

## Principle of Mass Communication

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### Principle of Mass Communication

#### Tutorial

Meaning of communication,

**Communication** (from Latin *commūnicāre*, meaning "to share") is the purposeful activity of information exchange between two or more participants in order to convey or receive the intended meanings through a shared system of signs and semiotic rules. The basic steps of communication are the forming of communicative intent, message composition, message encoding, transmission of signal, reception of signal, message decoding and finally interpretation of the message by the recipient.

Communication in general takes place inside and between three main subject categories: human beings, living organisms in general and communication-enabled devices (for example sensor networks and control systems). Communication in the category of living organisms (studied in the field of biosemiotics) usually occurs through visual, auditory, or biochemical means. Human communication is unique for its extensive use of language.

features,

### **(1) Two or More Persons:**

The first important characteristic of communication is that there must be a minimum number of two persons because no single individual can have an exchange of ideas with himself. A listener is necessary to receive one's ideas. Therefore, there must be at least two persons-the sender of information and the receiver.

### **(2) Exchange of Ideas:**

Communication cannot be thought of in the absence of exchange of ideas. In order to complete the process of communication there must be an exchange of ideas, orders, feelings, etc., among two or more than two persons.

### **(3) Mutual Understanding:**

Mutual understanding means that the receiver should receive the information in the same spirit with which it is being given. In the process of communication, it is more important to understand the information rather than carry it out.

### **(4) Direct and Indirect Communication:**

It is not necessary in communication that the receiver and giver of information should be face-to-face with each other. Communication can be both direct and indirect. Direct communication means face-to-face conversation, while indirect communication is through other means.

### **(5) Continuous Process:**

Communication is an endless process, as is the case with business where the manager continuously assigns work to his subordinates, tries to know the progress of the work and gives directions.

### **(6) Use of Words as well as Symbols:**

There can be many means of communication, like the written, the oral and symbolic. The examples of symbolic communication are the ringing of bell for

closing a school or a college, saying something by the movement of the neck, showing anger or disapproval through eyes, giving some decision by the raising of a finger in cricket, etc.

## 1. - Introduction to Mass Communication

**Mass communication** is the study of how people and entities relay information through mass media to large segments of the population at the same time. It is usually understood to relate newspaper, magazine, and book publishing, as well as radio, television and film, even via internet as these mediums are used for disseminating information, news and advertising. Mass communication differs from the studies of other forms of communication, such as interpersonal communication or organizational communication, in that it focuses on a single source transmitting information to a large number of receivers. The study of mass communication is chiefly concerned with how the content of mass communication persuades or otherwise affects the behavior, attitude, opinion, or emotion of the person or people receiving the information.

- Eras of Mass Communication

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## Four eras in mass communication theories

- Era of mass society theory (1850-1940)
- Era of scientific perspective on mass media (1940-1950)
- Era of limited effects (1950-60s)
- Era of cultural criticism (1960s-1980s)

- Globalisation

**Globalization** (or globalisation) is the process of international integration arising from the interchange of [world view]]s, products, ideas and other aspects of

culture.<sup>[1]</sup>Advances in transportation, such as the steam locomotive, steamship, jet engine, container ships, and in telecommunications infrastructure, including the rise of the telegraph and its modern offspring, the Internet, and mobile phones, have been major factors in globalization, generating further interdependence of economic and cultural activities. Though scholars place the origins of globalization in modern times, others trace its history long before the European Age of Discovery and voyages to the New World. Some even trace the origins to the third millennium BCE. Large-scale globalization began in the 19th century. In the late 19th century and early 20th century, the connectivity of the world's economies and cultures grew very quickly.

The concept of globalization is a very recent term, only establishing its current meaning in the 1970s, which emerged from the intersection of four interrelated sets of "communities of practice": academics, journalists, publishers/editors, and librarians. In 2000, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) identified four basic aspects of globalization: trade and transactions, capital and investment movements, migration and movement of people, and the dissemination of knowledge. Further, environmental challenges such as global warming, cross-boundary water and air pollution, and over-fishing of the ocean are linked with globalization. Globalizing processes affect and are affected by business and work organization, economics, socio-cultural resources, and the natural environment.

- Stages in History of Advertising.

**Advertising** (or **advertizing**) is a form of marketing communication used to promote or sell something, usually a business's product or service.

In Latin, *ad vertere* means "to turn toward". The purpose of advertising may also be to reassure employees or shareholders that a company is viable or successful. Advertising messages are usually paid for by sponsors and viewed via various old media; including mass media such as newspaper, magazines, television advertisement, radio advertisement, outdoor advertising or direct mail; or new media such as blogs, websites or text messages.

Commercial ads seek to generate increased consumption of their products or services through "branding," which associates a product name or image with

certain qualities in the minds of consumers. Non-commercial advertisers who spend money to advertise items other than a consumer product or service include political parties, interest groups, religious organizations and governmental agencies. Non-profit organizations may use free modes of persuasion, such as a public service announcement.

Modern advertising was created with the techniques introduced with tobacco advertising in the 1920s, most significantly with the campaigns of Edward Bernays, considered the founder of modern, "Madison Avenue" advertising.

In 2015, the world spent an estimate of US\$592.43 billion on advertising. Internationally, the largest ("big four") advertising conglomerates are Interpublic, Omnicom, Publicis, and WPP.

Egyptians used papyrus to make sales messages and wall posters.<sup>1</sup> Commercial messages and political campaign displays have been found in the ruins of Pompeii and ancient Arabia. Lost and found advertising on papyrus was common in Ancient Greece and Ancient Rome. Wall or rock painting for commercial advertising is another manifestation of an ancient advertising form, which is present to this day in many parts of Asia, Africa, and South America. The tradition of wall painting can be traced back to Indian rock art paintings that date back to 4000 BC

In ancient China, the earliest advertising known was oral, as recorded in the Classic of Poetry (11th to 7th centuries BC) of bamboo flutes played to sell candy. Advertisement usually takes in the form of calligraphic signboards and inked papers. A copper printing plate dated back to the Song dynasty used to print posters in the form of a square sheet of paper with a rabbit logo with "Jinan Liu's Fine Needle Shop" and "We buy high-quality steel rods and make fine-quality needles, to be ready for use at home in no time" written above and below is considered the world's earliest identified printed advertising medium.

In Europe, as the towns and cities of the Middle Ages began to grow, and the general populace was unable to read, instead of signs that read "cobbler", "miller", "tailor", or "blacksmith" would use an image associated with their trade such as a boot, a suit, a hat, a clock, a diamond, a horse shoe, a candle or even a bag of flour. Fruits and vegetables were sold in the city square from the backs of carts and wagons and their proprietors used street callers (town criers) to announce their whereabouts for the convenience of the customers. The first

compilation of such advertisements was gathered in "Les Crieries de Paris", a thirteenth-century poem by Guillaume de la Villeneuve.

In the 18th century advertisements started to appear in weekly newspapers in England. These early print advertisements were used mainly to promote books and newspapers, which became increasingly affordable with advances in the printing press; and medicines, which were increasingly sought after as disease ravaged Europe. However, false advertising and so-called "quack" advertisements became a problem, which ushered in the regulation of advertising content.

