asked is, to what extent well-known television genres and young people's patterns of action relate to each other. Patterns of action and interpretation In order to get closer to the symbolic quality of television and its integration into everyday life, it is appropriate to consider Schütz's argument that patterns of "expression and interpretation" structure everyday life: although it is an unquestionable reality, we organise the "social world" of everyday life by means of the "socially conditioned schemata of expression and interpretation prevailing in the group to which we belong." These schemata 'also co-determine what within our culture is accepted as unquestionable, what can become questionable and what appears as worthy of questioning". These schemata of expression and interpretation have, over and above this reflective significance for everyday life, the general function of a "common schema of interpretation of the common world." They are "a means of mutual agreement and understanding". In the relationship of a subject to the world and to other people, which is always mediated via interpretative schemata, television today also plays an interpretative role. The status of television's interpretative role can now be empirically characterized. This interpretative role results from the common origins of interpretative schemata which bring action and experience together in a reflexive fashion. Thus nowadays television watching and those experiences linked with it (e.g. the everyday life of the family) enter into structuring interpretative schemata, while this relationship, because it is part of an unquestioned reality, is not reflected upon. One cannot reflect about how and why television experiences, family life, action, other experiences and

interpretation should all be linked in a coherent process. These interpretative schemata arise because experiences are integrated in the prescribed "total context of experience. In this reflexive process of interpretation and experience in the given framework of a personal biography, television in various sequences has its own role for example as an experience which is integrated, or for example as an interpretative scheme which integrates experiences. Furthermore, television might well structure complex areas of experiences by providing particular patterns of order Television has, therefore, the cultural function of integrating and developing everyday patterns of action and interpretation in terms of classifying schemes. It is not easy, from a methodological point of view, to work using this complex structure of interpretations, experiences, interpretative schemes and patterns of order as a research object, for these processes relate reflexively the one to the other and do have the quality of ambiguous events and thus are not to be described definitely, This complex relationship is not only dependent on the respective individual and cultural situations but also, as it is a reflexive process, it is always new and also uniquely in a state of flux.

Mobile phones,

A **mobile phone**, known as a **cell phone** in North America, is a portable telephone that can make and receive calls over a radio frequency link while the user is moving within a telephone service area. The radio frequency link establishes a connection to the switching systems of a mobile phone operator, which provides access to the public switched telephone network (PSTN). Modern mobile telephone services use a cellular network architecture, and, therefore, mobile telephones are called *cellular telephones* or *cell phones*, in North America. In addition to telephony, 2000s-era mobile phones support a variety of other services, such as text messaging, MMS, email, Internet access, short-range wireless communications (infrared, Bluetooth), business applications, video games, and digital photography. Mobile phones offering only those capabilities are known as feature phones; mobile phones which offer greatly advanced computing capabilities are referred to as smartphones.

The first handheld mobile phone was demonstrated by John F. Mitchel and Martin Cooper of Motorola in 1973, using a handset weighing c. 2 kilograms (4.4 lbs) In 1979, Nippon Telegraph and Telephone (NTT) launched the world's first cellular network in Japan. In 1983, the DynaTAC 8000x was the first commercially available handheld mobile phone. From 1983 to 2014, worldwide mobile phone subscriptions grew to over seven billion, penetrating virtually 100% of the global population and reaching even the bottom of the economic pyramid. In first quarter of 2016, the top smartphone developers

worldwide were Samsung, Apple, and Huawei (and "[smartphone sales represented 78 percent of total mobile phone sales"). For feature phones (or "dumbphones") as of 2016, the largest were Samsung, Nokia, and Alcatel.

Television,

**Television (TV)** is a telecommunication medium used for transmitting moving images in monochrome (black and white), or in colour, and in two or three dimensions and sound. The term can refer to a television set, a television program ("TV show"), or the medium of television transmission. Television is a mass medium for advertising, entertainment and news.

Television became available in crude experimental forms in the late 1920s, but it would still be several years before the new technology would be marketed to consumers. After World War II, an improved form of black-and-white TV broadcasting became popular in the United States and Britain, and television sets became commonplace in homes, businesses, and institutions. During the 1950s, television was the primary medium for influencing public opinion. In the mid-1960s, color broadcasting was introduced in the US and most other developed countries. The availability of multiple types of archival storage media such as Betamax, VHS tape, local disks, DVDs, flash drives, high-definition Blu-ray Discs, and cloud digital video recorders have enabled viewers to watch pre-recorded material—such as movies— at home on their own time schedule. For many reasons, especially the convenience of remote retrieval, the storage of television and video programming now occurs on the cloud. At the end of the first decade of the 2000s, digital television transmissions greatly increased in popularity. Another development was the move from standard-definition television (SDTV) (576i, with 576 interlaced lines of resolution and 480i) to high-definition television (HDTV), which provides a resolution that is substantially higher. HDTV may be transmitted in various formats: 1080p, 1080i and 720p. Since 2010, with the invention of smart television, Internet television has increased the availability of television programs and movies via the Internet through streaming video services such as Netflix, Amazon Video, iPlayer, Hulu, Roku and Chromecast.

In 2013, 79% of the world's households owned a television set. The replacement of early bulky, high-voltage cathode ray tube (CRT) screen displays with compact, energy-efficient, flat-panel alternative technologies such as LCDs (both fluorescent-backlit and LED), OLED displays, and plasma

displays was a hardware revolution that began with computer monitors in the late 1990s. Most TV sets sold in the 2000s were flat-panel, mainly LEDs. Major manufacturers announced the discontinuation of CRT, DLP, plasma, and even fluorescent-backlit LCDs by the mid-2010s. In the near future, LEDs are expected to be gradually replaced by OLEDs. Also, major manufacturers have announced that they will increasingly produce smart TVs in the mid-2010s. Smart TVs with integrated Internet and Web 2.0 functions became the dominant form of television by the late 2010s.

Television signals were initially distributed only as terrestrial television using high-powered radio-frequency transmitters to broadcast the signal to individual television receivers. Alternatively television signals are distributed by coaxial cable or optical fiber, satellite systems and, since the 2000s via the Internet. Until the early 2000s, these were transmitted as analog signals, but a transition to digital television is expected to be completed worldwide by the late 2010s. A standard television set is composed of multiple internal electronic circuits, including a tuner for receiving and decoding broadcast signals. A visual display device which lacks a tuner is correctly called a video monitor rather than a television.

Ring tones,

A **ringtone** or **ring tone** is the sound made by a telephone to indicate an incoming call or text message. Not literally a tone nor an actual (bell-like) ring any more, the term is most often used today to refer to customizable sounds used on mobile phones.

Twitter

**Twitter** is an online news and social networking service on which users post and interact with messages known as "tweets". Tweets were originally restricted to 140 characters, but on November 7, 2017, this limit was doubled for all languages except Japanese, Korean, and Chinese. Registered users can post tweets, but those who are unregistered can only read them. Users access Twitter through its website interface, through Short Message Service (SMS) or mobile-device application software ("app"). Twitter, Inc. is based in San Francisco, California, and has more than 25 offices around the world.

Twitter was created in March 2006 by Jack Dorsey, Noah Glass, Biz Stone, and Evan Williams and launched in July of that year. The service rapidly gained

worldwide popularity. In 2012, more than 100 million users posted 340 million tweets a day, and the service handled an average of 1.6 billion search queries per day. In 2013, it was one of the ten most-visited websites and has been described as "the SMS of the Internet". As of 2016, Twitter had more than 319 million monthly active users. On the day of the 2016 U.S. presidential election, Twitter proved to be the largest source of breaking news, with 40 million election-related tweets sent by 10 p.m. (Eastern Time) that day.

## The Internet

The **Internet** is the global system of interconnected computer networks that use the Internet protocol suite (TCP/IP) to link devices worldwide. It is a *network of networks* that consists of private, public, academic, business, and government networks of local to global scope, linked by a broad array of electronic, wireless, and optical networking technologies. The Internet carries a vast range of information resources and services, such as the inter-linked hypertext documents and applications of the World Wide Web (WWW), electronic mail, telephony, and file sharing.

The origins of the Internet date back to research commissioned by the federal government of the United States in the 1960s to build robust, fault-tolerant communication with computer networks. The primary precursor network, the ARPANET, initially served as a backbone for interconnection of regional academic and military networks in the 1980s. The funding of the National Science Foundation Network as a new backbone in the 1980s, as well as private funding for other commercial extensions, led to worldwide participation in the development of new networking technologies, and the merger of many networks. The linking of commercial networks and enterprises by the early 1990s marks the beginning of the transition to the modern Internet, and generated a sustained exponential growth as generations of institutional, personal, and mobile computers were connected to the network. Although the Internet was widely used by academia since the 1980s, the commercialization incorporated its services and technologies into virtually every aspect of modern life.

Most traditional communications media, including telephony, radio, television, paper mail and newspapers are reshaped, redefined, or even bypassed by the Internet, giving birth to new services such as email, Internet telephony, Internet television, online music, digital newspapers, and video streaming websites.

Newspaper, book, and other print publishing are adapting to website technology, or are reshaped into blogging, web feeds and online news aggregators. The Internet has enabled and accelerated new forms of personal interactions through instant messaging, Internet forums, and social networking. Online shopping has grown exponentially both for major retailers and small businesses and entrepreneurs, as it enables firms to extend their "brick and mortar" presence to serve a larger market or even sell goods and services entirely online. Business-to-business and financial services on the Internet affect supply chains across entire industries.

The Internet has no centralized governance in either technological implementation or policies for access and usage; each constituent network sets its own policies. Only the overarching definitions of the two principal name spaces in the Internet, the Internet Protocol address (IP address) space and the Domain Name System (DNS), are directed by a maintainer organization, the Internet Corporation for Assigned Names and Numbers (ICANN). The technical underpinning and standardization of the core protocols is an activity of the Internet Engineering Task Force (IETF), a non-profit organization of loosely affiliated international participants that anyone may associate with by contributing technical expertise.

