

## CONTENTS

<b>Chapters</b>	<b>Page No.</b>
1. An Introduction to Public Relations	1-16
2. The Concepts of Public and PR Process	17-40
3. Concept of Public Opinion	41-66
4. An Introduction to Advertising	67-109
5. Advertising Media	110-160

## **BJMC 2<sup>nd</sup> Year Syllabus**

### **PAPER –IV**

### **PUBLIC RELATIONS AND ADVERTISING-I**

**Public Relations :** Definition of PR, distinguishing features of PR Communication; objectives and functions of PR; concept of publics; internal and external; The PR process : research, planning, communication and evaluation tools of PR. Public opinion and PR: Concept of public opinion, factors influencing public opinion, opinion leaders and flow of opinion, persuasion and public opinion.

**Advertising:** Definition; communication and advertising; advertising vis-à-vis publicity, public relations and marketing, importance of trademarks and packaging in advertising.

**Advertising Media:** Concepts of media and medium vehicle; characteristics: brief discussion on their application to newspapers, magazine television and out of home media.

# CHAPTER—1

*An Introduction to  
Public Relations*

## AN INTRODUCTION TO PUBLIC RELATIONS

NOTES

### STRUCTURE

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Definition of PR
- 1.3 Features of PR
- 1.4 Objectives and Functions of PR
- 1.5 Summary
- 1.6 Glossary
- 1.7 Review Questions
- 1.8 Further Readings

### 1.1 INTRODUCTION

Public relations (PR) is an essential and integrated component of public policy or service. The professional public relations activity will ensure the benefit to the citizens, for whom the policies or services are meant. This programme aims at imparting such professional PR skill. Public relations is the practice of managing the spread of information between an individual or an organization and the public. Public relations may include an organization or individual gaining exposure to their audiences using topics of public interest and news items that do not require direct payment. The aim of public relations by a company often is to persuade the public, investors, partners, employees, and other stakeholders to maintain a certain point of view about it, its leadership, products, or of political decisions. Common activities include speaking at conferences, winning industry awards, working with the press, and employee communication. Public Relations is the practice of managing the communication between an organization and its 'publics'. Public relations gains an organization individual exposure to their audience(s) using topics of public interest and news items that provide third-party endorsement and does not involve direct payment.

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## 1.2 DEFINITION OF PR

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### NOTES

The term 'public relations' is often confusing because it is frequently used inaccurately. According to many self-called PR practitioners as well as managers publicity, like public relations and corporate advertising, consists of promotional programme elements that may be of great benefit to the marketing. Continuing, they recommend that the use of public relations in the promotion mix is a very good idea taking into consideration that:

- public relations is a cheap mean of communication, because mostly is coming free through publicity, and
- it is perceived by consumers as a more credible source than other media of promotion, such as advertising.

Communication is so much more than mastering the art of public speaking or deftly turning a phrase in a memorandum. It is the very act of leadership. It is who you are and what you do. It is the respect and honuor you pay to others. As a result, public relations is related to the promotional activities, and is one technical activity used by marketing to promote the image of corporations and products.

Public relations is a unique management function which helps organizations to establish and maintain mutual lines of communications, understanding, acceptance, and cooperation with their public(s).

It involves the management of problems or issues; helps management to keep informed on and responsive to public opinion; defines and emphasizes the responsibility of the management to serve not only the organization but most importantly the public(s)' interest(s); helps management to stay familiar with environmental changes; serving as a warning system to help predict trends; and uses research and symmetrical communication techniques as its principal tools.

### Definition

Public relations is the management function that identifies, establishes and maintains mutually beneficial relationships between an organisation and the various publics on whom its success or failure depends.

PR is an aspect of communications involving the relations between an entity subject, to, or seeking public attention of the various publics that are, or may be interested in it. The entity seeking attention may be a business corporation, an individual politician, a performer or author, a government or government

## NOTES

agency, a charitable organization, a religious body, or almost any other person or organization. The publics may include segments as narrow as female voters of a particular political party who are between 35 and 50 years of age or the shareholders in a particular corporation; or the publics may be as broad as any national population or the world at large. The concerns of public relations operate both ways between the subject entity, which may be thought of as the client, and the publics involved.

The important elements of public relations are to acquaint the client with the public conceptions of the client and to affect these perceptions by focusing, curtailing, amplifying, or augmenting information about the client as it is conveyed to the publics.

Public relations encompasses a variety of marketing activities that strengthen organizations' credibility, enhance organizations' image and develop goodwill. These are usually targeted directly at an audience, such as speeches, special events, newsletters, and annual reports.

Public relations involves communicating who you are, what you do, why you do it, and how you make a difference.

### **The Difference between Publicity and Public Relations**

The terms 'public relations' and 'publicity' are often misused. They are not interchangeable. Publicity is only one function of public relations. It is media coverage, i.e., news stories, feature articles, talk show interviews, editorials and reviews.

Other commonly confused terms are 'publicity' and 'advertising'. The key distinction is you pay for advertising. Because publicity is free, it is more credible and more likely to have an impact on the reader or viewer.

Advertising is generally not considered a public relations function.

### ***According to the Public Relations Institute of America***

Public relations is the deliberate, planned and sustained effort to establish and maintain a relationship and an understanding between an organization and its publics.

PR is a broad and complex activity although its basic objective is simple: to communicate in order to achieve understanding through knowledge.

Consequently, PR exists, liked or not, and all modern organizations, because of their size and complexity, need and are concerned with PR. Good PR with the conscious effort to inform and be informed provides knowledge, understanding, goodwill and a good reputation. PR exists to keep institutions

## NOTES

alert to an ever-shifting environment of circumstance and public opinion. PR is an on-going activity, hence the word 'sustained' in the definition. It must anticipate problems and eliminate causes before problems arise.

It is something that is not tangible; this is what sets it apart from advertising. Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary defines PR as "the business of inducing the public to have goodwill toward a person, firm or institution".

"Public relations is a planned effort to influence opinion through socially responsible and acceptable performance, based on mutually satisfactory two-way communication." PR can be used to build rapport with employees, customers, investors, voters, or the general public. Almost any organization that has a stake in how it is portrayed in the public arena employs some level of public relations. The department is considered as a link between the company and the media.

**Ivy Lee and Edward Louis Bernays established the first definition of public relations in the early 1900s as:** "A management function, which tabulates public attitudes, defines the policies, procedures, and interests of an organization... followed by executing a program of action to earn public understanding and acceptance."

**In August 1978, the World Assembly of Public Relations Associations defined the field as:** "The art and social science of analyzing trends, predicting their consequences, counseling organizational leaders, and implementing planned programs of action, which will serve both the organization and the public interest."

**Public Relations Society of America, a professional trade association, defined public relations in 1982 as:** "Public relations helps an organization and its publics adapt mutually to each other."

**In 2011 and 2012, the PRSA developed a crowd-sourced definition:** "Public relations is a strategic communication process that builds mutually beneficial relationships between organizations and their publics."

Public relations can also be defined as the practice of managing communication between an organization and its publics.

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### 1.3 FEATURES OF PR

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The main features of public relations are given as below:

**1. Diligence:** There's no getting away from the fact that hard work pays off. As Holly Knowlman, social media executive at PR firm the Vivid Consultancy

## NOTES

says: "It goes without saying that everyone needs to love working hard and going the extra mile for clients."

**2. Knowledge:** At least one person must have online skills, from appreciating the power of social media to understand how SEO really works. Obviously, which skills are needed depends on the brief. Knowlman adds that these skills must be happily shared, saying: "One of the key reasons our team works so well together is the fact that there are no monster egos in the office. There's a real willingness to share ideas and help each other out on our accounts because no one is secretly scheming to grab the limelight."

**3. Ability to Get on with Others:** There is no value in having a genius in the team if they can't communicate their ideas. Amanda Hassall, director of PR agency Six Degrees, believes that being a team player is probably the most important quality a member needs to have.

**4. Planning Skills:** Once you are confident that everyone is happy to share ideas, Hassell says that the next most important skills are the ability to create and follow a strategy. Because at the end of the day it is all about "results, results, results".

**5. Strong Leadership:** Or as Hassell puts it, "The grande fromage—the one who pulls everyone together like Hannibal in the A Team!" It is important that this person ensures the team is motivated, and can also have a laugh, so it helps if they also have a good sense of humour.

**6. Creative Talent:** Knowledge is of no use unless it can be used to help inform original campaigns. It is good to have creative thinkers in the team who can push boundaries.

**7. Passion:** Experience, talent and ambition are well and good, but it is the spark of passion that gets the fire going. Camilla Brown, senior accounts executive at communications agency Manifest London says: "What takes the team from competent to perfect is when there is passion for every aspect of PR. Members of the team should wake up hungry for news, live and breathe social media, be inspired by design and go gaga over SEO."

So is that everything covered then? Well not quite. Brown concludes that the last talent a team player needs to have, is "the ability to make a good brew"!

Simon Glazer, board director at PR agency Nelson Bostock, describes the perfect team:

"Creating the perfect PR team is one of the eternal challenges of agency life, be they client-facing, new business or senior management. With the right team, the sky's the limit, but the wrong mix, or poor team dynamic, can

## NOTES

potentially lead to communication breakdown, performance issues and, eventually, dissatisfied clients.”

“In my PR heaven, the best performing teams should ideally include individuals that are aware of their unique strengths, and, more importantly, where they fall short. An ideal team for me needs a combination of researchers, planners, strategists, creatives, client service operators and collaborators.”

“The most important point is that PR firms need to be wary of building teams based solely on the same personality type, method of working or time available at that moment. This is a recipe for long-term problems which can have a negative effect, not only among colleagues, but also clients. For example, endless concept creation and brainstorming may well demotivate the planning types, whereas too much analysis of the programme detail is likely to concern the strategists.”

“The PR reality, however, is that the most successful and progressive PR people need to show a more flexible mindset and aptitude across all these skill areas, even if their core strengths lie predominantly in one or two. The perfect PR team does exist, but we need to spend a little more time analysing personality types and client fit, when putting a team together. If we invest a little more effort upfront in putting that team together, the positive outcomes will become evident to all.”

### Administrative Duties of PR

The PR does the following administrative duties:

**Supervisory:** This job is responsible for recruiting, supervising, training, and evaluating unpaid intern positions.

**Budgetary:** This job has partial responsibility for budgeting at the programme level including providing input on the public relations budget, tracking, spending within each line item, and managing funds allocated for specific projects.

**Strategic Planning:** This job has partial responsibility for strategic planning at the programme level including providing input on overall goals for the public relations programme.

**Policies/Procedures:** This job carries out day-to-day activities in accordance with established policies and procedures.

**Compliance:** This job carries out day-to-day activities in accordance with federal, state, and local laws, rules, and regulations as well as City policies and procedures.



**Council Communications:** This job carries out day-to-day activities in accordance with Council's adopted priorities and direction.

**Reporting:** This job has partial responsibility for reporting including compiling reports for city commissions and staff.

## **NOTES**

### **Internal and External Customers**

PR provides excellent customer service to both internal and external customers PR:

- Develops and maintains proactive and positive relationships with various media outlets including: alerting the media to CVB activities; responding to media requests; preparing news releases; and researching, developing, and pitching story ideas.
- Builds and maintains relationships within the community including working with hotels, restaurants, retail, local organizations, NAU, and attractions to serve as a public relations resource and keeps informed of area-wide activities that would generate public interest towards the goal of increasing visitation.
- Provides copywriting and editing for public relations activities and CVB publications and collateral including: researching, writing, and editing articles, advertorials, press releases and media kits; assists with CVB segments of City newsletters; performing miscellaneous writing assignments; creating, writing, and distributing the CVB e-newsletters; creates content for website and social media outlets.
- Conducts media familiarization tours including: coordinating, organizing, and attending press trips; preparing itineraries; organizing events; securing hotels, attractions, dining and meeting accommodations; and recruiting and qualifying journalists. Also makes necessary preparations for media visiting Flagstaff, assisting with story background and development.
- Conducts online public relations activities including maintaining the CVB's online press room and takes the lead with maintaining the CVB's presence on social media sites.
- Organizes and attends media events on behalf of the CVB including: travelling nationally and internationally to present to media outlets, dignitaries, and key decision-makers; participating in media marketplace events; and following up on leads, and works closely with consumer travel, travel trade and meetings trade journalists to promote the greater Flagstaff area.
- Tracks the CVB's public relations activities and results including maintaining organization of press clippings, videos, and/or promotional materials and

## NOTES

entry into the media database. Provides timely information to stakeholders on publicity that was generated through CVB efforts.