### **19th century**

Thomas J. Barratt from London has been called "the father of modern advertising". Working for the Pears Soap company, Barratt created an effective advertising campaign for the company products, which involved the use of targeted slogans, images and phrases. One of his slogans, "Good morning. Have you used Pears' soap?" was famous in its day and into the 20th century.

Barratt introduced many of the crucial ideas that lie behind successful advertising and these were widely circulated in his day. He constantly stressed the importance of a strong and exclusive brand image for Pears and of emphasizing the product's availability through saturation campaigns. He also understood the importance of constantly reevaluating the market for changing tastes and mores, stating in 1907 that "tastes change, fashions change, and the advertiser has to change with them. An idea that was effective a generation ago would fall flat, stale, and unprofitable if presented to the public today. Not that the idea of today is always better than the older idea, but it is different – it hits the present taste.

As the economy expanded across the world during the 19th century, advertising grew alongside. In the United States, the success of this advertising format eventually led to the growth of mail-order advertising.

In June 1836, French newspaper *La Presse* was the first to include paid advertising in its pages, allowing it to lower its price, extend its readership and increase its profitability and the formula was soon copied by all titles. Around 1840, Volney B. Palmer established the roots of the modern day advertising agency in Philadelphia. In 1842 Palmer bought large amounts of space in various newspapers at a discounted rate then resold the space at higher rates to advertisers. The actual ad – the copy, layout, and artwork – was still prepared by the company wishing to advertise; in effect, Palmer was a space broker. The situation changed in the late 19th century when the advertising agency of N.W.

Ayer & Son was founded. Ayer and Son offered to plan, create, and execute complete advertising campaigns for its customers. By 1900 the advertising agency had become the focal point of creative planning, and advertising was firmly established as a profession. Around the same time, in France, Charles-Louis Havas extended the services of his news agency, Havas to include advertisement brokerage, making it the first French group to organize. At first, agencies were brokers for advertisement space in newspapers. N. W. Ayer & Son was the first full-service agency to assume responsibility for advertising content. N.W. Ayer opened in 1869, and was located in Philadelphia.

## **20th century**

Advertising increased dramatically in the United States as industrialization expanded the supply of manufactured products. In order to profit from this higher rate of production, industry needed to recruit workers as consumers of factory products. It did so through the invention of mass marketing designed to influence the population's economic behavior on a larger scale. In the 1910s and 1920s, advertisers in the U.S. adopted the doctrine that human instincts could be targeted and harnessed – "sublimated" into the desire to purchase commodities. Edward Bernays, a nephew of Sigmund Freud, became associated with the method and is sometimes called the founder of modern advertising and public relations.

In the 1920s, under Secretary of Commerce Herbert Hoover, the American government promoted advertising. Hoover himself delivered an address to the Associated Advertising Clubs of the World in 1925 called 'Advertising Is a Vital Force in Our National Life. In October 1929, the head of the U.S. Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, Julius Klein, stated "Advertising is the key to world prosperity. This was part of the "unparalleled" collaboration between business and government in the 1920s, according to a 1933 European economic journal.

The tobacco companies became major advertisers in order to sell packaged cigarettes. The tobacco companies pioneered the new advertising techniques when they hired Bernays to create positive associations with tobacco smoking.

Advertising was also used as a vehicle for cultural assimilation, encouraging workers to exchange their traditional habits and community structure in favor of a shared "modern" lifestyle. An important tool for influencing immigrant workers was the American Association of Foreign Language Newspapers (AAFLN). The

AAFLN was primarily an advertising agency but also gained heavily centralized control over much of the immigrant press.

At the turn of the 20th century, there were few career choices for women in business; however, advertising was one of the few. Since women were responsible for most of the purchasing done in their household, advertisers and agencies recognized the value of women's insight during the creative process. In fact, the first American advertising to use a sexual sell was created by a woman – for a soap product. Although tame by today's standards, the advertisement featured a couple with the message "A skin you love to touch"

In the 1920s psychologists Walter D. Scott and John B. Watson contributed applied psychological theory to the field of advertising. Scott said, "Man has been called the reasoning animal but he could with greater truthfulness be called the creature of suggestion. He is reasonable, but he is to a greater extent suggestible". He demonstrated this through his advertising technique of a direct command to the consumer.

### **On the radio from the 1920s**

In the early 1920s, the first radio stations were established by radio equipment manufacturers and retailers who offered programs in order to sell more radios to consumers. As time passed, many non-profit organizations followed suit in setting up their own radio stations, and included: schools, clubs and civic groups.

When the practice of sponsoring programs was popularized, each individual radio program was usually sponsored by a single business in exchange for a brief mention of the business' name at the beginning and end of the sponsored shows. However, radio station owners soon realized they could earn more money by selling sponsorship rights in small time allocations to multiple businesses throughout their radio station's broadcasts, rather than selling the sponsorship rights to single businesses per show.

### **Commercial television in the 1950s**

In the early 1950s, the DuMont Television Network began the modern practice of selling advertisement time to multiple sponsors. Previously, DuMont had trouble finding sponsors for many of their programs and compensated by selling smaller blocks of advertising time to several businesses. This eventually became the standard for the commercial television industry in the United States. However, it

was still a common practice to have single sponsor shows, such as The United States Steel Hour. In some instances the sponsors exercised great control over the content of the show – up to and including having one's advertising agency actually writing the show. The single sponsor model is much less prevalent now, a notable exception being the Hallmark Hall of Fame.

### **Cable television from the 1980s**

The late 1980s and early 1990s saw the introduction of cable television and particularly MTV. Pioneering the concept of the music video, MTV ushered in a new type of advertising: the consumer tunes in *for* the advertising message, rather than it being a by-product or afterthought. As cable and satellite television became increasingly prevalent, specialty channels emerged, including channels entirely devoted to advertising, such as QVC, Home Shopping Network, and ShopTV Canada.

### **On the Internet from the 1990s**

With the advent of the ad server, online advertising grew, contributing to the "dot-com" boom of the 1990s. Entire corporations operated solely on advertising revenue, offering everything from coupons to free Internet access. At the turn of the 21st century, some websites, including the search engine Google, changed online advertising by personalizing ads based on web browsing behavior. This has led to other similar efforts and an increase in interactive advertising.

The share of advertising spending relative to GDP has changed little across large changes in media since 1925. In 1925, the main advertising media in America were newspapers, magazines, signs on streetcars, and outdoor posters. Advertising spending as a share of GDP was about 2.9 percent. By 1998, television and radio had become major advertising media. Nonetheless, advertising spending as a share of GDP was slightly lower – about 2.4 percent.

Guerrilla marketing involves unusual approaches such as staged encounters in public places, giveaways of products such as cars that are covered with brand messages, and interactive advertising where the viewer can respond to become part of the advertising message. This type of advertising is unpredictable, which causes consumers to buy the product or idea.<sup>1</sup> This reflects an increasing trend of interactive and "embedded" ads, such as via product placement, having consumers vote through text messages, and various campaigns utilizing social network services such as Facebook or Twitter.