Discussions around mediated and non mediated communication

**Mediated communication** or **mediated interaction** (less often, **mediated discourse**) refers to communication carried out by the use of information communication technology and can be contrasted to face-to-face communication. While nowadays the technology we use is often related to computers, giving rise to the popular term computer-mediated communication, mediated technology need not be computerized as writing a letter using a pen and a piece of paper is also using mediated communication. Thus, Davis defines mediated communication as the use of any technical medium for transmission across time and space.

Historically, mediated communication was much rarer than the face-to-face method. Even though humans possessed the technology to communicate in space and time for millennia, the majority of the world's population lacked skills such as literacy to use them. This began to change in Europe with the invention of the printing press by Johannes Gutenberg that led to the spread of printed

texts and rising literacy from the 15th century. Separately, the first print culture was Chinese in origin. Whatever the tradition, face-to-face interaction has begun to steadily lose ground to mediated communication.

Compared to face-to-face communication, mediated communication engages fewer senses, transmits fewer symbolic cues (most mediated communication does not transmit facial expressions) and is seen as more private. Parties usually require some technical expertise to operate the mediating technologies. New computerized media, such as mobile telephones or instant messaging, allow mediated communication to transmit more oral and nonverbal symbols than the older generation of tools.

The type of mediated technology used can also influence its meaning. This is most famously rendered in Marshall McLuhan's maxim "the medium is the message".

Lundby (2009) distinguished between three forms of mediated communication: mediated interpersonal communication, interactive communication, and mass communication. Thompson (1995), however, treated mass communication not as a part of mediated communication, but on par with mediated and face-to-face communication, terming it "mediated quasi-interaction"

### Differences from face-to-face communication

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There are only a few ways that mediated communication and face-to-face communication function similarly. One of them is that interpersonal coordination is present in both face-to-face and mediated communication. However, mediated communication has vast differences and limitations compared with face-to-face communication. Writing in communication media and speech in face-to-face communication are different in terms of their lexical density, range of grammatical structures, varied connectivity between sentences, syntax, permanence, etc. These differences in each type of communication can change the message. Texting and e-mail, for example, contain combined forms of writing and speech, which is evident by slang and shorthand. Also, no nonverbal cues can be sent through mediated communication, so received information can be harder to understand.<sup>[12]</sup> Verbal (or textual) cues are used instead of nonverbal ones to convey the same messages.

Individuals send more information at a time through computer media than any other form of communication, including face-to-face communication. This increased rate of information transfer allows abusive forms of communication like cyber bullying and phishing to occur. The disassociation and disinhibition associated with mediated communication can cause people who are being deceived to have trouble interpreting the reactions of the deceiver since information sent through media instead of face-to-face can lose or have change the nonverbal cues within it, and, with that, signs of deception. The decreased availability of these nonverbal cues increases disassociation and anonymity. It is easier to trust someone else through mediated communication, but people with less trust can detect deception better online.

Because of the limitations of mediated communication, Nardi and Whittaker (2002) note, "Many theorists imply that face-to-face communication is the gold standard of communication. Mediated communication has been, however, described as more preferable in some situations, particularly where time and geographical distance are an issue. For example, in maintaining long-distance friendship, face-to-face communication was only the fourth most common way of maintaining ties, after mediated communication tools of telephone, email and instant messaging.

## Uses

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Individuals will use different types of media depending on their motivations, communication purpose, institutional factors, and situational factors. Also, people will be more inclined to use a particular medium of communication if others associated with them use that medium; this is called the network effect. Motivations for using certain media are divided into strong- and weak-tie communication. There are five communication purposes: coordination, knowledge-sharing, information gathering, relationship development, and conflict resolution. Institutional factors include the physical structure of work units, social structure, and incentives. Situational factors include task characteristics, message content, and urgency.

Mediated communication is not as commonly used as face-to-face communication in the workplace, but there are different preferred media of communication for simple forms of coordination. E-mails and phone calls tend to be used for simple or complex coordination, but e-mails are also useful for

retaining information and recording the exchange of information. In terms of communication solutions to certain situational factors, e-mails are used for recording the transfer of information and sending long, complex, and non-textual information, and phone calls and pagers are used for immediate communication. E-mails and phone calls are also used in knowledge sharing and information gathering. E-mails are rarely used to accomplish relationship goals, but they are used for conflict resolution. Individuals have a higher motivation to use cell-phone texting for weak-tie communication. The network effect has the most impact on e-mail, meaning that people tend to use e-mail more if their peers use it, too.

## **Unit II** Communication and Mass Communication

**Communication** (from Latin *commūnicāre*, meaning "to share") is the act of conveying intended meanings from one entity or group to another through the use of mutually understood signs and semiotic rules.

The main steps inherent to all communication are:

1. The formation of communicative motivation or reason.
2. Message composition (further internal or technical elaboration on what exactly to express).
3. Message encoding (for example, into digital data, written text, speech, pictures, gestures and so on).
4. Transmission of the encoded message as a sequence of signals using a specific channel or medium.
5. Noise sources such as natural forces and in some cases human activity (both intentional and accidental) begin influencing the quality of signals propagating from the sender to one or more receivers.
6. Reception of signals and reassembling of the encoded message from a sequence of received signals.
7. Decoding of the reassembled encoded message.
8. Interpretation and making sense of the presumed original message.

The scientific study of communication can be divided into:

- Information theory which studies the quantification, storage, and communication of information in general;
- Communication studies which concerns human communication;

- Biosemiotics which examines communication in and between living organisms in general.

The channel of communication can be visual, auditory, tactile (such as in Braille) and haptic, olfactory, electromagnetic, or biochemical.

Human communication is unique for its extensive use of abstract language. Development of civilization has been closely linked with progress in telecommunication.

### Non-verbal

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Nonverbal communication describes the processes of conveying a type of information in the form of non-linguistic representations. Examples of nonverbal communication include haptic communication, chronemic communication, gestures, body language, facial expressions, eye contact, and how one dresses. Nonverbal communication also relates to the intent of a message. Examples of intent are voluntary, intentional movements like shaking a hand or winking, as well as involuntary, such as sweating. Speech also contains nonverbal elements known as paralanguage, e.g. rhythm, intonation, tempo, and stress. It affects communication most at the subconscious level and establishes trust. Likewise, written texts include nonverbal elements such as handwriting style, the spatial arrangement of words and the use of emoticons to convey emotion.

Nonverbal communication demonstrates one of Watzlawick's laws: you cannot not communicate. Once proximity has formed awareness, living creatures begin interpreting any signals received. Some of the functions of nonverbal communication in humans are to complement and illustrate, to reinforce and emphasize, to replace and substitute, to control and regulate, and to contradict the denotive message.

Nonverbal cues are heavily relied on to express communication and to interpret others' communication and can replace or substitute verbal messages. However, non-verbal communication is ambiguous. When verbal messages contradict non-verbal messages, observation of non-verbal behaviour is relied on to judge another's attitudes and feelings, rather than assuming the truth of the verbal message alone.

There are several reasons as to why non-verbal communication plays a vital role in communication:

“Non-verbal communication is omnipresent.” They are included in every single communication act. To have total communication, all non-verbal channels such as the body, face, voice, appearance, touch, distance, timing, and other environmental forces must be engaged during face-to-face interaction. Written communication can also have non-verbal attributes. E-mails and web chats allow an individual’s the option to change text font colours, stationary, emoticons, and capitalization in order to capture non-verbal cues into a verbal medium.

“Non-verbal behaviours are multifunctional.” Many different non-verbal channels are engaged at the same time in communication acts and allow the chance for simultaneous messages to be sent and received.

“Non-verbal behaviours may form a universal language system.” Smiling, crying, pointing, caressing, and glaring are non-verbal behaviours that are used and understood by people regardless of nationality. Such non-verbal signals allow the most basic form of communication when verbal communication is not effective due to language barriers.

## Verbal

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Verbal communication is the spoken or written conveyance of a message. Human language can be defined as a system of symbols (sometimes known as lexemes) and the grammars (**rules**) by which the symbols are manipulated. The word "language" also refers to common properties of languages. Language learning normally occurs most intensively during human childhood. Most of the thousands of human languages use patterns of sound or gesture for symbols which enable communication with others around them. Languages tend to share certain properties, although there are exceptions. There is no defined line between a language and a dialect. Constructed languages such as Esperanto, programming languages, and various mathematical formalism is not necessarily restricted to the properties shared by human languages.

As previously mentioned, language can be characterized as symbolic. Charles Ogden and I.A Richards developed The Triangle of Meaning model to explain the symbol (the relationship between a word), the referent (the thing it describes), and the meaning (the thought associated with the word and the thing)

The properties of language are governed by rules. Language follows phonological rules (sounds that appear in a language), syntactic rules (arrangement of words and punctuation in a sentence), semantic rules (the agreed upon meaning of words), and pragmatic rules (meaning derived upon context).

The meanings that are attached to words can be literal, or otherwise known as denotative; relating to the topic being discussed, or, the meanings take context and relationships into account, otherwise known as connotative; relating to the feelings, history, and power dynamics of the communicators.

### Written communication and its historical development

Over time the forms of and ideas about communication have evolved through the continuing progression of technology. Advances include communications psychology and media psychology, an emerging field of study.

The progression of written communication can be divided into three "information communication revolutions":

1. Written communication first emerged through the use of pictographs. The pictograms were made in stone, hence written communication was not yet mobile. Pictograms began to develop standardized and simplified forms.
2. The next step occurred when writing began to appear on paper, papyrus, clay, wax, and other media with commonly shared writing systems, leading to adaptable alphabets. Communication became mobile.
3. The final stage is characterized by the transfer of information through controlled waves of electromagnetic radiation (i.e., radio, microwave, infrared) and other electronic signals.

Communication is thus a process by which meaning is assigned and conveyed in an attempt to create shared understanding. Gregory Bateson called it "the replication of tautologies in the universe. This process, which requires a vast repertoire of skills in interpersonal processing, listening, observing, speaking, questioning, analyzing, gestures, and evaluating enables collaboration and cooperation.