- Plans and coordinates the online presence of the CVB on various social media outlets. Assists with maintenance of content calendar and editorial schedules.
- Develops relationships with other key tourism organizations such as the Arizona Office of Tourism and other statewide CVBs.
- Performs related duties, as assigned.

### **PR Professionals Needs the Following Skills**

#### **Language Skills:**

- Ability to read, analyze, and interpret general business periodicals, professional journals, technical procedures, or governmental regulations.
- Ability to write reports, business correspondence, and procedure manuals.
- Ability to effectively present information and respond to questions from groups of managers, clients, customers, and the general public.

#### **Mathematical Skills:**

- Ability to calculate figures and amounts such as discounts, interest, commissions, proportions, percentages, area, circumference, and volume.
- Ability to apply concepts of basic algebra and geometry.

#### **Reasoning Ability:**

- Ability to solve practical problems and deal with a variety of concrete variables in situations where only limited standardization exists.
- Ability to interpret a variety of instructions furnished in written, oral, diagram, or schedule form.
- Ability to exercise considerable judgement and discretion.
- Ability to work in a team environment.
- Ability to work in a fast-paced environment and to meet deadlines.
- Ability to make oral and visual presentations to groups of all sizes.

While performing the duties of this job, the employee is regularly required to sit; use hands and fingers to handle, or feel; and talk or hear. The employee is occasionally required to stand; walk; reach with hands and arms; climb or balance and stoop, kneel, crouch, or crawl.

The employee must regularly lift and /or move up to 10 pounds, frequently lift and/or move up to 25 pounds and occasionally lift and/or move up to 50 pounds.

The noise level in the work environment is usually moderate.

## NOTES

### **Advantages of Public Relations – PR**

There are many advantages of Public Relations which help business in many ways. They are.

#### **Credibility**

Because PR communications are not perceived in the same light as advertising—that is, the public does not realize the organization either directly or indirectly paid for them—they tend to have more credibility. The fact that the media are not being compensated for providing the information may lead receivers to consider the news more truthful and credible. For example, an article in newspapers or magazines discussing the virtues of aspirin may be perceived very much as more credible than an ad for a particular brand of aspirin.

#### **Cost**

In both absolute and relative terms, the cost of PR is very low, especially when the possible effects are considered. While a firm can employ Ad agencies and spend millions of dollars on Ad, for smaller companies, this form of communication may be the most affordable alternative available.

#### **Avoidance of Clutter**

Because they are typically perceived, as news items, PR messages are not subject to the clutter of ads. A story regarding a new product, introduction of break through is treated as a news item and is likely to receive attention.

#### **Lead Generation**

Information about the technological innovations, medical break-through and the like results almost immediately in a multitude of inquiries. These inquiries may give the firm some quality sales lead.

#### **Ability to Reach Specific Groups**

Because some products appeal to only small market segments, it is not feasible to engage in advertising and / or promotions to reach them. If the firm does not have the financial capabilities to engage in promotional expenditures,

the best way to communicate to these groups is through PR.

### Image Building

Effective PR helps to develop positive image for the organization. A strong image is insurance against later misfortunes.

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## 1.4 OBJECTIVES AND FUNCTIONS OF PR

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Public relations functions are designed to benefit an organization by building trust and credibility with targeted groups. In addition, the functions of public relations help raise awareness about an organization as well as give it a chance to define, control and distribute its message to internal and external audiences. Effective public relations functions can also promote an organization or defend it from attack on its reputation.

The main objectives of PR is to:

- Inform
- Persuade
- Motivate
- Mutual understanding.

### Functions of Public Relations

Public relations is a unique management function. Public relations practitioners need to be part of the total organization, in surveying the environment and in helping to define the mission, goals, and objectives of the organization. The participation of the head of the public relations department in the dominant coalition, for defining the mission and planning the present and future strategy of the organization.

They function as a liaison between the organization and its external and internal publics. To put it in different words, public relations managers have one foot inside the organization and the other outside.

Public relations departments help organizations maintain mutual lines of communications, understanding, acceptance, and cooperation with their public(s).

The first step of strategic management of public relations is to—make a list of the people who are linked to or have a stake in the organization after thoroughly researching their public(s) ranking them according to their impact on the organization or the extent to which the organization believes it should.

moderate its consequences on them; plan ongoing communication programmes with the most important public(s). The communication activities between an organization and its public(s), need to be based on the principle of symmetrical communication.

As a result communications, understanding, acceptance, and cooperation with their public(s). Public relations departments help organizations to manage problems or issues. Organizations in which the public relations department is a part of their decision management level, will have resolved most of the problems with publics before they become issues.

Excellent public relations departments make sure that they scan the environment around the organization and balance their organization mission with external and internal demands.

On the one hand, they must interpret the philosophies, policies, programs, and practices of their management to the public(s); and on the other hand, they must translate the attitudes and reactions of the public(s) to their management. Even when they are not represented in the dominant coalition, as environmental scanners, public relations practitioners are sensitive to changes taking place in the larger environment surrounding the organization that may influence the public opinion.

Public relations serves not only the organization but most importantly the public(s)' interest(s). Public relations practitioners must constantly communicate with many different publics, each having own special needs and requiring different types of communications.

Public relations practitioners' role is to identify with critical publics with whom the organization must communicate on a frequent and direct basis. Under the quittance of public relations, organizations learn how to get more sensitive to the self interests, desires, and concerns of each public. They understand that self interest groups today are themselves more complex and with more power than ever before. They harmonizing actions necessary to win and maintain support among each groups. They emphasize and achieve a win-win arrangement. Excellent public relations departments must use research techniques as its principal tools for developing decisions.

If communicators and public relations practitioners are decision-makers, operations research can contribute to public relations management by helping to provide decisions that produce efficient and/or effective courses of action in a rigorous and demonstrable manner. Operations research can be used to help develop well formulated objectives, i.e.,

- assist in goal setting;

## NOTES

## NOTES

- discover states of nature (situation analysis);
- identify possible strategies;
- competitive strategies;
- handle excessive numbers of strategies and states of nature;
- determine outcome;
- evaluate outcomes, that is quantifying the outcome's desirability; and
- select a specific strategy that is the best or the most efficient or both.

The three primary forms of public relations research, as they have been suggested are methods, mostly indirect, of observing human behaviour surveys to reveal attitudes and opinions, communication audits to evaluate how an organization is doing with respect to particular public(s), and unobtrusive measures such as fact finding, content analysis, and readability studies. As a result helps management to stay familiar with environmental changes; to predict trends.

Organizations with good public relations departments are always using two ways of symmetrical systems of communication. Under an asymmetrical communication system, organizations are striving to convince their practitioners that the organization knows the best and that publics benefit from cooperating with the organizations' decisions.

Thus, the role of the practitioners is to persuade publics to follow decisions made by the organization. On the other hand, organizations that are basing their communication systems on symmetrical models recognize that they cannot isolate themselves from their environment. They acknowledge that publics and other organizations operating in the same external and/or internal environment are interrelated with the organization, and freely exchanging information with those organizations and publics can be made, establishing an equilibrium state that constantly move as the environment changes. Symmetrical models of communication are conflict resolution oriented rather than persuasion. Conflicts are resolved through negotiation, communication, and compromise and not through force, manipulation, coercion, or violence.

### **The Four Models of PR**

For scientific persuasion purposes, two-way imbalanced effects communication, source—receiver—source com. Model, research is formative with evaluation of attitudes, typical use in competitive business and agencies.

For mutual understanding purposes, two-way balanced effects, symmetrical

mod., formative with evaluation of understanding, typical used in regulated business and agencies.

## **Media Representation**

Representing a company or individual to the media is one of the more well-known functions of public relations. Media management includes developing and distributing both written and video news releases, pitching stories to journalists and responding to reporter inquiries. Depending on the organization, spokesperson duties may also be handled by the public relations department. Media representation also includes monitoring and measuring news coverage of the organization or individual.

## **Crisis Communication**

Protecting a company from a threat to its reputation is another function of public relations. While media representation is a part of crisis communication, preparing a crisis communication plan and training leadership and employees on its components is handled by the public relations department. A crisis communication plan developed by a public relations team typically includes determining specific logistics for expected reporters, the designation of an official spokesperson for the crisis, the development of targeted messages for internal and external audiences and training for company leadership on how to handle tough or hostile questions.

## **Content Development**

Preparing documents, written and electronic, is another function of public relations. Examples of contents developed by a public relations department include company newsletters, blogs, speeches and annual reports. Contents may also be written for another member of the company, such as a letter to employees from the CEO. Often, a public relations department will work with another department to ensure a project fits with an overall company message. For example, a public relations department may work with advertising and marketing departments on creating a description, report or any other content about a new product or service.

## **Stakeholder Relations**

Stakeholders are any persons or groups who have an interest in or could be affected by an organization's objectives or actions. Representing an organization

## **NOTES**

to stakeholder groups is another function of public relations. For example, stakeholder groups may include local or federal governments, advocacy groups or lenders.

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### **Social Media Management**

Establishing, monitoring or growing an organization's or individual's online presence is another function of public relations. Specific tasks may include creating or updating facebook pages, tweeting information and keeping an eye on what others are saying in cyberspace about an organization.

Public relations professionals serve a variety of functions within a company or organization. While the specific tasks vary, central to all these functions is a careful and tactful communication tailored specifically to the audience, whether that audience is consumers, other industry members, investors or the media. It is the public relations representative's responsibility to maintain positive relationships between the employer and all those with whom the employer interacts.

### **Consumer Interactions**

Much of the success of a company depends upon how a consumer sees the company. If a company projects an air of indifference towards its clientele or if the company has a reputation for dishonesty, consumers will not only avoid the company themselves but also will actively campaign among their friends, family and associates to discourage them from patronizing the company. It is the public relations officer's role to ensure that the company conveys to its clients a genuine interest in their needs and that the clients believe they are dealing with a trustworthy company. The public relations office will participate in the formation of company policy for dealing with customer complaints. PR personnel may also write and distribute a weekly newsletter to clientele.

### **Media Interactions**

As the dissemination of information becomes more efficient, the necessity of managing a company's public profile becomes more important. Public relations officers are responsible for providing the media with press releases to promote company actions that are likely to increase customer support. For example, if the company implements a new, greener production method, the public relations officer would write and issue a press release emphasizing the company's eco-friendly approach. Conversely, if the media report a fact that is likely to reflect poorly on the company, the public relations officer would write a press release to diminish the damage.



## Industry Interactions

Although dealing well with the consumer and with the media is essential to the success of a company, so too is dealing well with other industry members. Despite the competitive nature of virtually all markets, interaction and sometimes collaboration among industry members is necessary for furthering the cause of the industry itself. For example, if government regulations are hindering the productivity of the industry, collaboration between industry members can create political pressure that may result in a change of the regulations. Thus, a public relations officer must also maintain a healthy relationship with other industry members by issuing communications on topics of mutual interest.

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### 1.5 SUMMARY

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Public relations is the practice of managing the spread of information between an individual or an organization and the public. Public relations may include an organization or individual gaining exposure to their audiences using topics of public interest and news items that do not require direct payment. The aim of public relations by a company often is to persuade the public, investors, partners, employees, and other stakeholders to maintain a certain point of view about it, its leadership, products, or of political decisions. Common activities include speaking at conferences, winning industry awards, working with the press, and employee communication. Public relations is the practice of managing the communication between an organization and its 'publics'.

"Public relations is a planned effort to influence opinion through socially responsible and acceptable performance, based on mutually satisfactory two-way communication." PR can be used to build rapport with employees, customers, investors, voters, or the general public. Almost any organization that has a stake in how it is portrayed in the public arena employs some level of public relations. The department is considered as a link between the company and the media.

Public relations functions are designed to benefit an organization by building trust and credibility with targeted groups. In addition, the functions of public relations help raise awareness about an organization as well as give it a chance to define, control and distribute its message to internal and external audiences.

Public relations is a unique management function. Public relations practitioners need to be part of the total organization, in surveying the environment and in helping to define the mission, goals, and objectives of the organization.

The participation of the head of the public relations department in the dominant coalition, for defining the mission and planning the present and future strategy of the organization.

## NOTES

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### 1.6 GLOSSARY

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- **Communication:** The mutual process through which persons interpret messages in order to coordinate individual and social meanings.
- **Mass Media:** The channels of mass communication. Sociologically speaking in modern times the 'community' has been replaced by a 'mass', a set of autonomous and disconnected individuals, with little sense of community.