The advertising business model has also been adapted in recent years. In media for equity, advertising is not sold, but provided to start-up companies in return for equity. If the company grows and is sold, the media companies receive cash for their shares.

Domain name registrants (usually those who register and renew domains as an investment) sometimes "park" their domains and allow advertising companies to place ads on their sites in return for per-click payments. These ads are typically driven by pay per click search engines like Google or Yahoo, but ads can sometimes be placed directly on targeted domain names through a domain lease or by making contact with the registrant of a domain name that describes a product. Domain name registrants are generally easy to identify through WHOIS records that are publicly available at registrar websites.

## 2. The Psychology and Sociology of Media Audiences - Introduction

**Media psychology** is the branch of psychology that focuses on the relationships between human behavior and the media. This branch is a relatively new field of study because of advancement in **technology**. It uses various methods of critical analysis and investigation to develop a working model of a user's perception on media experience. These methods are used for society as a whole and on an individual basis. Media psychologists are able to perform activities that include consulting, design, and production in various media like television, video games, films, and news broadcasting. It is important to understand that Media Psychologists are not considered to be those who are featured in media (such as counselors-psychotherapists, clinicians etc.) rather than those who research, work or contribute to the field.

What effect does the media have on its audience? The four models below explain the four views sociologists have come up with to explain the effects the media has on audiences.

As will become evident, there is no consensus over which model best explains the effects of the media on audiences receiving media messages.

Media effects Hypodermic syringe model – this approach assumes ideas/ideologies transmitted in mass media products are automatically 'injected' into the minds of the audience for example a newspaper telling its readers who to vote for. The audience is seen as passive recipients

Two-step flow model – unlike the hypodermic syringe model above this model takes the view audience is not directly influenced by the mass media. Instead Katz and Lazarsfeld argue opinion leaders (an opinion leader is anyone who has a high status among a group, such as work colleague or friend) views are valued by a group or individual to the extent they have a direct influence on their behaviour. For example an opinion leader watches Newsnight, after watching Newsnight they decide voting Labour is the best idea and they encourage their friends to do the same.

**Cultural effects theory** – this approach argues media influence on its audience isn't immediate but occurs over a long steady build up over a significant period of time. This process is sometimes known as the drip, drip, drip effect and is popular with neo-Marxists in explaining how hegemony is achieved.

Uses and gratifications model – this approach argues audiences use the media for a raft of reasons. For example after a hard day at work you might turn on the TV to watch 'anything' just so you can relax. It might be that the 'anything' is a party political broadcast which you 'watch' without absorbing any political message. This approach sees the audience as active. The audience uses the media, rather than the media manipulating the audience. This model is popular with pluralists as well as postmodernist particularly in the creation of identity.

- Media Audiences

**Audience theory** is an element of thinking that developed within academic literary theory and cultural studies.

With a specific focus on rhetoric, some, such as Walter Ong, have suggested that the audience is a construct made up by the rhetoric and the rhetorical situation the text is addressing. Others, such as Ruth Mitchell and Mary Taylor, have said writers and speakers actually can target their communication to address a real audience. Some others, such as Ede and Lunsford, try to mingle these two approaches and create situations where audience is "fictionalized", as Ong would say, but in recognition of some real attributes of the actual audience.

There is also a wide range of media studies and communication studies theories about the audience's role in any kind of mediated communication. A sub-culturally focussed and Marxism-inflected take on the subject arose as the "new audience theory" or "active audience theory" from the Centre for Contemporary Cultural Studies during the 1980s.

## - The Psychology of Audiences

### A. *The Nature and Psychological Setting of the Audience.*

Although an audience is not a crowd under our definition, it is a special form of collective behavior closely related to it. The audience is really a form of institutionalized crowd. It has much in common with the crowd, and differs only in the purpose and form of its organization. That is to say, the configuration differs. The audience is less spontaneous. It is regulated in time and place. It is definite in purpose, and its organization limits the psychological effects produced.

1. *Physical Configuration of the Audience.*— The audience as a rule forms in a special structure of some kind. The meeting place has a distinct physical character. The seating arrangement is designed to produce polarization of common attitudes. The seats are usually arranged in rows, often in a slight semi-circular form, in front of which is the speaker's stand. The seating facilitates attention to the speaker or performer rather than to the persons on either side. Though the shoulder-to-shoulder configuration of the crowd is found in the audience, the spacing of seats prevents too great a massing of persons. It thus inhibits the rise of crowd reactions beyond a certain point. An audience may be massed in a hall eager to hear a speaker; and, as we have seen, a cunning appeal to prejudice may convert it into a crowd, but the physical configuration does not itself foster such a development. Nevertheless, the general form of an audience tends to produce crowd behavior. This is apparent if we contrast a lecture hall with a committee room or seminar room where small groups meet for deliberation.

The seats in some meeting places are more formal than in others, and in time there is an association of place and performance. Formal seating is common to churches, although the meeting places of the more divergent and less ritualistic sects are hardly distinguishable from those of a farmers' grange or of a public auditorium. As a rule, of course, these sects conduct their services with very simple rituals. Their gatherings are much like (538) political audiences. In political, labor, and general lecture halls the seating is often more compact and less formal. This is particularly so in classrooms, where the seating is largely arranged for the convenience of students.

The speaker's relation to his audience is also standardized. Unless the room is very small, there is a raised platform or stage where the speaker stands. Of course, this permits audience and speaker to see each other better; but it also sets the speaker off from his audience. The audience has literally to look up to

the speaker; and the speaker's illusion of superiority and the passivity of the audience are both enhanced.

The speaker's stand may of course be used for notes, but its principal purpose is further to set the speaker apart from his auditors. The writer knows a professor who can not lecture unless he has a reading stand before him. He says that he is "uncomfortable" without it; that he feels "exposed to the students" if he does not have it. The stage has the barrier of the orchestra and especially the footlights, which emphasize the separation of the actors from the audience.

*2. Psychological Features of the Audience.*— Audiences gather for a more or less definite purpose. The meeting is announced beforehand. People talk to each other about attending, and the press may comment on the coming lecture or performance. There is set up in us what we may call preliminary tuning. The title of the lecture or the play or the name of the speaker may arouse discussion or lead to imaginary comments about it, or may call up associations from past experience. Our chief object in attending a political rally may be our desire to encounter the personality of the speaker. William Jennings Bryan was always enormously popular as a speaker, although as someone once said, "people listened to him but voted for the other candidate." So, too, in the presidential campaign of 1928 Ex-Governor Smith attracted great crowds everywhere largely because of his vivid personality. We may discuss with our friends an approaching lecture on some subject of interest, or we may read up on it or recall individually our own notions about it. We may attend the theater in the anticipation merely of relaxation and amusement, or we may have heard comments about the particular play which whet our appetites to see it for special reasons.

As we have noted, the very configuration of the seating and the platform tends to produce polarization. When the audience first gathers, this polarization may be of a feeble all-to-one sort, as we look at the drop curtain or the vacant stage and the decorations. The preliminary tuning is continued by conversation with people about us and by individual fantasy. While some conversation will be simply gossip, there will always be a residue of talk about "What will the play be like?";— "Is the speaker a good one?", "What do you think of his views?", and so on. When the lecture or performance actually begins, the polarization becomes distinctly an all-to-one sort, with the members of the audience paying most attention to the speaker and very little to each other.