### Business

Business communication is used for a wide variety of activities including, but not limited to: strategic communications planning, media relations, public relations (which can include social media, broadcast and written communications, and more), brand management, reputation management, speech-writing, customer-client relations, and internal/employee communications.

Companies with limited resources may choose to engage in only a few of these activities, while larger organizations may employ a full spectrum of

communications. Since it is difficult to develop such a broad range of skills, communications professionals often specialize in one or two of these areas but usually have at least a working knowledge of most of them. By far, the most important qualifications communications professionals can possess are excellent writing ability, good 'people' skills, and the capacity to think critically and strategically.

## Political

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Communication is one of the most relevant tools in political strategies, including persuasion and propaganda. In mass media research and online media research, the effort of the strategist is that of getting a precise decoding, avoiding "message reactance", that is, message refusal. The reaction to a message is referred also in terms of approach to a message, as follows:

- In "radical reading" the audience rejects the meanings, values, and viewpoints built into the text by its makers. Effect: message refusal.
- In "dominant reading", the audience accepts the meanings, values, and viewpoints built into the text by its makers. Effect: message acceptance.
- In "subordinate reading" the audience accepts, by and large, the meanings, values, and worldview built into the text by its makers. Effect: obey to the message.

Holistic approaches are used by communication campaign leaders and communication strategists in order to examine all the options, "actors" and channels that can generate change in the semiotic landscape, that is, change in perceptions, change in credibility, change in the "memetic background", change in the image of movements, of candidates, players and managers as perceived by key influencers that can have a role in generating the desired "end-state".

The modern political communication field is highly influenced by the framework and practices of "information operations" doctrines that derive their nature from strategic and military studies. According to this view, what is really relevant is the concept of acting on the Information Environment. The information environment is the aggregate of individuals, organizations, and systems that collect, process, disseminate, or act on information. This environment consists of three interrelated dimensions, which continuously interact with individuals, organizations, and systems. These dimensions are known as physical, informational, and cognitive.

## Family

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Family communication is the study of the communication perspective in a broadly defined family, with intimacy and trusting relationship. The main goal of family communication is to understand the interactions of family and the pattern of behaviors of family members in different circumstances. Open and honest communication creates an atmosphere that allows family members to express their differences as well as love and admiration for one another. It also helps to understand the feelings of one another.

Family communication study looks at topics such as family rules, family roles or family dialectics and how those factors could affect the communication between family members. Researchers develop theories to understand communication behaviors. Family communication study also digs deep into certain time periods of family life such as marriage, parenthood or divorce and how communication stands in those situations. It is important for family members to understand communication as a trusted way which leads to a well constructed family.

## Interpersonal

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In simple terms, interpersonal communication is the communication between one person and another (or others). It is often referred to as face-to-face communication between two (or more) people. Both verbal and nonverbal communication, or body language, play a part in how one person understands another. In verbal interpersonal communication there are two types of messages being sent: a content message and a relational message. Content messages are messages about the topic at hand and relational messages are messages about the relationship itself. This means that relational messages come across in *how* one says something and it demonstrates a person's feelings, whether positive or negative, towards the individual they are talking to, indicating not only how they feel about the topic at hand, but also how they feel about their relationship with the other individual.

There are many different aspects of interpersonal communication including;

### - Audiovisual Perception of Communication Problems

- The concept follows the idea that our words change what form they take based on the stress level or urgency of the situation.
- It also explores the concept that stuttering during speech shows the audience that there is a problem or that the situation is more stressful.

### - The Attachment Theory

- This is the combined work of John Bowlby and Mary Ainsworth (Ainsworth & Bowlby, 1991)
- This theory follows the relationships that builds between a mother and child, and the impact it has on their relationships with others.

#### - Emotional Intelligence and Triggers

- Emotional Intelligence focuses on the ability to monitor ones own emotions as well as those of others.
- Emotional Triggers focus on events or people that tend to set off intense, emotional reactions within individuals.

#### - Attribution Theory

- This is the study of how individuals explain what causes different events and behaviors.

#### - The Power of Words (Verbal communications)

- Verbal communication focuses heavily on the power of words, and how those words are said.
- It takes into consideration tone, volume, and choice of words.

#### - Nonverbal Communication

- Focuses heavily on the setting that the words are conveyed in.
- As well as the physical tone of the words.

#### - Ethics in Personal Relations

- It is about a space of mutual responsibility between two individuals, it's about giving and receiving in a relationship.
- This theory is explored by Dawn J. Liphrott in the article What IS Relationship? What is Ethical Partnership?

#### - Deception in Communication

- This concept goes into that everyone lies, and how this can impact relationships.
- This theory is explored by James Hearn in his article Interpersonal Deception Theory: Ten Lessons for Negotiators

#### - Conflict in Couples

- This focuses on the impact that social media has on relationships.
- As well as how to communicate through conflict.
- This theory is explored by Amanda Lenhart and Maeve Duggan in their paper Couples, the Internet, and Social Media

## Barriers to effectiveness

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Barriers to effective communication can retard or distort the message or intention of the message being conveyed. This may result in failure of the communication process or cause an effect that is undesirable. These include filtering, selective perception, information overload, emotions, language, silence, communication apprehension, gender differences and political correctness

This also includes a lack of expressing "knowledge-appropriate" communication, which occurs when a person uses ambiguous or complex legal words, medical jargon, or descriptions of a situation or environment that is not understood by the recipient.

- **Physical barriers-** Physical barriers are often due to the nature of the environment. An example of this is the natural barrier which exists if staff is located in different buildings or on different sites. Likewise, poor or outdated equipment, particularly the failure of management to introduce new technology, may also cause problems. Staff shortages are another factor which frequently causes communication difficulties for an organization.
- **System design-** System design faults refer to problems with the structures or systems in place in an organization. Examples might include an organizational structure which is unclear and therefore makes it confusing to know whom to communicate with. Other examples could be inefficient or inappropriate information systems, a lack of supervision or training, and a lack of clarity in roles and responsibilities which can lead to staff being uncertain about what is expected of them.
- **Attitudinal barriers-** Attitudinal barriers come about as a result of problems with staff in an organization. These may be brought about, for example, by such factors as poor management, lack of consultation with employees, personality conflicts which can result in people delaying or refusing to communicate, the personal attitudes of individual employees which may be due to lack of motivation or dissatisfaction at work, brought

about by insufficient training to enable them to carry out particular tasks, or simply resistance to change due to entrenched attitudes and ideas.

- **Ambiguity of words/phrases-** Words sounding the same but having different meaning can convey a different meaning altogether. Hence the communicator must ensure that the receiver receives the same meaning. It is better if such words are avoided by using alternatives whenever possible.
- **Individual linguistic ability-** The use of jargon, difficult or inappropriate words in communication can prevent the recipients from understanding the message. Poorly explained or misunderstood messages can also result in confusion. However, research in communication has shown that confusion can lend legitimacy to research when persuasion fails.
- **Physiological barriers-** These may result from individuals' personal discomfort, caused—for example—by ill health, poor eyesight or hearing difficulties.
- **Bypassing-**These happens when the communicators (sender and the receiver) do not attach the same symbolic meanings to their words. It is when the sender is expressing a thought or a word but the receiver takes it in a different meaning. For example- ASAP, Rest room
- **Technological multi-tasking and absorbency-** With a rapid increase in technologically-driven communication in the past several decades, individuals are increasingly faced with condensed communication in the form of e-mail, text, and social updates. This has, in turn, led to a notable change in the way younger generations communicate and perceive their own self-efficacy to communicate and connect with others. With the ever-constant presence of another "world" in one's pocket, individuals are multi-tasking both physically and cognitively as constant reminders of something else happening somewhere else bombard them. Though perhaps too new of an advancement to yet see long-term effects, this is a notion currently explored by such figures as Sherry Turkle.
- **Fear of being criticized-**This is a major factor that prevents good communication. If we exercise simple practices to improve our communication skill, we can become effective communicators. For example, read an article from the newspaper or collect some news from the television and present it in front of the mirror. This will not only boost your confidence but also improve your language and vocabulary.
- **Gender barriers-** Most communicators whether aware or not, often have a set agenda. This is very notable among the different genders. For example, many women are found to be more critical in addressing conflict. It's also

been noted that men are more than likely to withdraw from conflict when in comparison to women. This breakdown and comparison not only shows that there are many factors to communication between two specific genders but also room for improvement as well as established guidelines for all.

### **Unit III Mass Communication and Effects Paradigm** Direct Effects; Mass Society Theory,

Mass society theory is a complex, multifaceted perspective. As applied to social movements, however, the basic idea is that people who are socially isolated are especially vulnerable to the appeals of extremist movements. The theory resonated with fears of fascist and communist movements in the 1930s and 1940s and reached its apogee in the late 1950s.

Mass society theory is a complex, multifaceted perspective. As applied to social movements, however, the basic idea is that people who are socially isolated are especially vulnerable to the appeals of extremist movements. The theory resonated with fears of fascist and communist movements in the 1930s and 1940s and reached its apogee in the late 1950s.

Ideologically, the concept of mass society has been used by conservative thinkers to express dismay about the leveling tendencies of industrial society and the declining influence of family and community (Swingewood 1977). It has also been used by radical thinkers to bemoan the manner in which large bureaucratic institutions (especially in the guise of mass culture) can pacify populations and reinforce the status quo (Marcuse 1964).

An important sociological predecessor is Emile Durkheim's analysis of modern society and the rise of individualism. With increasing size and complexity, social integration became problematic in two ways. Anomie involves insufficient regulation of behavior while egoism involves excessive individuation of people. Both signify weakened social integration and loosened social controls that contribute to dysfunctional outcomes, including suicide (Durkheim 1897). The same logic applies to many types of unconventional behavior.

The mass was one type of collective behavior subsequently identified by the Chicago School of Sociology (Blumer 1951). Alongside crowds, publics, and social movements, masses are distinguished by their large size, anonymous

nature, loose organization, and infrequent interaction. As such, the concept of a mass connotes a group ripe for manipulation and control.