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### 1.7 REVIEW QUESTIONS

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1. What do you mean by PR?
2. Define PR.
3. What are the features of PR? Explain.
4. Discuss the objectives and functions of Public relations.

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### 1.8 FURTHER READINGS

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# CHAPTER—2

*The Concepts of  
Public and PR Process*

## THE CONCEPTS OF PUBLIC AND PR PROCESS

NOTES

### STRUCTURE

- 2.1 Introduction
- 2.2 Concept of Publics
- 2.3 Process of PR
- 2.4 Evaluation Tools of PR
- 2.5 Summary
- 2.6 Glossary
- 2.7 Review Questions
- 2.8 Further Readings

### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

In public relations and communication science, publics are groups of individual people, and the public (a.k.a. the general public) is the totality of such groupings. This is a different concept to the sociological concept of the public sphere. The concept of a public has also been defined in political science, psychology, marketing, and advertising. In public relations and communication science, it is one of the more ambiguous concepts in the field. Although it has definitions in the theory of the field that have been formulated from the early 20th century onwards, it has suffered in more recent years from being blurred, as a result of conflation of the idea of a public with the notions of audience, market segment, community, constituency, and stakeholder.

The name "public" originates with the Latin "populus" or "poplicus", and in general denotes some mass population ("the people") in association with some matter of common interest. So in political science and history, a public is a population of individuals in association with civic affairs, or affairs of office or state. In social psychology, marketing, and public relations, a public has a more

## NOTES

situational definition. John Dewey defined a public as a group of people who, in facing a similar problem, recognize it and organize themselves to address it. Dewey's definition of a public is thus situational: people organized about a situation. Built upon this situational definition of a public is the situational theory of publics by James E. Grunig (Grunig 1983), which talks of non-publics (who have no problem), latent publics (who have a problem), aware publics (who recognize that they have a problem), and active publics (who do something about their problem).

In public relations and communication theory, a public is distinct from a stakeholder or a market. A public is a subset of the set of stakeholders for an organization, that comprises those people concerned with a specific issue. While a market has an exchange relationship with an organization, and is usually a passive entity that is created by the organization, a public does not necessarily have an exchange relationship, and is both self-creating and self-organizing. Publics are targeted by public relations efforts. In this, target publics are those publics whose involvement is necessary for achieving organization goals; intervening publics are opinion formers and mediators, who pass information to the target publics; and influentials are publics that the target publics turn to for consultation, whose value judgements are influential upon how a target public will judge any public relations material.

Public relations theory perspectives on publics are situational, per Dewey and Grunig; mass, where a public is simply viewed as a population of individuals; agenda-building, where a public is viewed as a condition of political involvement that is not transitory; and "homo narrans", where a public is (in the words of Gabriel M. Vasquez, assistant Professor in the School of Communication at the University of Houston) a collection of "individuals that develop a group consciousness around a problematic situation and act to solve the problematic situation".

One non-situational concept of a public is that of Kirk Hallahan, professor at Colorado State University, who defines a public as "a group of people who relate to an organization, who demonstrate varying degrees of activity—passivity, and who might (or might not) interact with others concerning their relationship with the organization".

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## 2.2 CONCEPT OF PUBLICS

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Public opinion has different meanings depending on whether it acts as a critical authority in connection with a mandate that power be subject to publicity,

or it acts as a moulded object of staged display. The two aspects of publicity and public opinion do not stand in relationship of norm to fact. Critical and manipulative publicity are of different orders. The public behaves in a different way in each manifestation. One is based on public opinion, the other on non-public opinion.

Critical publicity is more than a norm. It determines much of the procedures to which the political exercise and balance of power is bound. Modern states rely on public opinion to legitimate and authorize power but cannot prove its existence. There are two paths to define public opinion. One leads back to the position of liberalism, which constituted a critical public in the midst of a larger one that merely acclaimed. The element of publicity that guarantees rationality is to be salvaged at the expense of that which guarantees universal accessibility. The other path leads to a concept of public opinion that concentrates solely on institutional criteria. Government and parliament can be seen as mouthpieces of popular opinion or the majority party. The weakness of this theory is that it replaces the public with institutions and makes it nondescript.

Public opinion fully appeared as a problematic entity in the final quarter of the nineteenth century. Habermas analyses the socio-psychological and theoretical interpretations of public opinion. Public opinion became a socio-psychological analysis of group processes. Once public opinion is reduced to group behaviour, (a category that is between public and private) the articulation of the link between group opinion and public authority is left to the auxiliary science of public administration.

The only meaningful way to study the public sphere is to analyse its development and structural transformation. Conflict between the two types of publicity needs to be taken seriously as a gauge of democratization within the social-welfare state. The concept of public opinion should remain, because the social-welfare state must be seen as one in which the public sphere authorizes the exercise of power. Within this model, two politically relevant areas of communication can be contrasted to each other: informal, non-public opinions and formal, institutionally authorized opinions. Various subdivisions of informal opinion operate; the taken-for-granted, the experiences of your own biography and the things discussed as self-evident by the culture industry. All operate within a group's communication processes.

Formal opinions relate to specific institutions, and circulate narrowly between press and government. They achieve no mutual correspondence with the non-organized mass public. The two spheres are linked by manipulative publicity

## NOTES

## NOTES

aimed at creating a following amongst a mediated public. A rare relationship exists between a few critical journals and those few individuals who form their opinions through literature. Strictly public opinion is possible only if the two domains are mediated by critical publicity acting in intra-organized public spheres. The degree to which opinion is public depends on the degree to which it emerges from this intra-organizational public sphere of an organization's members, and the extent to which that sphere communicates with another public sphere formed by the mass media between state and society. In the conditions of a large social-democratic state, the communicative interconnection of the public can be created only by critical publicity brought to life within intra-organizational public spheres. Modern forms of consensus and conflict could also be altered, because they change as society develops historically. In case of the structural transformation of the public sphere, we can study the extent, and the way, that it assumes its proper function, determines whether the exercise of power and domination remains as negative force, or is subject to change.

In this final section, Habermas analyses the term "public opinion" in its two key forms, and conducts a review of scholarly opinion about it. The two forms of public opinion are critical publicity and manipulative publicity. Critical publicity is that of the public sphere. It is based on true public opinion. It existed in its proper form in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, but is still a central part of the modern democratic state.

However, modern public opinion is something of a fiction. It is needed to legitimate the power of governments, but it cannot be accurately described or analyzed. The various approaches to it seem to be flawed. One can either claim that a critical public exists, surrounded by an uneducated, uncritical mass public, as Mill and Tocqueville argued, or claim that public opinion exists in state and social institutions. This removes some of the critical functions of the public, and confuses it with the institutions that surround it. Whatever MPs may claim, the British Parliament is not the centre of public opinion.

Habermas's assessment of social-psychological approaches to public opinion is almost a vindication of his own work. Unlike social psychologists, Habermas believes that the science of group behaviour cannot explain such a complex phenomenon as public opinion. The only real approach is to consider its structures and their transformation. The extent to which the proper form of public opinion exists in a democratic state is shown by the conflict between Habermas's "good" and "bad" publicity.

Ultimately, Habermas comes closer to the idea that public opinion is represented in institutions than he admits. Although large-scale public institutions are a dubious feature of modern society, they can do useful publicity work if they have an "internal" public sphere that communicates with the public sphere of the press and those of other organizations. This is a long way from public opinion in its original form, but it does offer some possibilities for rational-critical debate. Habermas ends by arguing that the best chance we have of regulating power and domination in the modern world is the proper operation of the public sphere.

One of the problems of today's world is the fact that the link between the private and the public sphere became immediate and lost all the critical connotations it once had had. The private discourse is thoroughly absorbed within the public discourse, and the public sphere is understood only as a place of application of private narratives. The skeleton plan of the proposed project consists in disconnecting the link between the private and the public discourse using critical tools, hence, in offering a definition of public as an exertion of emancipation from precisely that private sphere, within which, according to Habermas, the public once emerged as a concept.

The goal of the research is establishing a new definition of public for the present time, following an analysis of transformation of the concept of public from Enlightenment to the 21st century.

We will perform the analysis of the public from three different, mutually supplementing viewpoints:

- From the viewpoint of knowledge, where the research will be dedicated to techniques and processes needed for a scientific information, theory, or a paradigm, to become a public property and a common good. It is our view that this is not only a question of practicality, seeing that in the modern information society all forms of knowledge are always-already public, since they emerge within public institutions, on universities, institutes, in museums, inside various research groups, etc. In the era of Enlightenment one can perceive a slow, yet persistent turnaway from private research, motivated by personal interest of the scientist, publishing his achievements, to broader and more systematic projects and investigations that request collaboration between experts both within a specialized field as well as within an interdisciplinary domain. This public nature of knowledge calls for reflection, since new media which, causing an information overload, nowadays accessible via the internet (and no longer only in the libraries),

## NOTES

## NOTES

demand new skills of searching, sorting, classifying, differentiating, and, after all, reading as well.

- From the viewpoint of subject, a key element to every theory of public. We will proceed from the dilemma between Kantian and Hegelian conceptualization of the subject. According to Kant, the path leading from a private person, a proprietor, over the public space, held as reasoning in front of the reading public, and all the way to the world-justice and cosmopolitan society, is a linear, continuous one. Kant's ideal is a permanent substitution of politics with morality, the abolishment of politics. Hegel, however, offers a conceptual scheme, in which one can perceive a break between a private and a public person, attributing to each a different type of subjectivity. For this reason, Hegel regards politics as irreducible non-exchangeable with morality. Following Hegel, the research will try to show that the identity of a public subject is selective and reductive as a direct opposition to post-modern ethical thought.
- From the viewpoint of so called essentially public speech acts. The research will rethink the structure of the public subject as a subject of speech acts, outlining a rudimentary speech act situation only: a speaker as posed in front of the hearer, and the truth value, as derived from this setting.

The research goals go as follows: Definition, classification, and determination of all irreducibly public speech acts, that is, speech acts whose truth value depends on them being uttered publicly. We will offer a description of the speech act situation not bound by the symmetry of consensus, but by an essential asymmetry of the speaker and the hearer. The instance of verification will thus be transferred from the position of the speaker to the position of the hearer.

With the triad knowledge–subject–speech we will try to identify the coordinates of the public space as necessary to the constitution of information society.

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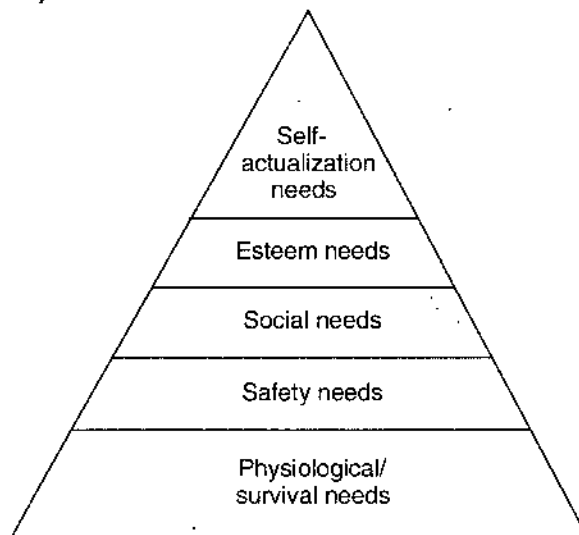
## 2.3 PROCESS OF PR

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In communication we are generally concerned with persuading people in one way or another, even if it's only persuading them that we're quite nice people. We therefore will often be concerned with examining people's needs, in order that we can respond to those needs in our communication. People's needs motivate them to act; if we can identify those needs, we have a chance of



motivating them to do what we want them to do, even if only attend to our communication in the first place. One humanist psychologist who is constantly referred to in the study of Communication is Abraham Maslow, who developed the 'hierarchy of needs' shown in the graphic.



Maslow emphasized the human need for self-actualization, the realization of one's full potential as a human being. According to Maslow, before one can set about self-actualization, a person has first to solve the problems associated with the four lower-level needs of hierarchy:

**Physical/Survival Needs:** You must satisfy your physical wants before you can take the next step up the motivational hierarchy;

**Safety Needs:** Once you have satisfied your basic biological needs, you can get on with exploring your environment. It is well known, however, that a child will not begin to explore unless it feels secure. But the drive for safety is in itself a motivator for exploration—when you know 'what's out there' in the world, your uncertainty is reduced, the world is more predictable and 'safe';

**Social Needs:** These are 'belongingness' needs. Maslow claims that we have an innate need to affiliate with others in search of affection and love. Through empathizing with others we learn also to see the world from different points of view;

**Esteem Needs:** The groups we affiliate will help us to set our life's goals. They can provide us with feedback on how well we are doing in pursuit of those goals. The closer we get, the more esteem we are likely to receive from others and feel for ourselves;

## NOTES

## NOTES

**Self-actualization Needs:** When we have acquired sufficient self-esteem, we are confident enough to go on to realize our full potential and expressing ourselves in our own unique way.