In time this focusing of attention on the speaker changes the nature of the polarization to a kind of one-to-one relationship. True, there usually remains a feeble, marginal awareness of other auditors right and left, in front and behind;

yet if our attention is fixed on the speaker, we tend to fall into a one-to-one relationship with him. "We lose ourselves" in the speech or the play. We so identify ourselves with the speaker as to lose our sense of social relationship with those around us. It is because of this that audiences take on many features of the crowd.

The speaker is generally the active agent in this form of social interaction. He carries ideas and emotions along with him. By painting verbal pictures, by telling stories, by exposition of facts or by logical arguments, he suggests the trends of imagery and the recall of associated feelings. The auditor is the more passive member of this person-to-person relationship. Though his mind may be full of images and his body full of aroused emotions and feelings, he still remains relatively inactive. Whenever the audience begins to act, the purely active-passive relationship breaks down. Laughter, tears, applause, shouts of approval, or boos of disapproval are ideo-motor evidences of the more active participation of the audience. In some situations the speaker makes a definite bid for this sort of response from the audience; in others it is accidental. In a serious, formal lecture of a scientist, it may be quite unconventional and distinctly poor form. For the most part, the relation of speaker to audience is one of domination and submission, or of active and passive participation. The speaker is superior, at least temporarily. He carries us along with him. We do not dominate him to any extent. Sometimes he dominates us by ideas, and at other times he arouses our emotions of fear, sorrow, anger, or laughter. In any case our participation is less determined by our own initiative than it is suggested by his actions.

There are speakers who can almost force their auditors to agree with their beliefs and then to act accordingly. Conway called such men "crowd-compellers." Wendell Phillips was a "crowd-compeller," when he spoke against slavery. A recent study indicates how Phillips succeeded in controlling hostile audiences. He knew how to capture attention, how to enlist suggestion, and how to make use of his prestige. His height and physique he displayed to advantage. His attitude of superiority and his self-control caught the attention of his auditors even when they were unfavorably attuned to him. His skill in repartee forced a recognition of power by his auditors. Phillips employed three types of symbols in his control of his audience: visible, auditory, and verbal. Of the first, posture, muscular movement, gesture, facial expression, and eye contact were prominent. Of the second, quality, variety, control, intensity, and rate of speech were important. Of the third, he used a wider range of verbal forms and devices with favorable than with unfavorable audiences. Among the various devices which he employed were: frequent use of the singular pronoun You, literary allusions, liberal use of analogy, similes, the synecdoche, personification, hyperbole,

apostrophe, illustrations and humor. With hostile audiences he used allusions and hyperbole most frequently; with favorable audiences he used more varied devices.

Other speakers call up in us familiar and old responses which we like. From their suggestions we revive old emotions and feelings. Lincoln in many of his speeches used these devices of familiarity, plain example, and common humor.

The audience, on the other hand, has its own effect upon the speaker. Just as the masses always affect the leader in other groups, so here the speaker who arouses negative and antagonistic attitudes in his audience may provoke a response which will make him change his type of argument or even force him to discontinue his speech. A magnificent "crowd-compeller" like Wendell Phillips may start by deliberately overcoming hostility. Occasionally we see vaudeville actors desperately trying to provoke laughter from an indifferent or even hostile audience. At times the whole relation of performer to audience becomes a game to see which will submit to the other. After all, the passivity of the audience in its attitude toward the speaker is only relative and never absolute.

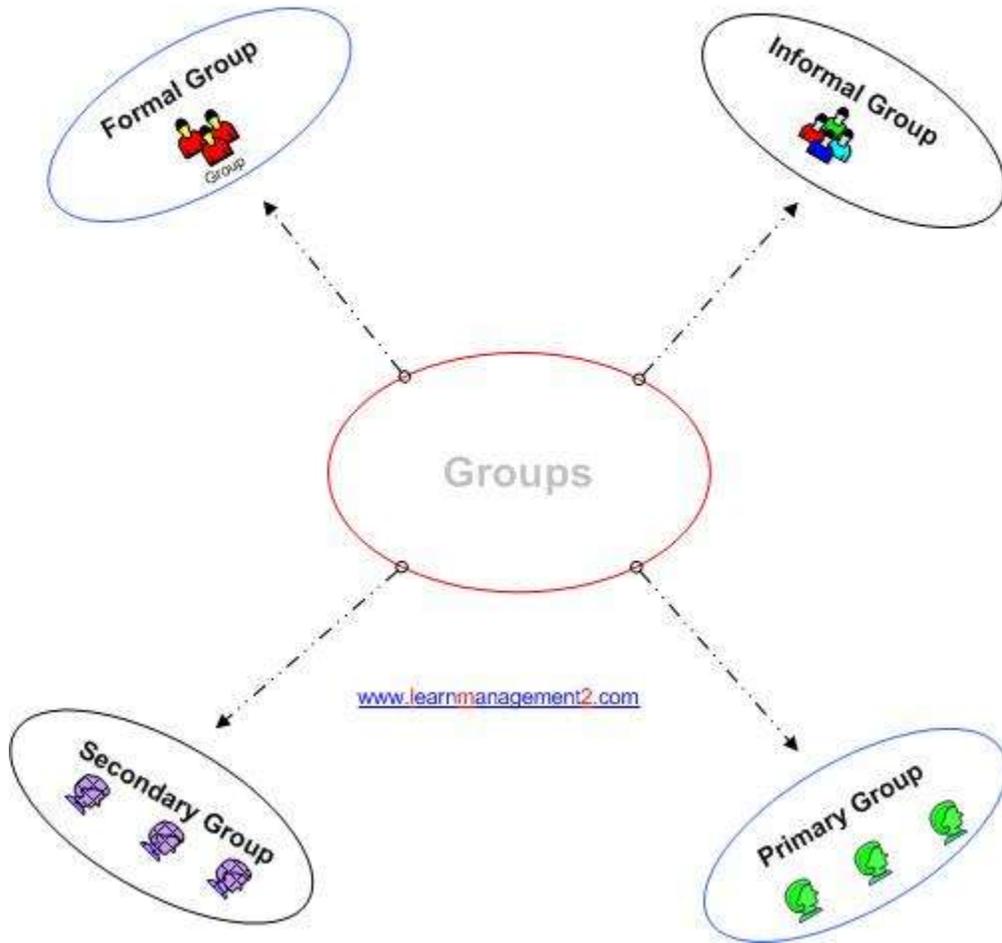
- Group by Group

**Group dynamics** is a system of behaviours and psychological processes occurring within a social group (*intragroup* dynamics), or between social groups (*intergroup* dynamics). The study of group dynamics can be useful in understanding decision-making behavior, tracking the spread of diseases in society, creating effective therapy techniques, and following the emergence and popularity of new ideas and technologies. Group dynamics are at the core of understanding racism, sexism, and other forms of social prejudice and discrimination. These applications of the field are studied in psychology, sociology, anthropology, political science, epidemiology, education, social work, business, and communication studies.