C. Wright Mills 1956 recognized these dangers in his analysis of the power elite. It gained power in part because of the transformation of publics enjoying democratic dialogue and political influence into masses with neither. With the transformation of publics into masses, “[a]t the end of the road there is totalitarianism, as in Nazi Germany or in Communist Russia” (Mills 1956: 304).

It was in this context that William Kornhauser—trained in Chicago School sociology—wrote *The Politics of Mass Society* (1959). It remains one of the most explicit statements of the alleged links between mass society and social movements. Written in the shadow of aforementioned totalitarian tendencies, mass society theory sought to explain the rise of extremism abroad and the dangers to democracy at home. Recalling Durkheim's analysis of egoism and anomie, mass society emerges when small local groups and networks decline, leaving powerful elites and massive bureaucracies on one side and isolated individuals on the other. As Kornhauser wrote: “Mass society is objectively the *atomized* society, and subjectively the *alienated* population. Therefore, mass society is a system in which there is *high availability of a population for mobilization by elites*...[p]eople who are atomized readily become mobilized” (Kornhauser 1959: 33, emphasis in original). Put slightly differently, mass society is one where “*both elites and non-elites lack social insulation; that is, when elites are accessible to direct intervention by non-elites, and when non-elites are available for direct mobilization by elites*” (Kornhauser 1959: 43, emphasis in original).

In a healthy pluralist democracy, both elites and non-elites are partially insulated, intermediate groups are strong, and normal channels of influence are robust. In mass society, both groups lose this insulation, intermediate social buffers erode, normal channels are ineffective or bypassed, and extremism becomes more likely.

Mass movements pursue remote, extreme objectives and mobilize uprooted, atomized people (Kornhauser 1959: 47). Thus, “[m]ass movements mobilize people who are alienated from the going system, who do not believe in the legitimacy of the established order, and who therefore are ready to engage in

efforts to destroy it. The greatest number of people available to mass movements will be found in those sections of society that have the fewest ties to the social order...”

This description of mass movements reflects the collective behavior depiction of mass behavior with a remote focus of attention, a declining sense of reality and responsibility, and a highly unstable, shifting focus of attention and intensity of response (Kornhauser 1959: 43–46). This depiction thus links the politics of collective behavior with unreasoning and extremist threats to social order.

Subsequent analysis and research have led many to conclude that the idea that the most socially isolated are most likely to engage in mass politics “is almost certainly false” (Rule 1988: 109). Those who are socially isolated are actually less likely to join while those who are embedded in preexisting social ties are disproportionately likely to do so (Oberschall 1973). Chicago School sociologists Turner and Killian (1987: 390) themselves note that “[s]ubsequent study of totalitarian movements has raised serious questions about the applicability of Kornhauser’s concept of mass movement.”

Other researchers concur that “[v]irtually all of the major claims of the theory have been controverted by an overwhelming body of evidence” (Hamilton 2001: 12). Despite its largely discredited status among academics, literary and journalistic proponents of this perspective enjoy a much wider and perhaps more credulous audience. As a result, “mass society theory proves well-nigh indestructible” (Hamilton 2001: 12) despite its logical flaws and empirical shortcomings.

Propaganda,

**Propaganda** is information that is not objective and is used primarily to influence an audience and further an agenda, often by presenting facts selectively to encourage a particular synthesis or perception, or using loaded language to produce an emotional rather than a rational response to the information that is presented. Propaganda is often associated with material prepared by governments, but activist groups, companies and the media can also produce propaganda.

In the twentieth century, the term propaganda has been associated with a manipulative approach, but propaganda historically was a neutral descriptive term. A wide range of materials and media are used for conveying propaganda messages, which changed as new technologies were invented, including paintings, cartoons, posters, pamphlets, films, radio shows, TV shows, and websites.

In a 1929 literary debate with Edward Bernays, Everett Dean Martin argues that, "Propaganda is making puppets of us. We are moved by hidden strings which the propagandist manipulates."

Limited Effects;

Mass Media is a primary dispenser of Propaganda and has an important role in influencing the public opinion. However, media researchers have varied and contrasting opinions on the extent and type of such influence and whether mass media has the power to sway public discourse.

This paper aims to analyse the Limited effects theory, proposed by Paul Lazarsfeld, which states that media effect on people's deep set opinions and thoughts is limited or even minimal.

Paul Lazarsfeld research findings were methodological in nature, based on statistical survey analysis and empirical media measurement. He conducted a survey on thousand voters, before the US Presidential elections of 1940. He classified around 3000 voters, basis their voting patterns into early deciders, wavers, converts and crystallizers.

Lazarsfeld noted that wavers and converts were comparatively more influenced by interpersonal communication than by mass media. These people followed influencers and their opinions rather than what was broadcast by mass media. Lazarsfeld hence, classified voters into the following categories

Opinion Followers

Gatekeepers

Media

## Opinion Leaders

This model stipulates that the mass media content is first filtered by gatekeepers, whose personal bias affects the interpretation. Thereafter, it reaches opinion leaders i.e people who are active media users. The filtered version is then diffused to the less active media consumers. Lazarsfeld's theory can be termed as a classist theory as it assumes that media influence is subject to interpretation by the elite and the educated. It also implies that interpersonal communication has a greater role to play in shaping opinions than mass media. Another insight it provides is on the prominent role of influencers and gatekeepers in mass media.

During the 2015 Bihar Assembly elections, political strategist Prashant kishore employed the old fashioned door to door campaigning as a part of JDU's outreach initiative. "Har Ghar Dastak" helped the party to connect with grassroots and build local support. Volunteers were roped in to campaign for the party on cycles and cover remote areas.

In a way, limited effects theory questioned the paradigm of direct media influence, a notion that prevailed till late 1930's. Mc Quail recognises four stages of research in media effects. The first stage, dominated by the experience of propaganda during World War one, recognised media's role as decisive, opinion shaping and with the capability to change attitude and lifestyle. This gave emergence to the "Hypodermic needle" model. The second stage, which extends from 1940s to late 1960s, questioned the paradigm of direct media and was called the theory of "Limited Effects". This theory established that an individual is selective in terms of his exposure, retention and perception. The theory concluded that rather than influencing opinions, media merely "reinforced" existing opinions.

## Individual Difference Theory,

Individual differences is a cornerstone subject area in modern psychology. In many ways, it is the "classic" psychology that the general public refers to - it refers the psychology of the person - the psychological differences between people and their similarities.

Plato stated more than 2000 years ago:

◆ No two persons are born exactly alike; but each differs from the other in natural endowments, one being suited for one occupation and the other for another.

Individual difference psychology examines how people are similar and how they differ in their thinking, feeling and behaviour. No two people are alike, yet no two people are unlike. So, in the study of individual differences we strive to understand ways in which people are psychologically similar and particularly what psychological characteristics vary between people.

In the Western psychology approach to individual differences, it is generally assumed that:

- People vary on a range of psychological attributes
- It is possible to measure and study these individual differences
- individual differences are useful for explaining and predicting behaviour and performance

We can classify people psychologically, according to their intelligence and personality characteristics, for example, with moderate success, however people are complex and much is still left unexplained. There are multiple and often conflicting theories and evidence about individual difference psychology.

Human beings have been aware of individual differences throughout history, e.g.

- Gender differences -hunters=men, gatherers=women
- Intelligence differences - caste, class, education, etc.
- Personality differences - job specialisations

### **Early study of individual differences**

We have come a long way since Franz Gall invented phrenology in the early 1800s. Phrenology is the study of an individual's bumps on the skull, which supposedly reveal character traits and mental abilities.

Phrenology had such vogue that by 1832 there were 29 phrenological societies in Britain and many journals in both the UK and US devoted to the study of phrenology. It was seriously proposed to select Members of Parliament from their "bumps". Some phrenologists even moulded children's heads to accentuate good qualities and minimise bad ones!

Despite the theory being incorrect one of its assumptions holds true: the idea that various brain regions have particular functions.

Darwin suggested that nature selects successful traits through the ♦survival of the fittest♦. His cousin, Sir Francis Galton(1822-1911) concluded that he could apply the principle scientifically. Why not measure human traits and then selectively breed superior people? He assumed human traits, everything from height and beauty to intelligence and ability, to personality traits such as even-temperedness, were inherited.

Modern psychology has formalised the study of individual differences over the last 100 years. Individual differences psychology is still a young science and a relatively recent development in modern psychology. There are still many debates and issues. Current knowledge will change and evolve. So, have an open-minded, but critical perspective as we go along!

Since there are multiple and controversial viewpoints, it is necessary to move beyond reliance on personally preferred viewpoints to also embrace alternative

perspectives, particularly those which are utilized in psychological practice and which have solid research support.

### Personal Influence Theory

**Two-step flow model of communication**, theory of communication that proposes that interpersonal interaction has a far stronger effect on shaping public opinion than mass media outlets.

The two-step flow model was formulated in 1948 by Paul Lazarsfeld, Bernard Berelson, and Hazel Gaudet in the book *The People's Choice*, after research into voters' decision-making processes during the 1940 U.S. presidential election. It stipulates that mass media content first reaches "opinion leaders," people who are active media users and who collect, interpret, and diffuse the meaning of media messages to less-active media consumers. According to the authors, opinion leaders pick up information from the media, and this information then gets passed on to less-active members of the public. This implies that most people receive information from opinion leaders through interpersonal communication rather than directly from mass media. Lazarsfeld, Berelson, and Gaudet discovered that most voters in the 1940 election got their information about the candidates from other people who read about the campaign in the newspapers, not directly from the media. Lazarsfeld, Berelson, and Gaudet concluded that word-of-mouth transmission of information plays an important role in the communication process and that mass media have only a limited influence on most individuals.