Maslow's hierarchy has the benefit of attempting a holistic account of human motivation, considering a range of influences on human behaviour. It is questionable whether, in the light of contemporary notions such as the decentred self, humanistic psychology's conception of the self is still tenable, though it has to be said that many people who have experienced Rogerian counselling will testify to its efficacy.

Maslow's hierarchy has also been criticized for being based on Maslow's study of successful individuals in Western society. To what extent it might apply to non-Western societies or to non-middle- or upper-class individuals is not clear. Nor is it clear why there should be five stages rather than sixty-eight and it is certainly not clear why he believes that we must progress through the stages—one could think of artists, for example, who have shown scant regard for their survival needs, or even esteem needs, appearing to jump straight to work on their self-actualization.

Certainly, it is hard to see how any but totally isolated people could satisfy their survival needs independently of, say, social needs. Hunter-gatherers live together, hunt and forage together, their survival is entirely dependent on society. So is mine of course in the sense that my ability to buy things from shops depends on certain infrastructures in society, but it's also the case that I can't buy things from shops without engaging in at least a rudimentary form of social intercourse. To separate out each of these needs in the way that Maslow does seems highly artificial. Nevertheless, there is some empirical evidence from Harlow's experiments with monkeys which tends to support Maslow's ideas.

Whatever criticisms may be made of Maslow, the notion that something like these needs seems to motivate people has been taken on by marketers. Think of the way that house insurance companies offer free smoke or burglar alarms as incentives (safety needs), all those adverts which show the product at the centre of groups of happy people (social needs) marketing which pushes the high status of the product (esteem needs). Microsoft's current emphasis is on exploration of ideas and one's self through modern technology. Their slogan is 'Where do you want to go today?' (self-actualisation needs).

## Source of Communicator

There are following sources of communicator:

- **Credibility:** The principal characteristic of the communicator affecting his or her persuasiveness is his or her credibility. Credibility itself is made up of a variety of factors:
- **Trustworthiness:** Is this person honest? Can I believe what he's telling me? If Bill Clinton has had an affair and not told his wife, how do I know he won't lie to me as well? Politicians will also try to undermine their opponents' credibility by pointing to self-contradictions in their past—if (former Labour Party leader) Neil Kinnock was vehemently opposed to Britain's membership of the European Union and in favour of unilateral nuclear disarmament, how can you believe him now that he's a fervent supporter of European union and opposed to disarmament?
- Advertisers will sometimes use 'trustworthy' people to endorse their product: the jazz critic George Melly to endorse Sony's headphones, former Metropolitan Police Commissioner Robert Mark to endorse Goodyear tyres and so on. In a 1953 experiment conducted by Kelman and Hovland subjects had played a message which recommended more lenient treatment of juvenile offenders. In the one case, the source of the message was said to be a judge in a juvenile court, in the other case an alleged drug dealer. Unsurprisingly, when the subjects were assessed immediately after hearing the messages, they found the high-credibility source (the judge) to be more persuasive). Three weeks later they were again assessed. This time, half the subjects were reminded who the source was. It turned out that where there was a reminder, the subjects maintained their original position, but, where there was none, there was a significant decrease in the persuasion of the high-credibility condition. (There was also a very minor, but insignificant, increase in the low-credibility condition.) Hovland argued that over the course of time the connexion between the 'cue' (i.e. the communicator's credibility) and the message became dissociated. He termed this the sleeper effect.
- **Expertise:** Does this person know what he's talking about? Hence the tendency of politicians to spout statistics at the slightest provocation and the tendency of computer consultants to use computer jargon to people they know don't understand it. The perceived expertise of the source is likely to be more persuasive if the audiences have no particular commitment to the subject under discussion. If people have some knowledge of the subject, they probably have some arguments or counter-arguments already

## NOTES

## NOTES

prepared. If not, they'll probably use some general rule of thumb, like 'This bloke's paid to teach Communication Studies, so I suppose he knows what he's talking about.'

- **Attractiveness:** We know from our studies of NVC that physical attractiveness often works in a person's favour. Judges give attractive people lighter sentences, college lecturers give them better marks and so on. Presidential and Prime Ministerial candidates have themselves remodelled by image consultants. One presidential hopeful is even rumoured to have had plastic surgery. Attractiveness is not only a matter of physical attractiveness, though. Other factors such as similarity and familiarity are important:
  - 'Is he my sort of person?'
  - 'I've never heard of her before.'
  - 'Does he look like my sort of person?'
  - 'He sounds like a complete idiot', and so on.

So, a leader from a specific local area might use a strong accent while addressing a rally in this area, though he uses a regular one when being interviewed on TV. There are numerous factors which influence attractiveness, for example the paralinguistic aspects of speech, which led Prime Minister Thatcher to take lessons in voice control, so that she appeared less strident and developed the sound of measured, breathy sincerity which became her hallmark. Humour is another factor, which explains why we find comedians being used for the voice-overs on a variety of commercials.

There is an exception to this general rule of attractiveness, though. If a liked communicator's recommendations are seen as stemming from internal factors (e.g., her special interests, her bias, her self-interest), but those of a disliked communicator are seen as stemming from external factors ('that's the way things are'), the disliked communicator can be more persuasive.

If the source of a message was perceived as having low credibility, the message would be interpreted as biased and unfair. That effect could probably be explained by the need to maintain cognitive consistency. High credibility sources were shown by Hovland and his colleagues to be likely to have a significant effect on the positive reception of the message. However, the effects of high and low credibility sources were demonstrated to disappear after a period of some weeks—a potential problem for the propagandist. However, Hovland's research does suggest that a rational presentation of the arguments for or against a particular position might be less important than who presents

them. More recent investigations into cognitive response theory may also shed some light on this.

## **Key Points**

- Public Relations Process is the act that outlines the various steps to be undertaken before implementing any programme or events to ensure the success of a programme, while public interests (internal and external) are not affected.
- Public Relations is a management activity that attempts to shape the attitudes and opinions held by an organization's stakeholders.
- PR is an important tool which can be used to reach specific audiences in a way that the paid media can not.
- PR engines work by spreading information and improving the levels of knowledge that people held about particular issues pertaining to the organization in question thereby advancing its self in the eyes of those it sees as influential to its company's activities.
- Stakeholders usually targeted by PR are employees, shareholders, suppliers, financial groups, media, community, government and local authorities.

## **NOTES**

## **Public Relations Methods and Techniques**

PR includes various communication activities namely:

- **Publicity:** Refers to relationships between an organization's Public Relations/ Communications Manager and the editor/journalist associated with both press and broadcast media.
- **Press Releases:** A written report concerning a change in the organization which is sent to various media houses for inclusion in an item of news. Statements usually highlight developments like promotions, new products, awards, prizes, new contracts and customers. Statements made are usually short in style and attractive so as to grab attention.
- **Press Conferences:** Usually, used by organizations or individuals when a major event has occurred, e.g., crisis like the collapse of Northern Rock Bank, mergers, appeals, political announcements, etc. Press kits or information packs are usually handed out at these events.
- **Interviews:** Usually done with the organizations' representatives, with the aim of conveying news/events. Corporate articles, speeches/letters to editors and photographs or captions are usually used.

## NOTES

- **Events:** Organizations usually have limited control here. Three major types of events exist namely.
- **Product Events:** are aimed at increasing sales, e.g., celebrity book signing, opening of new stores, etc., aimed at creating awareness and interest in products being provided.
- **Corporate Events:** These events are aimed at developing corporate bodies and usually generate a lot of local media coverage. These events facilitate awareness, goodwill and interest, e.g., open days and factory/warehouse visits.
- **Community Events:** These help and contribute to local communities. They facilitate sponsorship of local causes, e.g., disability play grounds/centres, children's playgrounds, etc., and they contribute to the local community by being good employers and goodwill and awareness in the community.

### **Community Issues**

Community relations (CR) work is a dynamic aspect of public relations. If there were no other reason, the changing physical and social makeup of communities would make it so, but there are many other contributing factors. Among them, few people stay in the communities where they are born. Families move not once, but several times. Community communications programmes must deal with this constant turnover of residents. Also, employers move. Sometimes they move from a congested central city area to a suburb. When they move, both areas are disrupted. A manufacturer may move a headquarters or a manufacturing facility from one city to another, mortally wounding the economy of one and perhaps starting a boom in the other. Branches of businesses and institutions are opened in areas of growing population and closed in areas that are shrinking or that are poorly managed.

A new interstate highway bypasses a community formerly dependent on tourists and travelling traffic for its trade. Undesirable elements get control of government in a community. A community also undergoes change when there is a movement for reform or rehabilitation.

### **Ten Issues Concerning All Communities**

1. Work for everyone who desires it.
2. The prospect of growth and new opportunities.
3. Adequate competitive commercial enterprises.

4. Competent municipal government with modern other services.
5. Educational, cultural, religious, and recreational pursuits.
6. Appropriate housing and public services.
7. Provision for helping those least able to help themselves.
8. Availability of legal, medical and other professional services.
9. Pride and loyalty.
10. A good reputation in the area and beyond.

## **NOTES**

### **The Role of Public Relations**

Public relations work on a basic nature is involved in at least these areas of an organization's community relationships:

1. Planning and conducting open houses, or tours.
2. Planning and helping to implement special events such as ground breaking or dedication of new facilities, change in location, anniversaries, reunions, conventions or exhibitions.
3. Preparing publications for distributions to resident groups.
4. Representing the organization in all sorts of volunteer activities, including fund drives.
5. Preparing advertising or position papers aimed at residents or local government.
6. Counselling management on contributions of employees as volunteer workers or board members; arranging for use of facilities and equipment by community groups.
7. Functioning as the organization's intermediary with local governmental, civic, educational, and ad hoc groups concerned with reform, social problems, and celebrations.
8. Issuing news of interest to the community and providing top officials of the organizations with information on the status of community relations.
9. Managing the contributions and function-giving donations if a corporation, raises funds for a not-for-profit organization.

### **Community Research**

Client research for community relations concentrates on the organization's role and reputation in the community.

## NOTES

- What is its level of credibility?
- Have there been significant community complaints in the past?
- What are the organization's present and past community relations practices?
- What are its major strengths and weaknesses in the community? What opportunities exist to enhance community relations?

These questions provide a helpful framework for a community relations programme.

### **Output Objectives**

Output objectives consist of the efforts made by the practitioner to enhance the organization's community relations. Some illustrations are:

1. To prepare and distribute (15 per cent) more community publications (than last year).
2. To be (10 per cent) more responsive to community needs (during this year).
3. To create (five) new community projects involving organizational personnel and resources (during this calendar year).
4. To schedule (five) meetings with community leaders (this year).

### **Actions or Special Events**

Actions and special events most often associated with community relations are:

1. An organizational open house and tour of facilities.
2. Sponsorship of special community events or projects.
3. Participation of management and other personnel in volunteer community activities.
4. Purchase of advertising in local media.
5. Contribution of funds to community organizations or causes.
6. Meetings with community leaders.
7. Membership of management and personnel in a variety of community organizations—civic, professional and religious.
8. Participation of management and workers in the political affairs of the community—service in political office and on councils and boards.



## **Uncontrolled and Controlled Media**

In the communications part of a community relations programme, the practitioner should think first of servicing community media outlets with appropriate uncontrolled media, such as news releases, photographs or photo opportunities, and interviews of organizational officers with local reporters.

The use of controlled media, on the other hand, should include sending copies of house publications to a select list of community leaders. The practitioner should also help the organization develop a speakers' bureau, and publicize the availability of organizational management and expert personnel to address meetings of local clubs and organizations. It is also appropriate to target community leaders on a timely basis for selected direct mailings, such as important announcements or notices of organizational involvement in community affairs.

## **Effective Communication**

Three principles of effective communication deserve special attention in community relations programmes. First, the targeting of opinion leaders or community leaders for communication is crucial to the success of such a programme. The leadership provides the structure and substance of the community itself. Secondly, group influence plays a substantial role in effective community relations. Organizations exercise varying degrees of cohesiveness and member-conformity. The community relations programme must cultivate community groups, their leaders, and their memberships. The effective speakers' bureau is a primary means for accomplishing this.