There are three main things that can affect a team's cohesion (the act of working together well). They are: environmental factors, personal factors and leadership factors.

- Types of groups

## TYPES OF GROUPS



- The Mass Audiences and their nature

## Types of Audience

- Mass audience – often termed 'broadcast audience'. Those who consume mainstream or popular texts such as soaps or sitcoms. Media and communication that targets a very large group of people (women, men, children, adults etc).

- Examples of media with mass audience...



- The public and the public opinion

The English term "public opinion" dates back to the seventeenth century work by John Locke, *An Essay Concerning Human Understanding*, which contains an early consideration of the importance of **public opinion** in the ordering of politics. The term was derived from the French word *l'opinion*, which was first used in 1588 by Michel de Montaigne

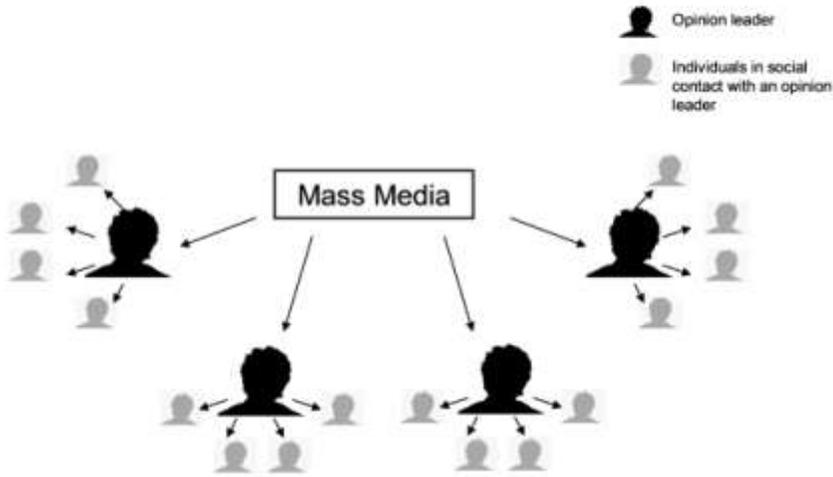
This concept came about through the process of urbanization and other political and social forces. For the first time, it became important what people thought, as forms of political contention changed.

It was introduced by James Madison that for a government to be democratic, it would be essential to have strong and knowledgeable citizens that hold educated opinions that could be shared and expressed. Active citizens would then use this knowledge to participate in their government, while also being able to inform other citizens of current issues. In terms of political science,

public opinion is defined as being “the aggregate of public attitudes or beliefs about government or politics”. Public opinion is considered to be the factor that guides an indirect democratic government. It is only through the approval of the public that a government gains the authority to function. Public opinion is thought to develop from these main sources: “political socialization, education, life experience, political parties, the media, and the government”. Public opinion is considered a dynamic part of today’s government. Continually changing, it has the power and influence to shape the government in new ways.

- The two step flow of information

## Two-step flow model

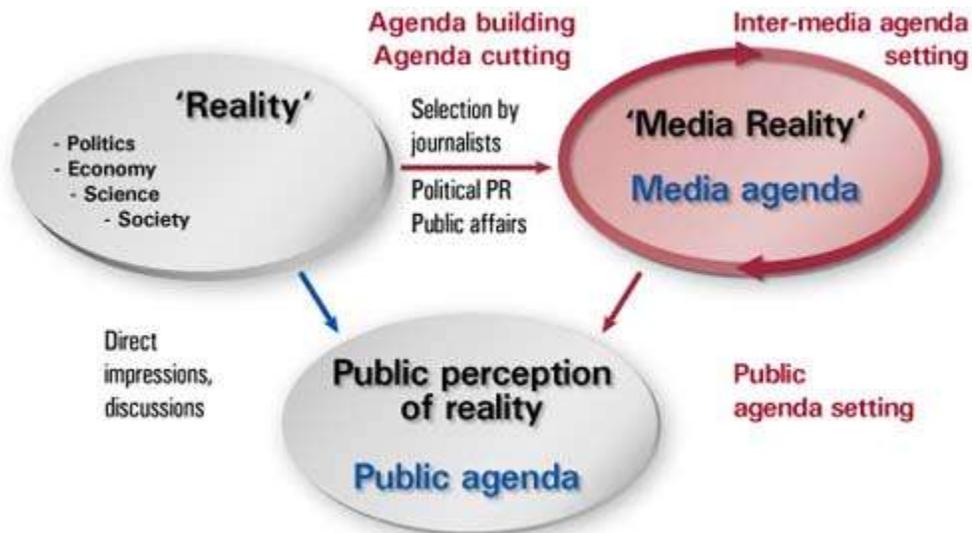


- Mass media and public opinion

# Public Opinion and Mass Media



- Agenda setting.



#### 4. Model of Mass communication - Katz and Lazarsfeld's two step model.

Two step flow theory-Katz and Lazarsfeld's Model 1944 -55

##### Katz and Lazarsfeld's Model 1944 -55

It is otherwise called as

1. Two step flow theory
2. Effects theory And
3. Limited effects theory

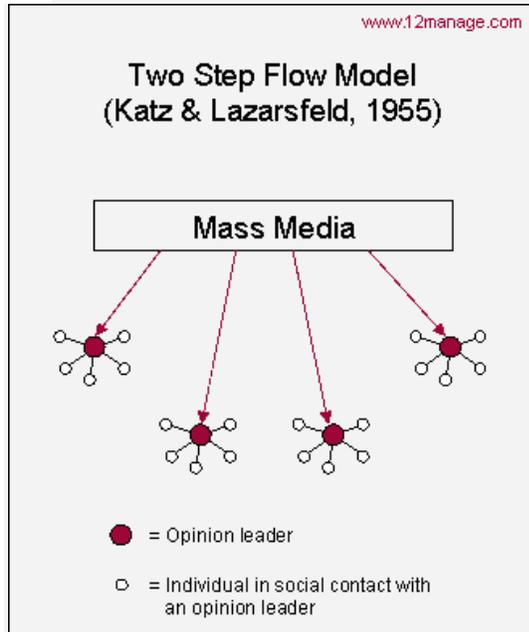
In 1944 Paul Lazarsfeld, Bernard Berelson, and Hazel Gaudet developed two step flow theory. They are focused on the process of decision-making during a Presidential election campaign.

Elihu Katz and Paul Lazarsfeld and his colleagues developed two step flow theory on 1955. This theory asserts that information from the media moves in two distinct stages. Ideas often flow from the mass media to less active section of the population through the **opinion leaders**.

The power of the mass media therefore is indirect and is reduced by the influence of local opinion leaders. The power of media therefore is indirect and is reduced by the influence of local opinion leaders.

- First, **opinion leaders** who pay close attention to the mass media and its messages receive the information.
- .
- **Opinion leaders pass on their own interpretations** in addition to the actual media content.
- .
- The term '**personal influence**' was intervening between the media's direct message and the audience's ultimate reaction to that message.
-

- Opinion leaders are quite influential in getting people to change their attitudes and behaviors and are quite similar to those they influence.