The theory of the two-step flow of communication reversed the dominant paradigm in mass communication at the time. Before Lazarsfeld's study, it was assumed that mass media have a direct influence on a mass audience who consume and absorb media messages. Media were thought to

significantly influence people's decisions and behaviours. However, the research done by Lazarsfeld and others showed that only about 5 percent of people changed their voting preference as a result of media consumption and that interpersonal discussions of political issues were more prevalent than consumption of political news within one typical day. Factors such as interpersonal communication with family members, friends, and members of one's social and professional circles turned out to be better predictors of a person's voting behaviour than that person's media exposure. These findings came to be known as the "limited effects paradigm" of media influence, explicated more fully by Joseph Klapper in *The Effects of Mass Communication* (1960), which guided mass communication researchers over the next five decades.

The theory of the two-step flow of mass communication was further developed by Lazarsfeld together with Elihu Katz in the book *Personal Influence* (1955). The book explains that people's reactions to media messages are mediated by interpersonal communication with members of their social environment. A person's membership in different social groups (family, friends, professional and religious associations, etc.) has more influence on that person's decision-making processes and behaviour than does information from mass media. Researchers of mass communication cannot therefore treat the public as a homogenous mass audience that actively processes and responds to media messages uniformly, as had been postulated by initial theories of mass communication, which assumed that audiences respond to media messages directly.

Since its formulation, the theory of the two-step flow of communication has been tested, and validated, on numerous occasions through replicative studies that looked at how innovations were diffused into society through opinion leaders and

trendsetters. However, the theory came under some criticism in the 1970s and the 1980s. Some researchers argued that the process of a two-step flow is an oversimplification and that the actual flow of information from mass media to media consumers has more than two steps. For instance, additional research revealed that conversations based on media content are more frequent among opinion leaders themselves rather than among opinion leaders and less-informed individuals. This creates the extra step of opinion sharing among equally informed individuals, compared with only a vertical flow of information from opinion leaders to followers. Another criticism is the fact that the two-step flow model was formulated during a time when television and the Internet did not exist. Both original studies relied on people's responses to newspapers and radio broadcasts and concluded that interpersonal communication is more frequent than media consumption during an average day. Later studies of everyday behaviour in the era of television dominance seem to indicate the opposite. It was also found that only a small percentage of people discuss information they have learned from mass media with their peers. National surveys regarding people's main sources of information also indicate that people rely much more on mass media than on personal communication.

#### **Unit IV Cultural Effects and the Emergence of an Alternative Paradigm** Cultural Effects: Agenda Setting,

**Agenda-setting theory** describes the "ability [of the news media] to influence the importance placed on the topics of the public agenda". With agenda setting being a social science theory, it also attempts to make predictions. That is, if a news item is covered frequently and prominently, the audience will regard the issue as more important. Agenda-setting theory was formally developed by Max McCombs and Donald Shaw in a study on the 1968 American presidential election. In the 1968 "Chapel Hill study", McCombs and Shaw demonstrated a strong correlation coefficient ( $r > .9$ ) between what 100 residents of Chapel Hill, North Carolina thought was the most important election issue and what the local and national news media reported was the most important issue. By comparing

the salience of issues in news content with the public's perceptions of the most important election issue, McCombs and Shaw were able to determine the degree to which the media determines public opinion. Since the 1968 study, published in a 1972 edition of *Public Opinion Quarterly*, more than 400 studies have been published on the agenda-setting function of the mass media, and the theory continues to be regarded as relevant. Studies have shown that what the media decides to expose in certain countries correlates with their views on things such as politics, economy and culture. Countries that tend to have more political power are more likely to receive media exposure. Financial resources, technologies, foreign trade and money spent on the military can be some of the main factors that explain coverage inequality.

### **Role of policymakers in agenda-setting process**

Some groups have a greater ease of access than others and are thus more likely to get their demands placed on agenda than others. For instance, policymakers have been found to be more influential than the overall group of news sources because they often better understand journalists' needs for reliable and predictable information and their definition of newsworthiness. Cobb and Elder ascribed even more importance to decision makers, claiming that in order for an issue to attain agenda status, it must be supported by at least some of key decision makers as they act as guardians of the formal agenda. They also asserted that certain personages in the media can act as opinion leaders and bring media coverage to a particular issue. Government-affiliated news sources have higher success rates in becoming media agenda and have been found by a number of scholars to be the most frequently appearing of sources at the local, state, and national levels.

News sources can also provide definitions of issues, thus determining the terms of future discussion and framing problems in particular ways. What interpretation of "reality" will dominate public discourse has implications for the future of the social problem, for the interest groups and policymakers involved, and for the policy itself. For example, Gusfield argues that the highway deaths associated with alcohol consumption can be interpreted as a problem of irresponsible drunken drivers, insufficient automobile crashworthiness, a transportation system overly dependent on cars, poor highway design, excessive emphasis on drinking in adult social life. Different ways of framing the situation may compete to be accepted as an authoritative version of reality, consequently spurring competition between sources of information for definition of an issue. Very powerful resources of information can even influence whether an issue receives media attention at all.

The relationship of media and policymakers is symbiotic and is controlled by shared culture of unofficial set of ground rules as journalists need access to official information and policymakers need media coverage; nevertheless the needs of journalists and policymakers are often incompatible because of their different orientation in time as powerful sources are at their best in routine situations and react more slowly when crisis or disaster occur. Consequently, policymakers who understand the rules of this culture the best will be most capable of setting their agendas and issue definitions.<sup>[17]</sup> On the other hand, media also influence policymakers when government officials and politicians take the amount of media attention given to an issue as an indirect expression of public interest in the issue.

### **Role of public in agenda-building process**

The agenda-building perspective ascribes importance not only to mass media and policymakers, but also to social process, to mutually interdependent relation between the concerns generated in social environment and the vitality of governmental process. Thus according to Cobb and Elder, the agenda-building framework makes allowances for continuing mass involvement and broaden the range of recognized influences on the public policy-making process. Although the public does have a place on the list of possibly influencing the media agenda, they are not thought to powerfully shape media agendas. It seems the more correct to argue the possibility that when journalists look to their own interests for story ideas, they are actually trying to predict their audience's needs.

This idea of mass involvement has become more prominent with the advent of the Internet and its potential to make everyone a pamphleteer. Increase in the role of citizens in agenda setting sheds light on a new direction in the traditional agenda-building research. This is now the case because the general public can now create their own media. Social media has changed the way people view and perceive things in today's world. Mass involvement within social media lets the general public's voices be heard. Comments and reply's give potential for people to address your thoughts or open new doors for conversation.

Kim and Lee noted that the agenda-setting research on the Internet differs from traditional agenda-setting research with respect that the Internet is in competition with traditional media and has enormous capacity for contents' and users' interactivity. Lee, Lancendorfer and Lee argued that "various opinions about public issues are posted on the Internet bulletin boards or the Usenet newsgroup

by Netizens, and the opinions then form an agenda in which other Netizens can perceive the salient issue". Scholars also stated that the Internet plays role in forming Internet user's opinion as well as the public space.

Kim and Lee studied the pattern of the Internet mediated agenda-setting by conducting a case study of 10 cases that have a great ripple effect in Korea for 5 years (from 2000 until 2005). Scholars found that a person's opinion could be disseminated through various online channels and could synthesize public opinion that influences news coverage. Their study suggests 'reversed agenda effects', meaning that public agenda could set media agenda. Maxwell McCombs also mentioned "reverse agenda-setting" in his recent textbook as a situation where public concern sets the media agenda.

According to Kim and Lee, agenda-building through the Internet take the following three steps:

- 1) Internet-mediated agenda-rippling: an anonymous netizen's opinion spreads to the important agenda in the Internet through online main rippling channels such as blogs, personal homepages, and the Internet bulletin boards.
- 2) agenda diffusion in the Internet: online news or web-sites report the important agenda in the Internet that in turn leads to spreading the agenda to more online publics.
- 3) Internet-mediated reversed agenda-setting: traditional media report online agenda to the public so that the agenda spread to both offline and online publics. However, scholars concluded that the Internet-mediated agenda-setting or agenda-building processes not always occur in consecutive order. For example, the agenda that was reported by traditional media can come to the fore again through the online discussion or the three steps can occur simultaneously in a short period of time.

Several studies provide evidence that the Internet-community, particularly bloggers, can push their own agenda into public agenda, then media agenda, and, eventually, into policy agenda. In the most comprehensive study to date, Wallsten tracked mainstream media coverage and blog discussion of 35 issues during the 2004 presidential campaign. Using time-series analysis, Wallsten found evidence that journalists discuss the issues that bloggers are blogging about. There are also anecdotal pieces of evidence suggesting bloggers exert an influence on the political agenda. For instance, in 2005 Eason Jordan, the chief news executive at CNN, abruptly resigned after being besieged by the online community after saying, according to various witnesses, that he believed the

United States military had aimed at journalists in Iraq and killed 12 of them. Similarly, in 2002, Trent Lott had to resign as Senate majority leader due to his inappropriate racist remarks that were widely discussed in the blogosphere. However bloggers attract attention not only to oust journalists and politicians. An online investigation on technical problems with electronic voting machines started by an activist Bev Harris in 2003 eventually forced traditional media outlets to address issue of electronic voting malperformance. This in turn made Diebold, a company that produces these machines, to acknowledge its fault and take measures to fix it. Many studies have been performed to test the agenda setting theory within global news coverage. One of the findings determined that foreign news that had any mentions of the United States or the UK, greatly influenced public opinion compared to global news that didn't involve either country.

Spiral of Silence,

The **spiral of silence theory** is a political science and mass communication theory proposed by the German political scientist Elisabeth Noelle-Neumann, which stipulates that individuals have a fear of isolation, which results from the idea that a social group or the society in general might isolate, neglect, or exclude members due to the members' opinions. This fear of isolation consequently leads to remaining silent instead of voicing opinions. Media is an important factor that relates to both the dominant idea and people's perception of the dominant idea. The assessment of one's social environment may not always correlate with reality.

According to Shelly Neill, "Introduced in 1974, the Spiral of Silence Theory explores hypotheses to determine why some groups remain silent while others are more vocal in forums of public disclosure The spiral of silence theory suggests that "people who have believed that they hold a minority viewpoint on a public issue will remain in the background where their communication will be restrained; those who believe that they hold a majority viewpoint will be more encouraged to speak."