Finally, audience participation is highly significant. Targeted community media, leaders, and groups can be encouraged to participate in the client's organizational events. Most importantly, the client should reach out to the community by sponsoring attractive activities.

## **Evaluation**

If the objectives of the community relations programme have been phrased specifically and quantitatively, their evaluation should be relatively easy. The success of a programme should be directly linked to its attainment of the objectives stated at the programme's outset. Research for community relations assesses the organization's reputation and its existing and potential problems with the community. Targeting audiences usually include a detailed analysis of community media, leaders, and organizations.

Impact objectives for community relations are such desired outcomes as informing or influencing the attitudes and behaviours of the community. Output

## **NOTES**

objectives consist of a listing of public relations efforts to enhance the organization's relations with the community.

## NOTES

### Media Relations

Media relations do indeed make up the core of most public relation programmes—in part because of the historical development of public relations as an attempt to control and influence media coverage of organizations. Although the media are critical to public relations, many practitioners become so preoccupied with media coverage that they forget why relationships with the mass media are important. Many practitioners consider the media to be the public for their organization and believe that media coverage automatically means that they have reached and influences a large audience—This is far away from the truth.

Media relations occupies a central position in public relations because the media serves as a “gatekeeper” who control the information that flows the publics in a social system. Media workers really aren't publics in the sense that they are affected by the organizational consequences that do not affect other people.

But, in another sense, journalists are publics. They seek and process information just like other people, then pass on that information to their readers and viewers. The communication behaviour of journalists, therefore, sets limits on the information available for other publics to seek and process.

The keyword to remember about media relations is “relationship”—“a positive, ongoing, long-term relationship with the media.”

Many practitioners have bad relationships with the media, in large part because they are guided by the press a gentry or public information models of public relations.

### An Area of Conflict

Journalists feel overwhelmed by mass of press agents and publicists—“flacks”, as they call PR people—who dump unwanted press releases on their desk and push self-serving stories that have little new value. Public relations practitioners, on the other hand, feel that they are at the mercy of reporters and editors who are biased against their organization, who would rather expose than explain, and who know little about the complexities of their organization.

### What Helps and What Hurts Media Relations

You will probably find it easier to learn a few principles, however, from which you can derive more specific rules of press relations. Our four models of public relations provide such principles.

Develop a brief statement of the company's position on the topic or issue. The statement should present the situation in a positive light and have the approval of company management.

Identify and coach your spokesperson and others who may be called by the news media. Rehearse them to avoid answers that can be taken out of context, and have them practiced aloud, converting tough questions to positive points.

- Never issue a non-comment statement.
- Never lie.
- Discuss positive actions, but stick to the facts.
- If you don't know the answer to the question, find out the reporter's deadline and call back with the appropriate information.
- Never repeat the negative. If a reporter asks a negatively phrased question and you repeat the negative words, you should know that the negative words, the negative impression will survive along after the facts. Positive responses are best.
- Use transition techniques to give a straight answer to the questions and move the conversation in the direction you desire. Bridge to positive points.
- Speak in a conversational tone. Avoid jargon, and provide examples or anecdotes to illustrate your points.
- In television or radio interviews, frame responses in quick bites. Do not provide a lengthy background in order to reach a conclusion.
- Remain calm, courteous, and cooperative regardless of where the reporter is headed.

### **Press Agency Abuses**

- Most of the abuses of the press that spoil PR's relationship with the press stem from the press agent/publicity model.
- Threats to withhold advertising if editors do not use an item, or a promise to buy advertising if they do use it.
- Calling an executive of a newspaper or broadcast station to pressure his/her reporters.
- Sending reams of news releases with little news value to an extensive massive mailing list of media that have no use of them (very common practice for showing to superiors or clients that we are constantly busy).

### **NOTES**

## NOTES

- Taking the attitude that the more releases are sent, the greater the chance that they will be used, in the belief that editors use them randomly when they have space to fill.
- Catering to TV at the expense of print media, in press conferences.
- Sending multiple copies to different departments of the same organization.
- Failing to understand how news media work (deadlines, news values, and beats).

### Public Information Abuses

Usually, the specialists following this model of PR are working as journalists in residence.

Two of the most common errors of this model are:

- **The jargon error:** often they write in a coded language—mostly because their work must be cleared by superiors.
- **The Parkinson's law error:** this is the production of press releases to fill the time available. Although there is no need for articles, because of free time the specialist writes many articles without news value.

### Two-way Press Relations

Both the practitioners of two-way asymmetric and two-way symmetric models of PR approach their task more systematically. They make fewer errors that alienate them from journalists, and they do more research and planning.

There are some conflicts, however, that still result from the asymmetric model because media relations specialists usually try to control coverage of their organization and to limit it to organizational PR objectives.

Symmetric practitioners, on the other hand, think less about controlling the content of information that flows from their organization to the media.

Their objective is to open up their organization to the media and to help journalists cover it, in the belief that such openness and assistance will result in more accurate and less biased coverage.

Some suggestions for creating effective symmetric media relations are:

- Send out fewer press releases and rely more on direct contact with journalists, at both their initiative and yours.
- Be available to the media.

- Call reporters when you think you have a story that interests them (make sure that the story has a local angle or content relevant to the reporter's publication).
- Set up interviews for journalists with management or specialists in your organization. Help the reporters to cover your organization—don't try to do it for them.
- Instead of press releases, send to the media a sheet of one paragraph news tips that they can follow up themselves. Interview people in your organization yourself and record the interview on cassette tapes. Provide these tapes to journalists so that they can integrate the interview into their own stories.
- Set up an information storage and retrieval system in which you maintain fact sheets, complete articles, interviews, and background information. Have this data base available to the journalists.
- Make sure to update the information regularly. Take a chance on the accuracy and responsibility of the news media. The more open you can make your organization, the greater is the likelihood of fair and accurate media coverage.

## NOTES

### **Media Relations in a Crisis**

The three asymmetrical models assume that the flow of information to the media can be controlled. During a crisis, the media become active in seeking info related to the organization.

However, the media go to sources other than the organization experiencing the crisis.

Research has shown that symmetrical communication is even more important than the predetermined plan during a crisis.

### **Some Key Points about Journalists**

- Most of us think of journalists as communicators who disseminate information, but they also seek and process information when they cover events, interview new sources, or assign stories.
- Although we see journalists as active seekers of information, more of their behaviour can be described as the passive processing of information—rewriting press releases, routinely covering events or hearings, reacting to the initiative of new sources.

## NOTES

- If reporters process information more than they seek it, media relations specialists can influence their communication behaviour much more than they could if reporters had actively sought information.

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## 2.4 EVALUATION TOOLS OF PR

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Evaluation should be a proactive, forward-looking process of continuous systematic gathering of information used to plan future activities more effectively. Effective evaluation strategies are developed at the onset of the communication process to identify potential problems, opportunities, needs, or omissions before implementing an expensive campaign.

Evaluation methods can be classified in two different ways:

- Closed System evaluations focus on messages and events and their effects on intended publics. They rely on pre-testing messages and media, and then compare these to post-test results to see whether activities have achieved planned effects.
- Open System evaluations recognize that factors outside the control of the public relations campaign influence results and look at wider considerations. This method considers public relations in overall organizational effectiveness.

These methods are also broken down into two research methods:

- Quantitative Research is concerned with numerical data of public relations where computer programmes are used to look for common themes. Examples: Number of press releases, radio air time, geographic distribution, etc.
- Qualitative Research is concerned with collecting random data and looking for emerging and common themes. Examples: Pre/Post Testing, product and service awareness, etc.

### Purpose of Evaluation

The most critical reason for evaluating public relations campaigns is to measure a company's return-on-investment (ROI). Public relations campaign evaluations are also performed to:

- Determine accountability.
- Demonstrate value of communications expenditure.

- Assess or establish a baseline.
- Assess goals or objectives.
- Determine event or programme outcomes.
- Improve quality.
- Ascertain success or failure.
- Determine future direction.
- Comply with external standards.

## NOTES

### **Evaluation as a PR Marketing Tool**

Evaluation is a tool to plan, reduce waste, improve effectiveness, and save money by monitoring and testing inputs, outputs and outcomes in a continuous, integrated process from the earliest stages of planning, using a range of formal and informal methods.

Evaluation tools used in measuring effective PR:

**Secondary Data:** Gathered from sources other than primary research. It uncovers statistics that are already available and compiled by others regarding similar results of activities.

**Case Studies:** Ascertain the effects of other organizations on the specific strategies of your public relations programme. Used as accountability tools to monitor best practices and to establish Key Performance Indicators for each stage of the campaign so that PR activities support management strategies and expectations.

**Audience and Reader Surveys:** These response tracking surveys allow benchmarking (what effect do campaign vehicle strategies modify/change perceptions/behaviour in targeted publics).

**Focus Groups:** These informal, small groups of selected participants can pre-test ideas.

**Advertising Value Equivalent (AVE):** Calculate the AVE to space or time. Editorial and advertising value are not equal. Editorial is often more credible than advertising because it appears as an independent objective comment. However, it can contain criticism, refer to competitors, and contain errors of fact or messages. So it is important to craft messages carefully. (A 300% value on editorial over advertising is often used as the rule of thumb basis for this practice).

## NOTES

**Media Monitoring:** Evaluates media placement. If your messages are not printed verbatim as you submit, disadvantages of this method include:

- Do not show quality of coverage.
- Negative or neutral coverage included with positive coverage.
- Coverage in unimportant/low circulation media.
- "Passing mention" or competitors mentioned.
- Articles discuss peripheral issues or key messages not included.

**Media Content Analysis:** Computer-aided median content analysis systems produce numeric data, charts and graphs and evaluation qualitative criteria such as whether media coverage reaches key target audience, whether it focuses on the main issues and whether it contains the organization's messages. It can also measure share of voice compared with competitors and identify and track issues.

The practice of evaluation involves the systematic evaluation of information to reduce uncertainties, improve effectiveness and make decisions with regard to what programs, personnel, or products are doing and effecting.

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## 2.5 SUMMARY

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The concept of a public has also been defined in political science, psychology, marketing, and advertising. In public relations and communication science, it is one of the more ambiguous concepts in the field.

In public relations and communication theory, a public is distinct from a stakeholder or a market. A public is a subset of the set of stakeholders for an organization, that comprises those people concerned with a specific issue. While a market has an exchange relationship with an organization, and is usually a passive entity that is created by the organization, a public does not necessarily have an exchange relationship, and is both self-creating and self-organizing. Publics are targeted by public relations efforts.

Public opinion has different meanings depending on whether it acts as a critical authority in connection with a mandate that power be subject to publicity, or it acts as a moulded object of staged display. The two aspects of publicity and public opinion do not stand in relationship of norm to fact. Critical and manipulative publicity are of different orders. The public behaves in a different way in each manifestation. One is based on public opinion, the other on non-public opinion.



## NOTES

Public opinion fully appeared as a problematic entity in the final quarter of the nineteenth century. Habermas analyses the socio-psychological and theoretical interpretations of public opinion. Public opinion became a socio-psychological analysis of group processes. Once public opinion is reduced to group behaviour (a category that is between public and private) the articulation of the link between group opinion and public authority is left to the auxiliary science of public administration.

In communication we are generally concerned with persuading people in one way or another, even if it's only persuading them that we're quite nice people. We therefore will often be concerned with examining people's needs, in order that we can respond to those needs in our communication. Evaluation of PR should be a proactive, forward-looking process of continuous systematic gathering of information used to plan future activities more effectively. Effective evaluation strategies are developed at the onset of the communication process to identify potential problems, opportunities, needs, or omissions before implementing an expensive campaign.

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## 2.6 GLOSSARY

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- **Literary Public Sphere:** The literary public sphere developed in the eighteenth century; its key institutions were literary journals, periodicals, and the coffee houses and salons where these publications were discussed. The literary public sphere represented the first time that the public could critically discuss art and literature, drawing on the emotional resources they developed within the family. It developed into the political public sphere.
- **Political Public Sphere:** The political public sphere represents private people who have come together as a public to use their reason critically. It is not so much a place as a series of actions. It developed out of the literary public sphere, and depended on private people's status as both property owners and human beings; its roots were in the family and in the world of property ownership. In the past, the political public sphere represented a critical voice that analysed and often opposed government action, and prevented domination by the powerful state. In its modern form, however, the public sphere is no more than a manipulative form of publicity, as politicians, advertising agents and public relations experts try to create and manipulate a false public.