### Meaning of Two step theory



- Media rarely **directly influence** individuals.
- People are not **easily manipulated** by media content
- There is a **two step flow of media influence**
- Most people have developed strongly **held group commitments** such as political party and religious affiliations. That individual media messages are powerless to overcome

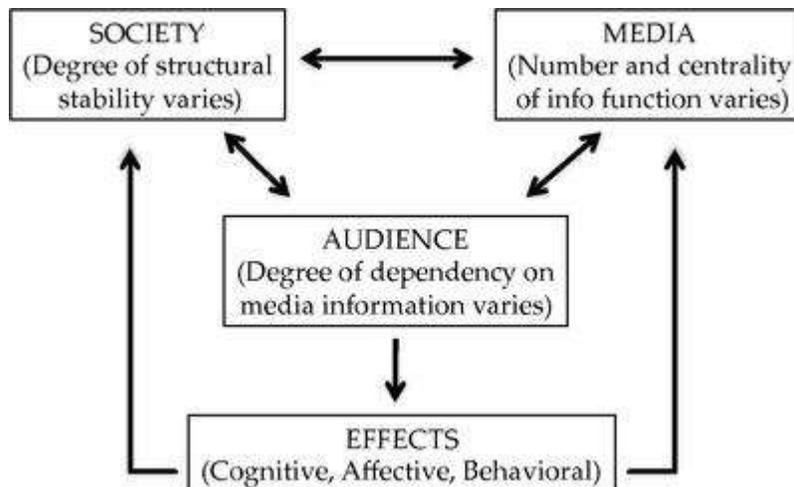
- When media effects do occur they will be **modest and isolated** . They are somehow cutoff from the influence of their people. They are undermined by social crises. eg. educated urban people

The two-step flow theory has improved our understanding of how the mass media influence decision making.

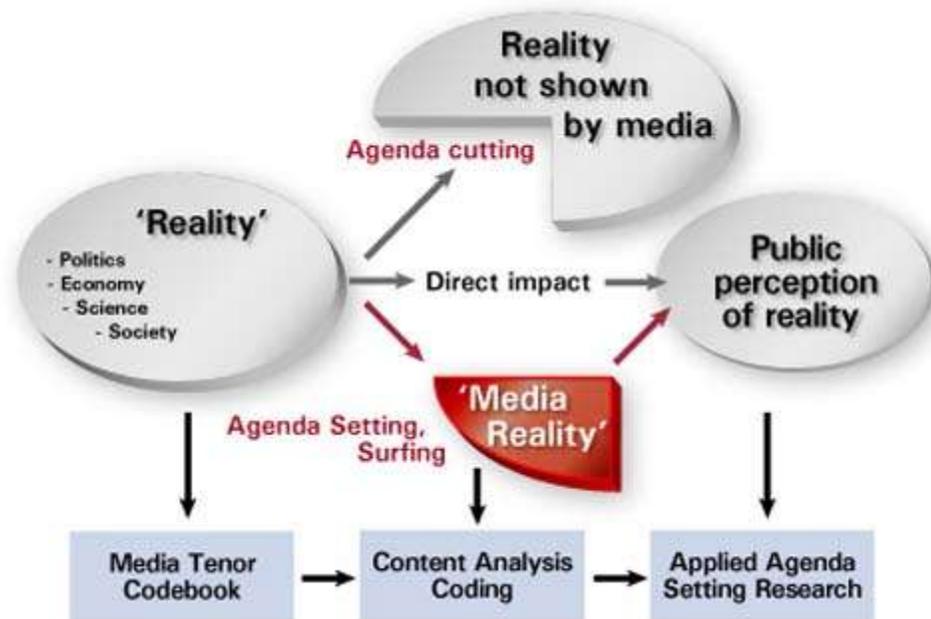
The theory refined the ability to predict the influence of media messages on audience behavior, and it helped explain why certain media campaigns may have failed to alter audience attitudes and behavior.

- Ball – Rokeach and Defier’s dependency model

**Media system dependency theory (MSD)**, or simply **media dependency**, was developed by Sandra Ball-Rokeach and Melvin Defleur in 1976. The theory is grounded in classical sociological literature positing that media and their audiences should be studied in the context of larger social systems. MSD ties together the interrelations of broad social systems, mass media, and the individual into a comprehensive explanation of media effects. At its core, the basic dependency hypothesis states that the more a person depends on media to meet needs, the more important media will be in a person's life, and therefore the more effects media will have on a person.

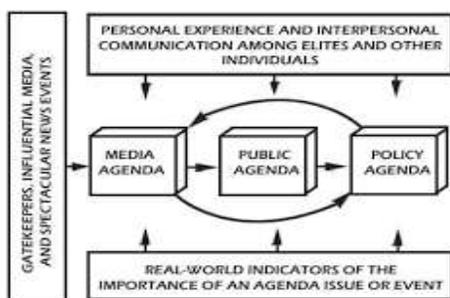


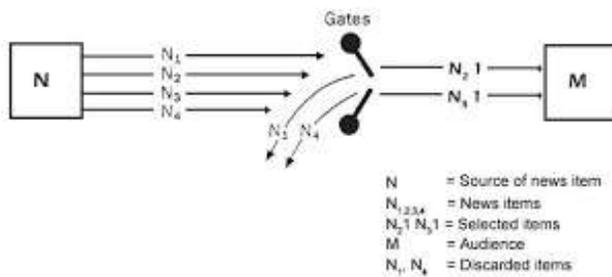
- Model of Agenda setting and effects



- Model of Gate-keeping by White, Gatung and Rouge.

**Gatekeeping** is the process through which information is filtered for dissemination, whether for publication, broadcasting, the Internet, or some other mode of communication. The academic theory of gatekeeping is found in multiple fields of study, including communication studies, journalism, political science, and sociology. It was originally focused on the mass media with its few-to-many dynamic but now gatekeeping theory also addresses face-to-face communication and the many-to-many dynamic inherent in the Internet. The theory was first instituted by social psychologist Kurt Lewin in 1943. Gatekeeping occurs at all levels of the media structure — from a reporter deciding which sources are chosen to include in a story to editors deciding which stories are printed or covered, and includes media outlet owners and even advertisers. Individuals can also act as gatekeepers, deciding what information to include in an [email](#) or in a blog, for example.





## Galtung & Ruge

### Concept

- Information is filtered by those who deem it worthy

### Explanation

- Selective Gatekeeping.
- Galtung and Ruge selective gatekeeping theory suggests that news from around the world are evaluated using news values to determine their newsworthiness.

#### 4. Issues in Communication

- New world of communication order recommended by Mcbride Media Imperialism.

The **New World Information and Communication Order** (NWICO or NWIO) is a term that was coined in a debate over media representations of the developing world in UNESCO in the late 1970s and early 1980s. The term was widely used

by the MacBride Commission, a UNESCO panel chaired by Nobel Peace Prize laureate Sean MacBride, which was charged with creation of a set of recommendations to make global media representation more equitable. The MacBride Commission produced a report titled "Many Voices, One World", which outlined the main philosophical points of the New World Information Communication Order.