The theory explains the formation of social norms at both the micro and macro level. "As a micro-theory, the spiral of silence examines opinion expression, controlling for people's predispositions – such as fear of isolation, and also demographic variables that have been shown to influence people's willingness to publicly express opinions on issues, such as agricultural biotechnology." The spiral of silence occurs on a macro level if more and more members of the

perceived minority fall silent. This is when public perceptions of the opinion climate begin to shift. "In other words, a person's individual reluctance to express his or her opinion, simply based on perceptions of what everyone else thinks, has important implications at the social level. As one opinion gains the interest of the majority, the minority faces threat and fear of isolation from society. As the opinion gains momentum by the majority, the minority continues to be threatened and falls deeper into their silence. It continues until the minority no longer speaks out against it, and the opinion of the perceived majority ultimately becomes a social norm.

### **Spiral model**

The spiral model is an analogy used to visually describe the theory. The end of the spiral refers to the number of people who are not publicly expressing their opinions, due to the fear of isolation. An individual is more likely to go down the spiral if his or her opinion does not conform with the perceived majority opinion. The following steps summarize how the process works:

1. We can distinguish between fields where the opinions and attitudes involved are static, and fields where those opinions and attitudes are subject to changes... Where opinions are relatively definite and static – for example, "customs" – one has to express or act according to this opinion in public or run the risk of becoming isolated. In contrast, where opinions are in flux, or disputed, the individual will try to find out which opinion he can express without becoming isolated.
2. Individuals who, when observing their environments, notice that their own personal opinion is spreading and is taken over by others, will voice this opinion self-confidently in public. On the other hand, individuals who notice that their own opinions are losing ground will be inclined to adopt a more reserved attitude when expressing their opinions in public.
3. It follows from this that, as the representatives of the first opinion talk quite a lot while the representatives of the second opinion remain silent, there is a definite influence on the environment: an opinion that is being reinforced in this way appears stronger than it really is, while an opinion suppressed as described will seem to be weaker than it is in reality.
4. The result is a spiral process which prompts other individuals to perceive the changes in opinion and follow suit, until one opinion has become established as the prevailing attitude while the other opinion will be

pushed back and rejected by everybody with the exception of the hard core that nevertheless sticks to that opinion.

This is a process of formation, change and reinforcement of public opinion. The tendency of the one to speak up and the other to be silent starts off a spiraling process which increasingly establishes one opinion as the dominant one. Over time, these changing perceptions establish one opinion as predominant one and they change from the liquid state to a solid norm.

Further, Noelle-Neumann describes the spiral of silence as a dynamic process, in which predictions about public opinion become fact as mass media's coverage of the majority opinion becomes the status quo, and the minority becomes less likely to speak out.

Cultivation Analysis,

**Cultivation theory** examines the long-term effects of television. "The primary proposition of cultivation theory states that the more time people spend 'living' in the television world, the more likely they are to believe social reality aligns with reality portrayed on television. The images and ideological messages transmitted through popular television media heavily influence perceptions of the real world.

Cultivation theory is positivistic, meaning it assumes the existence of objective reality and value-neutral research. A study conducted by Jennings Bryant and Dorina Miron in 2004, which surveyed almost 2,000 articles published in three top mass-communication journals since 1956, found that Cultivation Theory was the third-most frequently utilized theory, showing that it continues to be one of the most popular theories in mass-communication research.

Cultivation theory suggests that exposure to television, over time, subtly "cultivates" viewers' perceptions of reality. Gerbner and Gross assert: "Television is a medium of the socialization of most people into standardized roles and behaviors. Its function is in a word, enculturation". Within his analysis of cultivation, Gerbner draws attention to three entities—institutions, messages, and publics.

Initial research on the theory establishes that concern regarding the effects of television on audiences stem from the unprecedented centrality of television in American culture. Gerbner posited that television as a mass medium of communication had formed into a common symbolic environment that bound diverse communities together, socializing people into standardized roles and

behaviors. He thus compared the power of television to that of religion, stating television was to modern society what religion once was in earlier times. Thus, Gerbner's research focused on the larger meaning of heavy television consumption instead of the meaning behind specific messages.

### Critique of the effects Paradigm and emergence of alternative paradigm

When the United States became a superpower after World War II, American social scientists were called upon to study the problems of "Third World" development. This started the modernization school, which dominated the field of development in the 1950s and Rogers rightly called "dominant paradigm" of development as it exercised a dominant influence in the field of development. This model emphasizes productivity, economic growth, industrialization, urbanization, centralized planning and endogenous factors of development, and development was measured by gross national product (GNP). Daniel Lerner and Wilbur Schramm are among the influential advocates who made significant contributions in identifying the role of communication for technological development. Heavily influenced by the evolutionary theory, American social scientists conceptualized modernization as a phased, irreversible, progressive, lengthy process that moves in the direction of the American model. Strongly influenced by Parson's functionalist theory, they looked upon modernity as incompatible with tradition. Subsequently the American social scientists proposed that Third World countries should copy American values, rely on US loans and aid, and transform their traditional institutions.

However, the failure of modernization programs in Latin America in the 1960s led to the emergence of a neo-Marxist dependency school which led its researchers modified their basic assumptions. These recent modifications of the modernization school have started a new direction of research referred as the "new modernization studies" or "dependency school". This dependency school was highly critical of modernization school, frequently attacking it as a rationalization of imperialism. The dependency school conceptualized the linkages with Western and Third World countries as a set of externally imposed, exploitative, dependent, economic relationship incompatible with development. Thus this school advocated that Third World countries should sever their linkages with western countries in order to promote an autonomous, independent path of development. This is because that the latest theme of modernization school is that tradition can play a beneficial role in development and Third World countries can pursue their own paths of development. However, when the dependency school came under attack in the early 1970s, its researchers modified their basic assumptions as follows: "dependency is not just an economic but also a sociopolitical process; dependency is not just an external relationship but also a historically specific internal relationship; and development can occur side by side

with dependency.” Thus a new direction of dependency started as the “new dependency studies”.

Although the dependency school was unable to destroy the modernization school, the modernization school was unable to exclude competing views as illegitimate. The coexistence of contrasting perspectives in the field of development made the 1970s a time of intellectual fertility. By the mid 1970s, the ideological battle between the modernization school and the dependency school began to subside. The debate on Third World development became less ideological and emotional. A group of radical researchers led by Immanuel Wallerstein found that there were many new activities in the capitalist world-economy that could not be explained within the confines of the dependency perspective. The world-system perspective, thus emerged, and offered a new orientation to the interpretation of major events in the 1970s, such as East Asian industrialization, the crisis of the socialist states, and the decline of the capitalist world-economy. Influenced first by the dependency school and then by the French Annales school, world-system researchers emphasized the need to examine the totality. The unit of analysis thus should be the world-economy, a historical system composed of three strata: “the core, the semiperiphery, and the periphery”. The world-system school contended that by the late twentieth century, the capitalist world economy would reach a transitional stage at which real choices might be made to change the path of human history.

The main realization that development was not going well in developing countries for those who have followed the dominant paradigm closely has made people think that there were alternative pathways to development. In the late 1960s and 1970s, several world events combined with intellectual critiques began to crack the credibility of the dominant paradigm and the reigning paradigms of modernization and development no longer inspire the confidence which they did three decades back. Critical assessment of results and fresh endogenous reflection, have led to serious doubts and questions, which in their turn have thrown up insights and have led towards the emergence of an alternative paradigm as we have in the following:

Economic growth can no longer be defined merely as raising the GNP and per capita income. Both are necessary, but without a purposive orientation they can defeat the objectives of development. A major share of benefits of growth is invariably cornered by the thin upper crust of society, leaving the masses where they were or worse off. The development paths so far followed by most Third World countries have proved blind alleys. The focus has to be on people and society. It implies more equitable distribution of goods and services.

The development endeavours of the last three decades have been largely emulative and, therefore, in many instances misdirected. A small elite often with western orientation has taken major decisions in respect of the present and the future; people themselves having little say in them. Many Third World countries are under authoritarian and repressive regimes, some have only a façade of

democracy; where democracy still survives in the political sense, the choice of the people is restricted to one or the other elite-led political party whose orientations differ only in minor detail. To ensure endogenous growth a new institutional framework, assigning more decisive roles to the people and their associations, is necessary.

The development process, almost globally, has shown a lack of sensitivity to the environment. This has had lethal effects. History bears testimony to the fact that some civilizations have died because of their reckless exploitation of the environment. An important element that is missing from most planning development is sustainability. Most development countries are consciously or unconsciously trying to copy the West without any awareness of their resources and limits.

While relative self-reliance is the ideal, global interdependence cannot be ignored. The developed countries have depended, and still depend, on the developing countries for many important resources that have made their development possible and contribute to its continuation. This interdependence is not restricted only to raw and semi-processed materials; the West has drawn heavily also on the brain power and trained competence of the Third World.

Rogers also identified four world events which many took as reason to accept an alternative to the dominant paradigm of development.

Those with sympathy for ecological issues were disgusted with the environmental pollution in the developed nations. This led to the question whether they were, after all, such ideal models for development.

Pollution problems and overpopulation problems on available resources helped create doubts whether unending growth was possible or desirable, whether high technology was the most appropriate engine for development. There was a growing loss of faith in the “trickle-down” theory of distributive development benefits. People were getting “development weary” from the slow rate of economic development.

The world oil crisis demonstrated that developing could make their own rules in the international game and produced some suddenly rich developing nations.

This was a lesson to other developing countries of Latin America, Asia and Africa – that the causes of underdevelopment were not mainly internal.

The sudden opening of international relations with China allowed the rest of the world to learn details of her pathways to development. China had created “miracle of modernization” in two decades without any foreign assistance.