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## 2.7 REVIEW QUESTIONS

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1. What is the concept of publics?
2. Explain the internal and external PR.
3. Discuss the process of PR.
4. What are the evaluation tools for PR?

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## 2.8 FURTHER READINGS

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# CHAPTER—3

*Concept of  
Public Opinion*

## CONCEPT OF PUBLIC OPINION

NOTES

### STRUCTURE

- 3.1 The Concept of Public Opinion—An Introduction
- 3.2 Definition and Types of Public Opinion
- 3.3 Historical Background
- 3.4 Factors Influencing Public Opinion
- 3.5 Opinion Leaders and Flow of Public Opinion
- 3.6 Summary
- 3.7 Glossary
- 3.8 Review Questions
- 3.9 Further Readings

### 3.1 THE CONCEPT OF PUBLIC OPINION— AN INTRODUCTION

Public opinion is the aggregate of individual attitudes or beliefs. It can also be defined as the complex collection of opinions of many different people and the sum of all their views, or as a single opinion held by an individual about a social or political topic. The meaning of public opinion has changed dramatically over time. Political scientist Susan Herbst writes that "Formalized tabulation of political opinions began in the city-states of ancient Greece, where elections were viewed as central components of the democratic process. Yet it was not until the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries that quantification became a significant element of political discourse in the West." The American political scientist V.O. Key defined public opinion in 1961 as "opinions held by private persons which governments find it prudent to heed." Subsequent advances in statistical and demographic analysis were led by the 1990s to an understanding of public opinion as the collective view of a defined population, such as a particular demographic or ethnic group.

## NOTES

The influence of public opinion is not restricted to politics and elections. It is a powerful force in many other spheres, such as culture, fashion, literature and the art, consumer spending, and marketing and public relations.

### **Theoretical and Practical Conceptions**

In his eponymous treatise on public opinion published in 1922, the American editorialist Walter Lippmann qualified his observation that democracies tend to make a mystery out of public opinion with the declaration that “there have been skilled organizers of opinion who understood the mystery well enough to create majorities on election day”. Although the reality of public opinion is now almost universally accepted, there is much variation in the way it is defined, reflecting in large measure the different perspectives from which scholars have approached the subject. Contrasting understandings of public opinion have taken shape over the centuries, especially as new methods of measuring public opinion have been applied to politics, commerce, religion, and social activism.

Political scientists and some historians have tended to emphasize the role of public opinion in government and politics, paying particular attention to its influence on the development of government policy. Indeed, some political scientists have regarded public opinion as equivalent to the national will. In such a limited sense, however, there can be only one public opinion on an issue at any given time.

Sociologists, in contrast, usually conceive of public opinion as a product of social interaction and communication. According to this view, there can be no public opinion on an issue unless members of the public communicate with each other. Even if their individual opinions are quite similar to begin with, their beliefs will not constitute a public opinion until they are conveyed to others in some form, whether through print media, radio, television, the Internet, or telephone or face-to-face conversation. Sociologists also point to the possibility of there being many different public opinions on a given issue at the same time. Although one body of opinion may dominate or reflect government policy, for example, this does not preclude the existence of other organized bodies of opinion on political topics. The sociological approach also recognizes the importance of public opinion in areas that have little or nothing to do with government. The very nature of public opinion, according to the American researcher Irving Crespi, is to be interactive, multidimensional, and continuously changing. Thus, fads and fashions are appropriate subject matter for students of public opinion, as are public attitudes toward celebrities or corporations.

Nearly all scholars of public opinion, regardless of the way they may define it, agree that, in order for a phenomenon to count as public opinion, at least four conditions must be satisfied:

(1) There must be an issue, (2) there must be a significant number of individuals who express opinions on the issue, (3) there must be some kind of consensus among at least some of these opinions, and (4) this consensus must directly or indirectly exert influence.

In contrast to scholars, those who aim to influence public opinion are less concerned with theoretical issues than with the practical problem of shaping the opinions of specified “publics,” such as employees, stockholders, neighbourhood associations, or any other group whose actions may affect the fortunes of a client or stakeholder. Politicians and publicists, for example, seek ways to influence voting and purchasing decisions, respectively—hence their wish to determine any attitudes and opinions that may affect the desired behaviour.

It is often the case that opinions expressed in public differ from those expressed in private. Some views—even though widely shared—may not be expressed at all. Thus, in a totalitarian state, a great many people may be opposed to the government but may fear to express their attitudes even to their families and friends. In such cases, an anti-government public opinion necessarily fails to develop.

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## 3.2 DEFINITION AND TYPES OF PUBLIC OPINION

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### Definition

Collective evaluations expressed by people on political issues, policies, institutions and individuals.

OR

A collective distribution of individual preferences or evaluation on a given, issue, policy or persons.

### Types of Public Opinion

**1. Opinion Intensity:** Measures how strongly and intensely people feel about an issue or a politician.

- Some people will feel very strongly; either really for it or really against it.
- Such issues polarize and divide the public.

## NOTES

## NOTES

2. **Opinion Saliency:** Measures the extent to which issues are important and relevant to people's lives and values.

- The political environment and economic circumstances will often dictate what issues are important to people
  - Saliency ranks relevant issues in order of priority – public opinion scales.
  - Also, saliency will often give a misperception as to which number of people take which side of an issue.
  - **Example:** Even if only a minority of people hold one view on an issue, that minority of people will feel very strongly and very intense about that issue. That issue will be more important to the minority than it will be to the majority.
  - Thus, this creates the perception that there are more people on a minority side of an issue than there really are.
  - **Example:** Abortion.

3. **Opinion Fluidity:** Measures the extent to which opinion changes over the course of time.

- Again, political and economic events and conditions (external events) will dictate whether or not there is a change of opinion towards a given issue or policy.
- **Example:** Trust in Govt, Vietnam, Iraq War.

What are some **causes** and **predictors** of public opinion?

1. Public opinion is not only shaped by particular events and conditions, but also by what is known as **Political Ethos**.

**Political Ethos:** A set of shared values and general ideas held by a broad consensus of the population (aka, Political Creed)

- Political ethos is what helps build and provide unity within the nation and the national/political culture.
- Examples of American political ethos: the Constitution, democracy, capitalism and free enterprise.

Public opinion is also shaped by **political socialization**.

**Political Socialization:** The process by which citizens develop political attitudes, beliefs and values

Socialization lays the foundation and helps determine things such as political party affiliation, ideological beliefs and voting behaviour:

- “Agents” of political socialization: The means by which people are politically socialized, or politically “raised”.
- “Agents” are the causes of how people become socialized.
- These “agents” are: (1) Family, (2) School/Education, (3) Church/Religion (4) Mass Media.

## NOTES

### **Public Opinion is Measured by Way of Sampling**

- Sampling is the way in which public opinion and attitudes are measured and evaluated.
- Samples that are accurate and reliable are known as probability samples: These samples reflect and are representative of the larger public that is the target of public opinion gauging.
- Common Types of Probability Sampling:
  - (A) Simple Random Samples.
  - (B) Stratified Samples.

### **Political Participation and Voting**

- American voting turn out is typically **very low**; 30–46% for Congressional, mid-term elections; 45–65% turn out for Presidential elections. What explains the low-voter turn out?
- (A) **Political Fatigue**: Potential voters being “swamped” by political party/campaign/candidate mail ads (direct mail), TV ads and news sound-bites.
- (B) **Demographic Characteristics**: Citizens who have a lower level of formal education and a lower socio-economic/income level typically have low voter turn-outs.
- (C) **Lack of Political Efficacy**: (cause of B) One’s sense of political “self-worth” and “self esteem”.
- Two types of political efficacy: **Internal and External** efficacy.
- Internal efficacy is one’s views of one’s own political capabilities, know-how, skills, education, etc.

## NOTES

- External efficacy refers to one's view or assessment of how the external political world - other people; politicians, govt., elites, etc., - think of that person and his views, solutions or ideas for policy.
- Low external efficacy may be a cause to low-voter turnout.
- However, high internal efficacy may be a cause as to why American citizens do have high levels of non-voting participation; U.S. ranks first in campaigning.
- Financial contributions to candidates, political parties, etc.,
- Protesting.
- Political petition signing.
- Attending public meetings.

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### 3.3 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

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Although the term 'public opinion' was not used until the 18th. century, phenomena that closely resemble public opinion seem to have occurred in many historical epochs. The ancient histories of Babylonia and Assyria, for example, contain references to popular attitudes, including the legend of a caliph who would disguise himself and mingle with the people to hear what they said about his governance. The prophets of ancient Israel sometimes justified the policies of the government to the people and sometimes appealed to the people to oppose the government. In both cases, they were concerned with swaying the opinion of the crowd. And in the classical democracy of Athens, it was commonly observed that everything depended on the people, and the people were dependent on the word. Wealth, fame, and respect—all could be given or taken away by persuading the populace. By contrast Plato found little of value in public opinion, since he believed that society should be governed by philosopher-kings whose wisdom far exceeded the knowledge and intellectual capabilities of the general population. And while Aristotle stated that "he who loses the support of the people is a king no longer," the public he had in mind was a very select group; in the Athens of his time, the voting population was limited to about one-third of free adult male citizens.

#### **The Middle Ages to the Early Modern Period**

In the traditional rural European societies of the Middle Ages, most people's activities and attitudes were dictated by their social stations. Phenomena much



## NOTES

like public opinion, however, could still be observed among the religious, intellectual, and political elite. Religious disputations, the struggles between Popes and the Holy Roman Empire, and the dynastic ambitions of princes—all involved efforts to persuade, to create a following, and to line up the opinions of those who counted. In 1191 the English statesman William Longchamp, bishop of Ely, was attacked by his political opponents for hiring troubadours to extol his merits in public places, so that “people spoke of him as though his equal did not exist on earth”. The propaganda battles between emperors and Popes were waged largely through sermons, but handwritten literature also played a part.

From the end of the 13th century, the ranks of those who could be drawn into controversy regarding current affairs grew steadily. The general level of education of the lay population gradually increased. The rise of humanism in Italy led to the emergence of a group of writers whose services were eagerly sought by princes striving to consolidate their domains. Some of these writers served as advisers and diplomats; others were employed as publicists because of their rhetorical skills. The 16th-century Italian writer Pietro Aretino—of whom it was said that he knew how to defame, to threaten, and to flatter better than all others—was sought by both Charles V of Spain and Francis I of France. The Italian political philosopher Niccolò Machiavelli, a contemporary of Aretino, wrote that princes should not ignore popular opinion, particularly in regard to such matters as the distribution of offices.

The invention of printing from movable type in the 15th century and the Protestant Reformation in the 16th further increased the numbers of people able to hold and express informed opinions on contemporary issues. The German priest and scholar Martin Luther broke with the humanists by abandoning the use of Classical Latin, which was intelligible only to the educated, and turned directly to the masses. “I will gladly leave to others the honour of doing great things,” he wrote, “and will not be ashamed of preaching and writing in German for the unschooled layman.” Although Luther’s Ninety-five Theses, which were distributed throughout Europe despite being printed against his will, were of a theological nature. He also wrote on such subjects as the war against the Turks, the Peasants’ Revolt, and the evils of usury. His vituperative style and the criticism he received from his many opponents, both lay and clerical, contributed to the formation of larger groups holding opinions on important matters of the day.

During the Thirty Years’ War (1618–48), extensive attempts were made to create and influence public opinion, including the use of tracts illustrated with

## NOTES

woodcuts. Opinions were also swayed by means of speeches, sermons, and face-to-face discussions. Not surprisingly, some civil and religious authorities attempted to control the dissemination of unwelcome ideas through increasingly strict censorship. The first *Index Librorum Prohibitorum* ("Index of Forbidden Books") was published during the reign of Pope Paul IV in 1559. Charles IX of France decreed in 1563 that nothing could be printed without the special permission of the king. The origin of the word propaganda is linked to the Roman Catholic Church's missionary organization *Congregatio de Propaganda Fide* (Congregation for the Propagation of the Faith), which was founded in 1622.

More quietly but more significantly, other means of distributing information were becoming a common part of life. Regular postal services, started in France in 1464 and in the Austrian Empire in 1490, facilitated the spread of information enormously. Rudimentary private news services had been maintained by political authorities and wealthy merchants since Classical times, but they were not available to the general public. Regularly printed newspapers first appeared about 1600 and multiplied rapidly thereafter, though they were frequently bedeviled by censorship regulations.