### *History*

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The fundamental issues of imbalances in global communication had been discussed for some time. The American media scholar Wilbur Schramm noted in 1964 that the flow of news among nations is thin, that much attention is given to developed countries and little to less-developed ones, that important events are ignored and reality is distorted. From a more radical perspective, Herbert Schiller observed in 1969 that developing countries had little meaningful input into decisions about radio frequency allocations for satellites at a key meeting in Geneva in 1963. Schiller pointed out that many satellites had military applications. Intelsat which was set up for international co-operation in satellite communication, was also dominated by the United States. In the 1970s these and other issues were taken up by the Non-Aligned Movement and debated within the United Nations and UNESCO.

NWICO grew out of the New International Economic Order of 1974. From 1976-1978, the New World Information and Communication Order was generally called the shorter **New World Information Order** or the **New International Information Order**.

The start of this discussion is the New World Information and Communication Order (NWICO) as associated with the United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) starting from the early 1970s.

Mass media concerns began with the meeting of non-aligned nations in Algiers, 1973; again in Tunis 1976, and later in 1976 at the New Delhi Ministerial Conference of Non-Aligned Nations.

The 'new order' plan was textually formulated by Tunisia's Information Minister Mustapha Masmoudi. Masmoudi submitted working paper No. 31 to the MacBride Commission. These proposals of 1978 were titled the 'Mass Media Declaration.' The MacBride Commission at the time was a 16-member body created by UNESCO to study communication issues.

Among those involved in the movement were the Latin American Institute for the Study of Transnationals (ILET). One of its co-founders, Juan Somavia was a

member of the MacBride Commission. Another important voice was Mustapha Masmoudi, the Information Minister for Tunisia. In a Canadian radio program in 1983, Tom McPhail describes how the issues were pressed within UNESCO in the mid-1970s when the United States withheld funding to punish the organization for excluding Israel from a regional group of UNESCO. Some OPEC countries and a few socialist countries made up the amount of money and were able to get senior positions within UNESCO. NWICO issues were then advanced at an important meeting in 1976 held in Costa Rica.

The only woman member of the Commission was Betty Zimmerman, representing Canada because of the illness of Marshall McLuhan, who died in 1980. The movement was kept alive through the 1980s by meetings of the MacBride Round Table on Communication, even though by then the leadership of UNESCO distanced itself from its ideas.

The UNESCO Convention on Cultural Diversity of 2005 puts into effect some of the goals of NWICO, especially with regard to the unbalanced global flow of mass media. However, this convention was not supported by the United States, and it does not appear to be as robust as World Trade Organization agreements that support global trade in mass media and information.

### *Issues*

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A wide range of issues were raised as part of NWICO discussions. Some of these involved long-standing issues of media coverage of the developing world and unbalanced flows of media influence. But other issues involved new technologies with important military and commercial uses. The developing world was likely to be marginalized by satellite and computer technologies. The issues included:

- News reporting on the developing world that reflects the priorities of news agencies in London, Paris and New York. Reporting of natural disasters and military coups rather than the fundamental realities. At the time four major news agencies controlled over 80% of global news flow.
- An unbalanced flow of mass media from the developed world (especially the United States) to the underdeveloped countries. Everyone watches American movies and television shows.
- Advertising agencies in the developed world have indirect but significant effects on mass media in the developing countries. Some observers also judged the messages of these ads to be inappropriate for the Third World.

- An unfair division of the radio spectrum. A small number of developed countries controlled almost 90% of the radio spectrum. Much of this was for military use.
- There were similar concerns about the allocation of the geostationary orbit (parking spots in space) for satellites. At the time only a small number of developed countries had satellites and it was not possible for developing countries to be allocated a space that they might need ten years later. This might mean eventually getting a space that was more difficult and more expensive to operate.
- Satellite broadcasting of television signals into Third World countries without prior permission was widely perceived as a threat to national sovereignty. The UN voted in the early 1970s against such broadcasts.
- Use of satellites to collect information on crops and natural resources in the Third World at a time when most developing countries lacked the capacity to analyze this data.
- At the time most mainframe computers were located in the United States and there were concerns about the location of databases (such as airline reservations) and the difficulty of developing countries catching up with the US lead in computers.
- The protection of journalists from violence was raised as an issue for discussion. For example, journalists were targeted by various military dictatorships in Latin America in the 1970s. As part of NWICO debates there were suggestions for study on how to protect journalists and even to discipline journalists who broke "generally recognized ethical standards". However, the MacBride Commission specifically came out against the idea of licensing journalists.

Democratization communication and culture.

### ***Democratization of communications***

#### Focus and Scope

The new spiral of violence and lies that abruptly burst upon the world following the attacks in the US on September 11, has formed an adverse scene for democratic struggle. This adversity obliges such struggles to step up their efforts, not only for peace and justice, but also for truth. This means challenging "excesses" in the manipulation and distortion of information, as well as the foundations and conditions that allow this to

happen. Similar concerns are what has motivated the fight for democratization of the media during recent decades.

The WSF, as an networked social process, appears an ideal and legitimate space to catalyze energy and foster the emergence of a social movement under the banner of democratization of communications. With this premise in mind, we propose that this conference should focus its attention on outlining a SOCIAL AGENDA IN COMMUNICATION. Being a cross-cutting theme that concerns

all human relations, the important thing is to situate the central points for definition of strategies and aims, in order to build and give impetus to this social movement.

### The Issues

The democratization of communications is above all a question of citizenship and social justice. It is framed in the human right to information and communication. In other words, it is inherent to democratic life of society itself, whose vitality depends on having a duly informed and deliberative citizenry, able to participate and assume co-responsibility in decision-making on public issues.

In recent times, however, this democratic aspiration has been seriously constrained by neoliberal hegemony, which has put the market at the centre of social organization, thus attempting to confiscate democracies, and annulling the meaning of citizenship itself. Moreover, communication has become a key support for this dynamic; so much so that, with support of the accelerated development of technologies and techniques, the powers that be aim to transform it into a paradigm of the future, under the formula of the "information society" or some similar figure.

It is important to point out that there are two central components at the basis of the development of information and communication technologies. One of them is digitization, that allows the conversion of all types of information -data, text, sound, image, video, codes, computer programs- into computer language, with a codification system based on a binary digit sequence. The other is related to the extraordinary progress of electronic components: semiconductors, integrated circuits, transistors and microprocessors.

On the basis of that common language, the creation of protocols that allow for sharing information among computers has been possible, which, when integrated with the telecommunications systems (that today include powerful and integrated satellites) and networking technology, allow for the transmission of any type of message using a single channel, thus forming the basis of the new communication and information technologies. This integration of technologies sustains the logic of technological convergence, that is a fundamental characteristic of ICTs. That is, it is a multipurpose technology in terms of required infrastructure and channels, which gives it a flexible character. This is also expressed in the area of services.

The main expression of such technological developments for the common person is, without doubt, the Internet, and it is not by chance that it has become the friendliest face to sell economic globalization.

In practice, communications have not just undergone substantial internal changes (subordination of the word to the image, live transmissions, multimedia, etc.), but they have also become one of the most dynamic sectors with deep repercussions in all realms of societal life.