Thus development programmes based on the Dominant Paradigm were not achieving the anticipated results, leading to revisions. However, each of the three revisions discussed above focused on a single dimension of the development – the causes of underdevelopment. They did not address the question of how an effective development programme could be implemented. The dominant paradigm in the 1950s and the new paradigm in 1970s were the only two

paradigms which emphasized the problem of implementation as well as analyzing the causes of underdevelopment. From all these events grew the realization that there were many alternative pathways to development while their exact combination would be somewhat different in every nation. Every nation may pursue somewhat different pathways to development depending on exactly what style of development was desired. Thus another new paradigm of development emerged as a reaction of all development models in the past and it tries to assimilate the various emphases of all the other models. Development theorists labeled it as the “new paradigm of development” or “alternative paradigm” because for the first time, development theorist and practitioners have incorporated many dimensions in the development model which were never emphasized before.

Concept of Development: Development of what and for whom?

Alternative development suggests a course of development that is need-oriented, endogenous, self-reliant, ecologically sound and based on structural transformation. It is aimed at meeting human needs, endogenously defined and with primary focus on those who have been deprived and exploited. It recognizes the importance of equality, freedom of expression, conviviality and creativity. Each society is left free to operate according to its values and cultures and articulate its own vision of the future. No universal model is to be imposed; each society can build its own. For development a society has to rely essentially on its inherent strength, although collective self-reliance is not ruled out. Rational utilization of the biosphere is built into the model: outer limits have to be respected and local ecosystems handled sensitivity. From the little community to the global human community structural transformations will be needed to evolve participative decision-making mechanisms. Capacity for self-governance will have to be strengthened. Thus the concept of development that answers the questions of development for what, development by whom, development for whom, and development how contains the following five elements:

Need-Oriented: that is, geared to human needs, both material and non-material, starting with the needs of the majority of the world’s inhabitants, the dominated and the exploited. Ensuring the humanization of all human beings by the satisfaction of their needs for expression, creativity, equality and conviviality, and to understand and master their own destiny.

Endogenous: that is, stemming from the heart of each society, which defines in sovereignty its values and its vision of the future.

Self-reliant: that is, implying that each society relies primarily on its own strength and resources in terms of its members’ energies and its natural and cultural environment.

Ecologically sound: that is, utilizing rationally the resources of the biosphere in full awareness of the potential of local ecosystems as well as global and local outer limits imposed on present and future generations.

Based on structural transformation: they are required, more often than not, in social relations, in economic activities and in their spatial distribution, as well as in the power structure, so as to realize the conditions of self-management and participation in decision making by all those affected by it.

### Approaches of Development: Theories

Rogers initially identified with the Dominant Paradigm approach and laid out clearly its central concerns and preoccupations. He argued that there is a shift in the focus of development in the new and alternative paradigm. The result of this paradigm is an alternative concept of communication in development. Some of the theories under way in newer conceptions of development communications are: self-development, self-reliance, the communication effects gap, the new communication technology, and understanding the participatory approach of the new paradigm.

Self-development: This approach suggests concern for involvement of individuals in their economic and social life. Rogers identified self-development in this context as some type of small group at the local level that takes the primary responsibility

- (i) for deciding what type of development is most needed in their village or neighbourhood;
- (ii) (ii) for planning how to achieve this development goal;
- (iii) (iii) for obtaining whatever government or nongovernment resources may be necessary; and
- (iv) (iv) for carrying out their own development activities.

This was different from the earlier top-down approach to development which defined development in terms of what government does to and for the people.]

Self-reliance: Self reliance is independence in development with an emphasis on the potential of the local resources. Rogers argued that self reliance suggested rejection of external models of development leading to a viewpoint that every nation and perhaps each village may develop in its own way. Dissanayke pointed out self-reliance in this model is seen as a way of eliminating or minimizing the exogenous political pressures and trade patterns that are associated with exploitation of developing countries by the developed countries.

Communication effects gap: The communication effects gap concept has suggested that there is not only a gap in the socio-economic benefits of development but there is a knowledge and information gap between the “have” and the “have nots”. This could seriously affect the direction of development.

New Communication technology and development: The potential of new communication technology such as satellites, broadcasting, cable television and computers for facilitating the process of development in Third World countries is limited. But what is new about the technology is not the technology per se as the social technology of how the new communication devices are organized and used, and how the audience is organized to receive and discuss the messages. In this paradigm Rogers has changed his stance with regard to the diffusion model. Rogers argued that for development both diffusion of technological and social innovations were necessary. He advocated that it was communication that was more important in innovation the innovation itself. Secondly, the acceptance or rejection of communication not only depended on what was being communicated but on how it was being communicated.

Participatory Communication Model: Participatory communication is a product of the criticism of vertical or top-down communication system. Essential to all development programmes is the development of human beings and the assumption that planning and implementation of development programmes should be carried out with the people and not for them. Therefore there is a need to see participatory communication both as “means” and as an “end”. Ryan and Kaplun pointed out that such a perspective of communication could be a means towards a new model of development based on man’s complete freedom from all forms of marginality and exploitation. Paulo Freire was a vigorous exponent of this participatory model for liberation. As a result of their critique of western education systems in Central and Latin America, Freire and Illich proposed education and communication system based on participative and receiver-oriented.

### The Role of Media in Participatory Communication

Development communication is regarded as a key to people’s participation in the development process. People must be regarded as the subjects as well as the motive force of development. It is so easy to get away with the fancy world of new technologies- or colorful traditional media. We have to pause for a moment to realize that communication is not about the production of information material, but lies in its ability to reach people with useful information conveyed via a humane perspective, exchange of views, expressions of concern about basic need issues and communicating sustainable solutions. Above all, the objective of development planners and communication specialists is to mobilize people for action and empower people to resolve their own problems. We should therefore identify our service as participatory communication, in recognition of the people we serve as being equal partners. The main objective here is to empower people to speak for themselves and to narrow down the communication gap between regions, nations, communities and social groups. For example:

In Bangladesh, the Nutrition Blindness Prevention Programme (NBPP) almost eradicated a disease which turned blind 30,000 children a year – night blindness due to Vitamin A deficiency. NBPP initiated in 1984, relies on a network of 400 women volunteers who cooperate with local schools and teachers, mothers' clubs and, last but not least, children who relay nutritional information between school and homes both, as beneficiaries and as communicators. In close cooperation with the volunteers and teachers, radio dramas, posters, traditional theater plays, cinema spots and films for mobile units were produced to pursue two major goals: to inform about nutritional blindness and how it can easily be avoided, and to reinforce local action through problem and goal-oriented regional mass media support.

### Ethical perspective of Development

Ethics which is defined as 'the branch of philosophy dealing with values relating to human conduct, with respect to rightness or wrongness of certain actions and to the goodness and badness of the motives and ends of such actions' attempted to analyze the issue in development, noting the moral underpinnings of human actions in the theory and policy-making realms.[23] In defining and discussion of development it must be included the physical, mental, social, cultural, and spiritual development of individual in an atmosphere free from coercion or dependency. Besides, importance would need to be given to preserving and sustaining local traditional cultures and other artifacts as these are usually the media through which people at the grassroots structure their reality of world around them.

The level of development is usually laid at the level of the nation-state or some region. Here development of individuals or group is neglected. Development should not create greater misery for a large body of humanity at the periphery. We have been experiencing the coexistence of development and poverty. In case of individuals, development and poverty do not have to coexist, but the notions are not individuals. The notion is that when nations develop they can get rid of poverty. This is not true. On the other hand, it is in the nature of the development process to cause greater poverty. Second, it is the method of development that causes poverty. Fewer and fewer individuals are consuming more and more. Any policy that continues to exploit the masses at the cost of the rich and powerful is morally indefensible.

What is needed in future is a more egalitarian distribution of benefits and risks of development across all social and economic classes. Policy-makers, on the basis of their own actions, should refrain from increasing human misery. The focus needs to be on humane development, i.e. to reduce human suffering and not increase it. The Human Development Report (1992) accuses the rich and elite states for contributing, to a great extent, to the persistent and widening disparity among the states and to the failure of world markets to benefit the poorer and less powerful states. The Report points out:

“Firstly, where world trade is completely free and open...it generally works to benefit the strongest. Poor and developing countries enter the market as unequal partners – and leave with an equal rewards. Secondly, in...those areas where developing countries may have a competitive edge...the market rules are often changed to prevent free and open competition.”

### Critique

Every achievement has its own advantages and disadvantages. Thus Alternative Paradigm of development also not free from certain limitations in spite of its many ideal approaches of development. The following are some of a few reflections from both sides.

The new or alternative paradigm does not contain a single model for participation. In terms of theory and research, the game consists of discovering what forms of participation occur in particular contexts and relating those forms to existing social, economic, and political conditions. Thus flexibility makes the paradigm suitable to all contexts.

This new paradigm of communication development is audience-oriented and participatory that stressed development for individuals of periphery.

Sustainable development that is eco-friendly development.

Even though most policy makers or development planners would accept this principle, sadly enough, this has remained a theoretical benediction rather than an active practice. It is in a way disheartening to see that only small efforts are yet being made in communication for sustainable development around the globe. This participatory approach of communication also left us critical questions unanswered. Who among the people is to be selected for participating in this bottom-up communication?

### Unit V Four Models of Communication

**Models of communication** refers to the conceptual model used to explain the human communication process. The first major model for communication came in 1949 by Claude Elwood Shannon and Warren Weaver for Bell Laboratories. Following the basic concept, communication is the process of sending and receiving messages or transferring information from one part (sender) to another (receiver).

- **Shannon and Weaver.** The original model was designed to mirror the functioning of radio and telephone technologies. Their initial model consisted of three primary parts: sender, channel, and receiver. The sender was the part of

a telephone a person spoke into, the channel was the telephone itself, and the receiver was the part of the phone where one could hear the other person. Shannon and Weaver also recognized that often there is static that interferes with one listening to a telephone conversation, which they deemed noise. The noise could also mean the absence of signal. In a simple model, often referred to as *the transmission model* or *standard view of communication*, information or content (e.g. a message in natural language) is sent in some form (as spoken language) from an emisor/ sender/ encoder to a destination/ receiver/ decoder. This common conception of communication views communication as a means of sending and receiving information. The strengths of this model are simplicity, generality, and quantifiability. Social scientists Claude Shannon and Warren Weaver structured this model based on the following elements: An information source, which produces a message. A transmitter, which encodes the message into signals. A channel, to which signals are adapted for transmission. A receiver, which 'decodes' (reconstructs) the message from the signal. A destination, where the message arrives. Shannon and Weaver argued that there were three levels of problems for communication within this theory. The technical problem: how accurately can the message be transmitted? The semantic problem: how precisely is the meaning 'conveyed'? The effectiveness problem: how effectively does the received meaning affect behavior? Daniel Chandler critiques the transmission model by stating: It assumes communicators are isolated individuals. No allowance for differing purposes. No allowance for differing interpretations. No allowance for unequal power relations. No allowance for situational contexts.