The great European news centres began to develop during the 17th century, especially in cities that were establishing sophisticated financial exchanges, such as Antwerp, Frankfurt, Amsterdam, London, and Lyons. With the introduction of a paid civil service and the employment of paid soldiers in the place of vassals, princes found it necessary to borrow money. The bankers, in turn, had to know a great deal about the credit of the princes, the state of their political fortunes, and their reputations with their subjects. All kinds of political and economic information flowed to the money-lending centres, and this information gave rise to generally held opinions in the banking community; the *ditta di borsa* ("opinion on the bourse") is often referred to in documents of the period.

### The 18th Century to the Present

Significantly, it was another financial official who first popularized the term 'public opinion' in modern times. Jacques Necker, the finance minister for Louis XVI on the eve of the French Revolution, noted repeatedly in his writings that public credit depended upon the opinions of holders and buyers of government securities about the viability of the royal administration. He too was vitally concerned with the *ditta di borsa*. But he also remarked on the power of public opinion in other areas. "This public opinion," Necker wrote, "strengthens or weakens all human institutions." As he saw it, public opinion should be taken

## NOTES

into account in all political undertakings. Necker was not, however, concerned with the opinions of each and every Frenchman. For him, the people who collectively shaped public opinion were those who could read and write, who lived in cities, who kept up with the day's news, and who had money to buy government securities.

The final years of the 18th century showed how enormously the power of public opinion had grown. Revolutionary public opinion had transformed 13 North American British colonies into the United States of America. In France, public opinion had inspired both the middle classes and the urban masses and had ultimately taken shape as the French Revolution. Observers of the Revolution were mystified—and often terrified—by this new spectre, which seemed able to sweep aside one of the most-entrenched institutions of the time—the monarchy.

In keeping with theories of social class developed in the 19th century, some scholars of the era viewed public opinion as the domain of the upper classes. Thus, the English author William A. Mackinnon defined it as “that sentiment on any given subject which is entertained by the best informed, most intelligent, and most moral persons in the community”. Mackinnon, who was one of the first authors to focus on the subject, drew a further distinction between public opinion and “popular clamour,” which he described as that sort of feeling arising from the passions of a multitude acting without consideration; or an excitement created amongst the uneducated; or amongst those who do not reflect, or do not exercise their judgement on the point in question.

There is no doubt that public opinion was on the minds of the great thinkers and writers of the era. The German philosopher G.W.F. Hegel described public opinion as containing both truth and falsehood and added that it was the task of the great man to distinguish between the two. The English jurist and historian James Bryce, writing in the late 19th and the early 20th century, maintained that a government based on popular consent would give a nation great stability and strength but did not believe that public opinion could or should determine the details of policy, since in his view most people do not have the leisure or inclination to arrive at a position on every question. Rather, the masses would set the general tone for policy, their sentiments leading them to take a stand on the side of justice, honour, and peace.

Various theories of public opinion have been developed since the early 20th century, though none has been recognized as predominant. According to a framework suggested by the Canadian communications theorist Sherry Devereux

## **NOTES**

Ferguson, most of them fall into one or the other of three general categories. Some theories, proposed in the first half of the 20th century treat public opinion as a welling up from the bottom levels of society to the top, ensuring a two-way flow of communication between the representatives and the represented. This "populist" approach acknowledges the tendency of public opinion to shift as individuals interact with each other or respond to media influences. It has been opposed by theories of the "elitist" or social constructionist category, which emphasize the manipulative aspects of communication and recognize the multiplicity of perspectives that tend to form around any issue. Reflecting a more pessimistic outlook, theories belonging to a third category, known as critical or radical-functionalist, hold that the general public—including minority groups—has negligible influence on public opinion, which is largely controlled by those in power. This perspective, however, has been challenged by those who recognize a persistent plurality of views in democracies, evidenced most recently by the flourishing of public discourse through the Internet and other new media.

### **The Formation and Change of Public Opinion**

No matter how collective views (those held by most members of a defined public) coalesce into public opinion, the result can be self-perpetuating. The French political scientist Alexis de Tocqueville, for example, observed that once an opinion has taken root among a democratic people and established itself in the minds of the bulk of the community, it afterwards persists by itself and is maintained without effort, because no one attacks it.

In 1993, the German opinion researcher Elizabeth Noelle-Neumann characterized this phenomenon as a "spiral of silence," noting that people who perceive that they hold a minority view will be less inclined to express it in public.

### **Components of Public Opinion: Attitudes and Values**

How many people actually form opinions on a given issue, as well as what sorts of opinions they form, depends partly on their immediate situations, partly on more-general social-environmental factors, and partly on their pre-existing knowledge, attitudes, and values. Because attitudes and values play such a crucial role in the development of public opinion, scholars of the subject are naturally interested in the nature of these phenomena, as well as in ways to assess their variability and intensity.

## NOTES

The concepts of opinion, attitude, and value used in public opinion research were given an influential metaphorical characterization by the American-born political analyst Robert Worcester, who founded the London-based polling firm MORI (Market & Opinion Research International Ltd.). Values, he suggested, are "the deep tides of public mood, slow to change, but powerful." Opinions, in contrast, are "the ripples on the surface of the public's consciousness—shallow and easily changed." Finally, attitudes are "the currents below the surface, deeper and stronger," representing a midrange between values and opinions. According to Worcester, the art of understanding public opinion rests not only on the measurement of people's views but also on understanding the motivations behind those views.

No matter how strongly they are held, attitudes are subject to change if the individual holding them learns of new facts or perspectives that challenge his or her earlier thinking. This is especially likely when people learn of a contrary position held by an individual whose judgement they respect. This course of influence, known as "opinion leadership," is frequently utilized by the publicists as a means of inducing people to reconsider—and quite possibly change—their own views.

Some opinion researchers have contended that the standard technical concept of attitude is not useful for understanding public opinion, because it is insufficiently complex. Crespi, for example, preferred to speak of "attitudinal systems," which he characterized as the combined development of four sets of phenomena:

(1) values and interests, (2) knowledge and beliefs, (3) feelings, and (4) behavioral intentions (i.e., conscious inclinations to act in certain ways).

Perhaps the most important concept in public opinion research is that of values. Values are of considerable importance in determining whether people will form opinions on a particular topic; in general, they are more likely to do so when they perceive that their values require it. Values are adopted early in life, in many cases from parents and schools. They are not likely to change, and they strengthen as people grow older. They encompass beliefs about religion—including belief (or disbelief) in God—political outlook, moral standards, and the like. As Worcester's analogy suggests, values are relatively resistant to ordinary attempts at persuasion and to influence by the media, and they rarely shift as a result of positions or arguments expressed in a single debate. Yet they can be shaped—and in some cases completely changed—by prolonged exposure to conflicting values, by concerted thought and discussion, by the feeling that one

is "out of step" with others whom one knows and respects, and by the development of significantly new evidence or circumstances.

## **NOTES**

### **Formation of Attitudes**

Once an issue is generally recognized, some people will begin to form attitudes about it. If an attitude is expressed to others by sufficient numbers of people, a public opinion on the topic begins to emerge. Not all people will develop a particular attitude about a public issue; some may not be interested, and others simply may not hear about it.

The attitudes that are formed may be held for various reasons. Thus, among people who oppose higher property taxes, one group may be unable to afford them, another may wish to deny additional tax revenues to welfare recipients, another may disagree with a certain government policy, and another may wish to protest what it sees as wasteful government spending. A seemingly homogeneous body of public opinion may therefore be composed of individual opinions that are rooted in very different interests and values. If an attitude does not serve a function such as one of the above, it is unlikely to be formed: an attitude must be useful in some way to the person who holds it.

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## **3.4 FACTORS INFLUENCING PUBLIC OPINION**

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There are many factors which influence public opinion.

### **Environmental Factors**

Environmental factors play a critical part in the development of opinions and attitudes. Most pervasive is the influence of the social environment: family, friends, neighbourhood, place of work, church, or school. People usually adjust their attitudes to conform to those that are most prevalent in the social groups to which they belong. Researchers have found, for example, that if a person in the United States who considers himself a liberal becomes surrounded in his home or at his place of work by people who profess conservatism, he is more likely to start voting for conservative candidates than for liberals, whose family and friends share his political views. Similarly, it was found during World War II that men in the U.S. military who got transferred from one unit to another often got adjusted their opinions to conform more closely to those of the unit to which they were transferred.

## **The Mass Media**

Newspapers, radio, television, and the Internet—including e-mail and blogs—are usually less influential than the social environment, but they are still significant, especially in affirming attitudes and opinions that are already established. The news media focus the public's attention on certain personalities and issues, leading many people to form opinions about them. Government officials accordingly have noted that communications to them from the public tend to "follow the headlines."

The mass media can also reinforce latent attitudes and "activate" them, prompting people to take action. Just before an election, for example, voters who earlier had only a mild preference for one party or candidate may be inspired by media coverage not only to take the trouble to vote but perhaps also to contribute money or to help a party organization in some other way.

The mass media play another important role by letting individuals know what other people think and by giving political leaders large audiences. In this way the media make it possible for public opinion to encompass large numbers of individuals and wide geographic areas. It appears, in fact, that in some European countries the growth of broadcasting, especially television, affected the operation of the parliamentary system. Before television, national elections were seen largely as contests between a number of candidates or parties for parliamentary seats. As the electronic media grew more sophisticated technologically, elections increasingly assumed the appearance of a personal struggle between the leaders of the principal parties concerned. In the United States, presidential candidates have come to personify their parties. Once in office, a president can easily appeal to a national audience over the heads of elected legislative representatives.

In areas where the mass media are thinly spread, as in developing countries or in countries where the media are strictly controlled, word of mouth can sometimes perform the same functions as the press and broadcasting, though on a more limited scale. In developing countries, it is common for those who are literate to read from newspapers to those who are not, or for large numbers of persons to gather around the village radio or a community television. Word of mouth in the marketplace or neighbourhood then carries the information farther. In countries where important news is suppressed by the government, a great deal of information is transmitted by rumour. Word of mouth (or other forms of person-to-person communication, such as text messaging) thus becomes

## **NOTES**

the vehicle for underground public opinion in totalitarian countries, even though these processes are slower and usually involve fewer people than in countries where the media network is dense and uncontrolled.

## NOTES

### Interest Groups

Interest groups, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), religious groups, and labour unions (trade unions) cultivate the formation and spread of public opinion on issues of concern to their constituencies. These groups may be concerned with political, economic, or ideological issues, and most work through the mass media as well as by word of mouth. Some of the larger or more affluent interest groups around the world make use of advertising and public relations. One increasingly popular tactic is the informal poll or straw vote. In this approach, groups ask their members and supporters to "vote"—usually by phone or via the Internet—in unsystematic "polls" of public opinion that are not carried out with proper sampling procedures. Multiple votes by supporters are often encouraged, and once the group releases its findings to credible media outlets, it claims legitimacy by citing the publication of its poll in a recognized newspaper or online news source.

Reasons for conducting unscientific polls range from their entertainment value to their usefulness in manipulating public opinion, especially by interest groups or issue-specific organizations, some of which exploit straw-poll results as a means of making their causes appear more significant than they actually are. On any given issue, however, politicians will weigh the relatively disinterested opinions and attitudes of the majority against the committed values of smaller but more-dedicated groups for whom retribution at the ballot box is more likely.

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## 3.5 OPINION LEADERS AND FLOW OF PUBLIC OPINION

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Opinion leaders play a major role in defining popular issues and in influencing individual opinions regarding them. Political leaders in particular can turn a relatively unknown problem into a national issue if they decide to call attention to it in the media. One of the ways in which opinion leaders rally opinion and smooth out differences among those who are in basic agreement on a subject is by inventing symbols or coining slogans: in the words of U.S. President Woodrow Wilson, the Allies in World War I were fighting "a war to end all wars," while aiming "to make the world safe for democracy"; post-World War II



relations with the Soviet Union were summed up in the term "Cold War," first used by the U.S. presidential adviser Bernard Baruch in 1947. Once enunciated, symbols and slogans are frequently kept alive and communicated to large audiences by the mass media and may become the cornerstone of public opinion on any given issue.

Opinion leadership is not confined to prominent figures in public life. An opinion leader can be any person to whom others look for guidance on a certain subject. Thus, within a given social group one person may be regarded as especially well-informed about local politics, another as knowledgeable about foreign affairs, and another as expert in real estate. These local opinion leaders are generally unknown outside their own circle of friends and acquaintances, but their cumulative influence in the formation of public opinion is substantial.