Communications appear today as one of the cutting-edge sectors of the economy, both because of their profitability and because they appear to hold the key to the so-called "new economy". Therefore, in the heat of economic globalization, it is the sector that has proved the most virulent in expanding business concentration and transnationalization, a fact which has resulted in the emergence of veritable "moguls", with ramifications in all corners of the globe.

These megacorporations have been formed through the fusion of print media, television chains, cable television, film, software, telecommunications, entertainment, tourism and others, such that the products and services of their different branches are able to mutually publicize one another, in the search for broadening their respective market niches. Today, just seven corporations dominate the world communications market; if checks on this oligopolic logic are not established, tomorrow they may be even less.

Since it is a global project, this process has been accompanied by the imposition, on the one hand, of policies of liberalization and deregulation, especially in the area of telecommunications, designed to eliminate any state regulation or arena that might interfere with transnational expansion, and on the other hand, of norms -such as the novel interpretation of intellectual property rights- oriented to safeguarding their interests and to definitively ensuring that information and cultural production are treated as simple commodities.

Under the cover of neoliberal dogma, a highly concentrated media and cultural industry has taken shape, that is governed by exclusively commercial criteria, where what counts is profitability over and above the public interest, and the consumer paradigm before one of citizens. It is therefore not surprising that the outlook for the future is one of abundant information that will be free, but banal, although spectacularized by the media, while quality information will only be accessible to those who are in a position to pay.

This thrust is so forceful that in its passage it has practically swept away media of a public character, privatizing most and forcing the rest to become commercialized, thus eroding their role as spaces to feed into a broad and pluralistic debate, open to the different perspectives, ideas and cultural expressions present in society.

In the midst of these developments, the media have also become a crucial arena for shaping the public space and the citizenry itself, -crucial, in the

sense that although it is not a new phenomenon, it is an intense and substantive one- due both to the weight they bring to bear on the definition of public agendas and their capacity to establish the legitimacy of certain debates. The predominance of the media is such, with respect to other venues of social mediation -parties, unions, churches, educational establishments, etc.-, that these can only prevail by continually recurring to the media.

In this context, there is a real danger of the "dictatorship of the market" becoming consolidated through the enormous power it has concentrated, in the realm of communications, to win people's "minds and hearts".

Indeed, as the monopoly to transmit ideas, information and culture expands, what we observe is that, in the media, plurality and diversity are progressively disregarded, due to the systematic narrowing of perspectives expressed in them. This "comparative advantage" resulting from the concentration of such resources, has become the strategic pillar for the ideological advancement of neoliberal globalization.

In spite of the pressure exerted on countries around the world to make them open their markets (foremost, that of communication), the progress of globalization in this field has been undoubtedly less than that achieved in the ideological sphere, where "single thought", to use Ramonet's phrase, has caused great damage. As a result, the neoliberal premise that the market is the only entity capable of organizing the distribution of resources has spread with force, not leaving room for the intervention or regulation by the State. This implies a world where "freedom" is measured by the absence of obstacles for participants in the market.

In this framework, the discourse on "free press" converted into "free enterprise" has recovered space. We should recall that the fathers of neoliberal thinking associated free press with the preservation of public life beyond the State, with the hypothesis that freedom of opinion must be guaranteed, with an independent press as the main means to express the diversity of points of view and create an informed public opinion watchful of abuses of state power. In this line of thought, it was taken for granted that free enterprise was the basis for freedom of expression, considering that economic laissez-faire was the natural counterpart for individual freedom of thought and expression.

Its concern with freedom of expression, in a historical context marked by absolutist governments, referred to the threat of state intervention in the public sphere. Thus, it is specially dishonest or tricky to use this premise as a shield to cover up the larger threat to freedom of expression that we presently face: the establishment of commercial media monopolies. Commercial media measure their success in terms of the profits they make on two fronts, those resulting from the sale of products to the audience and those from the sale of audience to advertisers, which have nothing to do with the public interest.

In fact, billing advertisers prevails in this double profit-oriented game, to the point where publicity has become the factor that determines programming guidelines and the success criteria of communication media as a whole. Thus, alongside globalization of the media, the dissemination of messages that promote consumerism dominates the field, subordinating cultural differences to the predominance of the life style based on consumption that characterizes Northern urban centers. It is a universe where there is virtually no room for the public interest, since advertisers do not like programs of this type because little or nothing is "sold" through them.

With these developments, one of the injured parties is journalism, as its profession -with the concentration operating in the sector- has been displaced by the entertainment logic guided by "light" and frivolous concerns, to the extent that the current dominating "winning" formula nowadays is: sex, sensationalism and violence. Under these new parameters, the search for truth, constantly hailed by the western press, is becoming a good purpose diluted by market imperatives, in whose perspective, consumers rather than citizens are those who matter. And in order to reach consumers, the priority has become to obtain standard products for every audience, beyond its social strata, country or culture. Since business is business, this priority has also been extended to the information sphere. Thus, the amount of commercial data and propaganda the media offers us is gradually more overwhelming from day to day, while information decreases and deteriorates.

Even more serious, this trend, that is now supported by the so-called "entertainment industry" and of "leisure services", appears as a serious threat to the cultural diversity of the planet. Its transnational expansion erodes local and traditional cultures, insofar as it promotes basically and in a subjugating manner the life style and cultural values of economically and politically dominant powers, particularly of the United States.

Under the lens of the global market, "cultural diversity" is now being reduced to offering a range of products and services to satisfy consumers' "tastes" in the broadest possible way, who -additionally- are systematically monitored (even with resources from espionage itself) by specialists in establishing "market niches".

As we have gained awareness of the risks of biodiversity degradation, it is now time to do so on the risk represented by large communication conglomerates in the field of cultural diversity. That is, we need to take care of the information and cultural environment, in the same way that taking care of the environment has become imperative, as a guarantee for the future.

The course of this tendency can only be restrained and modified through forceful, sustained and proactive citizen action. Paths have been opened by a multiplicity of initiatives on different planes. Collectives that endeavor to guarantee universal access and effective appropriation of new information and communications technologies; exchange networks that develop open source software; concertation bodies for advocacy in decision-making spheres in

defense of information and communication rights; entities dedicated to monitoring and implementing critical action in the face of sexist, racist or exclusionary media content; education programs designed to develop a critical reading of the media (media literacy); user associations that seek to influence media programming; independent, alternative, community and other media, that are committed to democratizing communications; community and information exchange networks, interlinked through the Internet; researchers who contribute to deciphering the keys to the present system and to pointing out possible alternatives; people's organizations that join the struggle around communication issues; journalists' associations that raise the banner of ethics and independence; women's collectives that build networks for advancing a gender perspective in communication; cultural movements that refuse to be relegated to oblivion; popular education networks; observatories in favor of the freedom of information; those who associate to oppose monopolies; movements in defense of public service media; and a long etcetera.

All these are the scattered seeds of citizen resistance, that need to multiply and grow together into a broad movement of social movements joined by the struggle for the democratization of communications, as a battle trench where the fight for the future itself of democracy is being fought out. It is not, therefore, an issue that only regards those who are directly or indirectly linked to communication: it challenges all social actors. And the WSF can become this necessary and pressing meeting-space.