- **David Berlo.** In 1960, David Berlo expanded on Shannon and Weaver's (1949) linear model of communication and created the SMCR Model of Communication. The Sender-Message-Channel-Receiver Model of communication separated the model into clear parts and has been expanded upon by other scholars.
- **Schramm.** Communication is usually described along a few major dimensions: Message (what type of things are communicated), source / emisor / sender / encoder (by whom), form (in which form), channel (through which medium), destination / receiver / target /decoder (to whom), and Receiver. Wilbur Schramm (1954) also indicated that we should also examine the impact that a message has (both desired and undesired) on the target of the message. Between parties, communication includes acts that confer knowledge and experiences, give advice and commands, and ask questions. These acts may take many forms, in one of the various manners of communication. The form depends on the abilities of the group communicating. Together, communication content and form make messages that are sent towards a destination. The target can be oneself, another person or being, another entity (such as a corporation or group of beings). Communication can be seen as

processes of information transmission governed by three levels of semiotic rules: Syntactic (formal properties of signs and symbols), Pragmatic (concerned with the relations between signs/expressions and their users) and Semantic (study of relationships between signs and symbols and what they represent). Therefore, communication is social interaction where at least two interacting agents share a common set of signs and a common set of semiotic rules. This commonly held rule in some sense ignores autocommunication, including intrapersonal communication via diaries or self-talk, both secondary phenomena that followed the primary acquisition of communicative competences within social interactions.

- **Barnlund.** In light of these weaknesses, Barnlund (2008) proposed a transactional model of communication. The basic premise of the transactional model of communication is that individuals are simultaneously engaging in the sending and receiving of messages. In a slightly more complex form a sender and a receiver are linked reciprocally. This second attitude of communication, referred to as the constitutive model or constructionist view, focuses on how an individual communicates as the determining factor of the way the message will be interpreted. Communication is viewed as a conduit; a passage in which information travels from one individual to another and this information becomes separate from the communication itself. A particular instance of communication is called a speech act. The sender's personal filters and the receiver's personal filters may vary depending upon different regional traditions, cultures, or gender; which may alter the intended meaning of message contents. In the presence of "communication noise" on the transmission channel (air, in this case), reception and decoding of content may be faulty, and thus the speech act may not achieve the desired effect. One problem with this encode-transmit-receive-decode model is that the processes of encoding and decoding imply that the sender and receiver each possess something that functions as a codebook, and that these two code books are, at the very least, similar if not identical. Although something like code books is implied by the model, they are nowhere represented in the model, which creates many conceptual difficulties. Theories of coregulation describe communication as a creative and dynamic continuous process, rather than a discrete exchange of information. Canadian media scholar Harold Innis had the theory that people use different types of media to communicate and which one they choose to use will offer different possibilities for the shape and durability of society (Wark, McKenzie 1997). His famous example of this is using ancient Egypt and looking at the ways they built themselves out of media with very different properties stone and papyrus. Papyrus is what he called 'Space Binding'. it made possible the transmission of written orders across space, empires and enables the waging of distant military campaigns and colonial administration. The other is stone and 'Time Binding',

through the construction of temples and the pyramids can sustain their authority generation to generation, through this media they can change and shape communication in their society (Wark, McKenzie 1997).

- **Psychology of communication.** Bernard Luskin, UCLA, 1970, advanced computer assisted instruction and began to connect media and psychology into what is now the field of media psychology. In 1998, the American Association of Psychology, Media Psychology Division 46 Task Force report on psychology and new technologies combined media and communication as pictures, graphics and sound increasingly dominate modern communication.
- **Constructionist Model.** There is an additional working definition of communication to consider that authors like Richard A. Lanham (2003) and as far back as Erving Goffman (1959) have highlighted. This is a progression from Lasswell's attempt to define human communication through to this century and revolutionized into the constructionist model. Constructionists believe that the process of communication is in itself the only messages that exist. The packaging can not be separated from the social and historical context from which it arose, therefore the substance to look at in communication theory is style for Richard Lanham and the performance of self for Erving Goffman. Lanham chose to view communication as the rival to the over encompassing use of CBS model (which pursued to further the transmission model). CBS model argues that clarity, brevity, and sincerity are the only purpose to prose discourse, therefore communication. Lanham wrote, "If words matter too, if the whole range of human motive is seen as animating prose discourse, then rhetoric analysis leads us to the essential questions about prose style" (Lanham 10). This is saying that rhetoric and style are fundamentally important; they are not errors to what we actually intend to transmit. The process which we construct and deconstruct meaning deserves analysis. Erving Goffman sees the performance of self as the most important frame to understand communication. Goffman wrote, "What does seem to be required of the individual is that he learn enough pieces of expression to be able to 'fill in' and manage, more or less, any part that he is likely to be given" (Goffman 73) Goffman is highlighting the significance of expression. The truth in both cases is the articulation of the message and the package as one. The construction of the message from social and historical context is the seed as is the pre-existing message is for the transmission model. Therefore any look into communication theory should include the possibilities drafted by such great scholars as Richard A. Lanham and Erving Goffman that style and performance is the whole process. Communication stands so deeply rooted in human behaviors and the structures of society that scholars have difficulty thinking of it while excluding social or behavioral events. Because communication theory remains a relatively young field of inquiry and integrates itself with other disciplines such as philosophy, psychology, and sociology, one probably cannot yet expect a consensus

conceptualization of communication across disciplines. Communication Model Terms as provided by Rothwell (11-15): *Noise*; interference with effective transmission and reception of a message. *Sender*; the initiator and encoder of a message. *Receiver*; the one that receives the message (the listener) and the decoder of a message. *Decode*; translates the senders spoken idea/message into something the receiver understands by using their knowledge of language from personal experience. *Encode*; puts the idea into spoken language while putting their own meaning into the word/message. *Channel*; the medium through which the message travels such as through oral communication (radio, television, phone, in person) or written communication (letters, email, text messages) *Feedback*; the receivers verbal and nonverbal responses to a message such as a nod for understanding (nonverbal), a raised eyebrow for being confused (nonverbal), or asking a question to clarify the message (verbal). *Message*; the verbal and nonverbal components of language that is sent to the receiver by the sender which conveys an idea.

- **Linear Model.** It is a one way model to communicate with others. It consists of the sender encoding a message and channeling it to the receiver in the presence of noise. Draw backs – the linear model assumes that there is a clear cut beginning and end to communication. It also displays no feedback from the receiver. For example; a letter, email, text message, lecture.
- **Interactive Model.** It is two linear models stacked on top of each other. The sender channels a message to the receiver and the receiver then becomes the sender and channels a message to the original sender. This model has added feedback, indicates that communication is not a one way but a two way process. It also has “field of experience” which includes our cultural background, ethnicity geographic location, extend of travel, and general personal experiences accumulated over the course of your lifetime. Draw backs – there is feedback but it is not simultaneous. For example – instant messaging. The sender sends an IM to the receiver, then the original sender has to wait for the IM from the original receiver to react. Or a question/answer session where you just ask a question then you get an answer.
- **Transactional Model.** It assumes that people are connected through communication; they engage in transaction. Firstly, it recognizes that each of us is a sender-receiver, not merely a sender or a receiver. Secondly, it recognizes that communication affects all parties involved. So communication is fluid/simultaneous. This is how most conversation are like. The transactional model also contains ellipses that symbolize the communication environment (how you interpret the data that you are given). Where the ellipses meet is the most effect communication area because both communicators share the same meaning of the message. For example – talking/listening to friends. While your friend is talking you are constantly giving them feedback on what you think

through your facial expression verbal feedback without necessarily stopping your friend from talking.

- **Communication cycle.** The first major model for communication came in 1949 by Claude Shannon and Warren Weaver for Bell Laboratories. The original model was designed to mirror the functioning of radio and telephone technologies. Their initial model consisted of three primary parts: sender, channel, and receiver. The sender was the part of a telephone a person spoke into, the channel was the telephone itself, and the receiver was the part of the phone where one could hear the other person. Shannon and Weaver also recognized that often there is static that interferes with one listening to a telephone conversation, which they deemed noise. In a simple model, often referred to as the transmission model or standard view of communication, information or content (e.g. a message in natural language) is sent in some form (as spoken language) from an emisor/ sender/ encoder to a destination/ receiver/ decoder. This common conception of communication simply views communication as a means of sending and receiving information. The strengths of this model are simplicity, generality, and quantifiability. Social scientists Claude Shannon and Warren Weaver structured this model based on the following elements: An information source, which produces a message. A transmitter, which encodes the message into signals. A channel, to which signals are adapted for transmission. A receiver, which 'decodes' (reconstructs) the message from the signal. A destination, where the message arrives. Shannon and Weaver argued that there were three levels of problems for communication within this theory. The technical problem: how accurately can the message be transmitted? The semantic problem: how precisely is the meaning 'conveyed'? The effectiveness problem: how effectively does the received meaning affect behavior? Daniel Chandler critiques the transmission model by stating: It assumes communicators are isolated individuals. No allowance for differing purposes. No allowance for differing interpretations. No allowance for unequal power relations. No allowance for situational contexts.
- **Communication noise.** In any communication model, noise is interference with the decoding of messages sent over a channel by an encoder. There are many examples of noise: Environmental Noise: Noise that physically disrupts communication, such as standing next to loud speakers at a party, or the noise from a construction site next to a classroom making it difficult to hear the professor.