### **Influences of Public Opinion**

Because psychological makeup, personal circumstances, and external influences all play a role in the formation of each person's opinions, it is difficult to predict how public opinion on an issue will take shape. The same is true with regard to changes in public opinion. Some public opinions can be explained by specific events and circumstances, but in other cases the causes are more elusive. (Some opinions, however, are predictable: the public's opinions about other countries, for example, seem to depend largely on the state of relations between the governments involved. Hostile public attitudes do not cause poor relations—they are the result of them.)

People presumably change their own attitudes when they no longer seem to correspond with prevailing circumstances and, hence, fail to serve as guides to action. Similarly, a specific event, such as a natural disaster or a human tragedy, can heighten awareness of underlying problems or concerns and trigger changes in public opinion. Public opinion about the environment, for instance, has been influenced by single events such as the publication of Rachel Carson's *Silent Spring* in 1962; by the nuclear accident at Chernobyl, Ukraine, in 1986 (see Chernobyl accident); by British Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher's 1988 address to the Royal Society on a number of environmental topics, including global warming; by the accidental spill from the oil tanker Exxon Valdez in 1989; and by the Academy Award-winning documentary on climate change, 'An Inconvenient Truth', in 2006. It is nonetheless the case that whether a body of public opinion on a given issue is formed and sustained depends to a significant extent on the attention it receives in the mass media.

### **NOTES**

## NOTES

Some changes in public opinion have been difficult for experts to explain. During the second half of the 20th century in many parts of the world, attitudes toward religion, family, sex, international relations, social welfare, and the economy underwent major shifts. Although important issues have claimed public attention in all these areas, the scope of change in public attitudes and opinions is difficult to attribute to any major event or even to any complex of events.

### **Public Opinion and Government**

By its very nature, the democratic process spurs citizens to form opinions on a number of issues. Voters are called upon to choose candidates in elections, to consider constitutional amendments, and to approve or reject municipal taxes and other legislative proposals. Almost any matter on which the executive or legislature has to decide may become a public issue if a significant number of people wish to make it one. The political attitudes of these persons are often stimulated or reinforced by outside agencies—a crusading newspaper, an interest group, or a government agency or official.

The English philosopher and economist Jeremy Bentham (1748–1832) saw the greatest difficulty of the legislator as being “in conciliating the public opinion, in correcting it when erroneous, and in giving it that bent which shall be most favourable to produce obedience to his mandates.” At the same time, Bentham and some other thinkers believed that public opinion is a useful check on the authority of rulers. Bentham demanded that all official acts be publicized, so that an enlightened public opinion could pass judgement on them, as would a tribunal: “To the pernicious exercise of the power of government it is the only check.”

In the early years of modern democracy, some scholars acknowledged the power of public opinion but warned that it could be a dangerous force. Tocqueville was concerned that a government of the masses would become a “tyranny of the majority”. But, whether public opinion is regarded as a constructive or a baneful force in a democracy, there are few politicians who are prepared to suggest in public that government should ignore it.

Political scientists have been less concerned with what part public opinion should play in a democratic polity and have given more attention to establish what part it does play in actuality. From the examination of numerous histories of policy formation, it is clear that no sweeping generalization can be made that will hold in all cases. The role of public opinion varies from issue to issue, just

as public opinion asserts itself differently from one democracy to another. Perhaps the safest generalization that can be made is that public opinion does not influence the details of the most government policies but it does set limits within which policy makers must operate. That is, public officials will usually seek to satisfy a widespread demand—or at least take it into account in their deliberations—and they will usually try to avoid decisions that they believe will be widely unpopular.

Yet efforts by political leaders to accommodate government policies to public opinion are not always perceived as legitimate; indeed, journalists and political commentators have often characterized them as pandering to public opinion to curry favour with their constituents or as being driven by the latest poll results. Such charges were questioned, however, by public opinion scholars Lawrence R. Jacobs and Robert Y. Shapiro, who argued in *Politicians Don't Pander: Political Manipulation and the Loss of Democratic Responsiveness* (2000) that politicians do not actually do this. They found instead that by the early 1970s the accusation of pandering was being used deliberately by the prominent journalists, politicians, and other elites as a means of lessening the influence of public opinion on government policy. This practice, they theorized, might have resulted from long-standing suspicion or hostility among elites towards popular participation in government and politics. In keeping with their findings, Jacobs and Shapiro postulated the eventual disappearance from public discourse of the stigmatizing term *pandering* and its replacement by the more neutral term political responsiveness.

Although they rejected the charge of pandering, Jacobs and Shapiro also asserted that most politicians tend to respond to public opinion in cynical ways; most of them, for example, use public opinion research not to establish their policies but only to identify slogans and symbols that will make predetermined policies more appealing to their constituents. According to Jacobs and Shapiro, most public opinion research is used to manipulate the public rather than to act on its wishes.

Public opinion exerts a more powerful influence in politics through its "latent" aspects. As discussed by V.O. Key, latent public opinion is, in effect, a probable future reaction by the public to a current decision or action by a public official or a government. Politicians who ignore the possible consequences of latent public opinion risk setback or defeat in future elections. Government leaders who take latent public opinion into account, on the other hand, may be

## NOTES

## NOTES

willing to undertake an unpopular action that has a negative effect on public opinion in the near term, provided that the action is also likely to have a significant positive effect at a later and more important time.

Public opinion seems to be much more effective in influencing policy making at the local level than at the state or national levels. One reason for this is that issues of concern to local governments—such as the condition of roads, schools, and hospitals—are less complex than those dealt with by governments at higher levels; another is that at the local level there are fewer institutional or bureaucratic barriers between policy makers and voters. Representative government itself, however, tends to limit the power of public opinion to influence specific government decisions, since ordinarily the only choice the public is given is that of approving or disapproving the election of a given official.

### **Public Opinion Polling**

Public opinion polling can provide a fairly exact analysis of the distribution of opinions on almost any issue within a given population. Assuming that the proper questions are asked, polling can reveal something about the intensity with which opinions are held, the reasons for these opinions, and the probability that the issues have been discussed with others. Polling can occasionally reveal whether the people holding an opinion can be thought of as constituting a cohesive group. However, survey findings do not provide much information about the opinion leaders who may have played an important part in developing the opinion (although this information may be obtained through subgroup analysis, provided that the original sample is large enough to ensure that reports of opinion leaders are statistically reliable to a reasonable degree).

Polls are good tools for measuring “what” or “how much”. Finding out “how” or “why”, however, is the principal function of qualitative research—including especially the use of focus groups—which involves observing interactions between a limited number of people rather than posing a series of questions to an individual in an in-depth interview. However, polls cannot identify the likely future actions of the public in general, nor can they predict the future behaviour of individuals. They are also inappropriate as tools for exploring concepts unfamiliar to respondents. One of the best predictors of how people will vote is, simply, the vote that they cast in the last election. This is especially true if they automatically vote for the same political party, say they strongly support that party, and state that they are certain that they will vote.

Polls may serve a variety of purposes. Those reported in the media, for example, may be used to inform, to entertain, or to educate. In an election, well-run polls may constitute one of the most systematic and objective sources of political information. They are also the means by which journalists, politicians, business leaders, and other elites—whether they admit it or not—learn what the general public is thinking (other sources include casual encounters with ordinary citizens, listening to callers on radio talk shows, and reading letters from concerned citizens). Other things being equal, leaders who pay attention to public opinion will be better able to understand the groups they are trying to influence and better equipped to communicate overall.

Ideally, the people who prepare surveys and carry them out have no mission other than the objective and systematic measurement of public opinion. It is nonetheless possible for bias to enter into the polling process at any point, especially in cases where the entity commissioning the poll has a financial or political interest in the result or wishes to use the result to promote a specific agenda. Polls have been skewed from the outset by news companies surveying public opinion on political issues, by manufacturing firms engaged in market research, by interest groups seeking to popularize their views, and even by academic scholars wishing to inform or influence public discourse about some significant social or scientific issue. The results of such potentially biased surveys are frequently released to the media in order to magnify their impact, a practice known as advocacy polling. (See below Non-scientific polling.)

## **Opinion Research**

Opinion research developed from market research. Early market researchers picked small samples of population and used them to obtain information on such questions as how many people read a given magazine or listen to the radio and what the public likes and dislikes in regard to various consumer goods. About 1930 both commercial researchers and scholars began to experiment with the use of these market research techniques to obtain information on opinions about political issues. In 1935 the American public opinion statistician George Gallup began conducting nationwide surveys of opinions on political and social issues in the United States. One of the first questions asked by the American Institute of Public Opinion, later to be called the Gallup Poll, was "Are Federal expenditures for relief and recovery too great, too little, or about right?" To this, 60 per cent of the sample replied that they were too great, only 9 per cent thought they were too little, and 31 per cent regarded them as about right (the poll did not have a category for those who had no opinion).

## **NOTES**

## NOTES

From the 1930s on, the spread of opinion polls conducted by both commercial and academic practitioners continued at an accelerated pace in the United States. State and local polls—some sponsored by newspapers—were started in many parts of the country, and opinion research centres were organized at several universities. Before and during World War II, opinion polls were extensively used by the U.S. government agencies, notably the Department of Agriculture, the Treasury Department, and the War Department.

### Regional and Global Surveys

At the same time, opinion research was increasingly used in other parts of the world. Affiliates of the American Institute of Public Opinion were organized in Europe and Australia in the late 1930s, and, following World War II, polling organizations appeared in numerous countries of Europe, Asia, and Latin America. The World Association for Public Opinion Research was founded in 1947.

Several regional and multi country surveys were established in the 20th century. Studies of the European Economic Community first appeared as the Euro barometer Surveys in 1974. The twice-yearly surveys, sponsored by the European Union, use a common questionnaire to determine trends in attitudes in categories such as cultural and national identity, international relations, living conditions, media, political participation, values and religion, and policy debates within the European Union. The core survey is augmented by in-depth investigations of subjects such as the role of women, energy use and the environment, alcohol consumption, health, and the future of pension programs.

Other regional studies, often led by the university research programmes or NGOs as well as by the national governments, have been developed around the worlds. The Latinobarometer, based in Chile, publishes an annual study of attitudes towards democracy, trust in institutions, and other topical issues pertaining to Latin American countries. Similar comparative regional barometer surveys have been undertaken in eastern Europe, Africa, Southeast Asia, and the Caribbean. The International Social Survey Program, better known as the ISSP Survey, is a collaborative effort involving research organizations in many parts of the world. Its survey topics include work, gender roles, religion, and national identity. The World Values Survey takes a slightly more political tack by examining the ways in which religious views, identity, or individual beliefs correspond to larger phenomena such as democracy and economic development. Using World Values Survey results, the American political scientist Ronald Inglehart found that democratic institutions develop and endure only in societies that emphasize

what he called "self-expression values," including individual autonomy, tolerance, trust, and political activism. This value orientation is also known as postmaterialism.

Increasingly, corporations, NGOs, and other multinational charities and interest groups have sponsored international comparative studies, as have some countries. Many of these studies are conducted by commercial research companies that are themselves becoming multinational organizations.

Any opinion research that aims to be truly international faces a number of challenges. First, the programme must identify issues that can be studied in several different countries, if not throughout the world. Next, in developing the survey, the project leaders must determine ways to frame questions—many of which demand cultural sensitivity and careful wording—comparably from one country to the next. Many such surveys, however, fail to cover every region of the world adequately. The countries of the Middle East, for example, tend to be under-represented, and in some less-developed countries these surveys are carried out only in urban centres.

## **World Opinion**

The increasing importance of global telecommunication, trade, and transportation have contributed to interest in a new concept of world public opinion, or "world opinion". The idea began to receive serious academic consideration near the end of the 20th century, as scholars noticed certain global homogeneities in views and attitudes as well as in tastes and consumer behaviour.

According to the American political scientist Frank Rusciano, world opinion can be understood as "the moral judgements of observers which actors must heed in the international arena, or risk isolation as a nation". Rusciano argued that a "world opinion" of sorts can be identified when there is general consensus among informed and interested individuals around the world involving: (1) the major issues that form the agenda for world opinion, (2) the relative emphasis or importance allotted these issues over time, and (3) the dates or time period in which these issues were important. The challenge posed by the development of world opinion, he concluded, concerns a country's image in the world—that is, its reputation in world opinion. Citing examples such as Germany in the wake of reunification, South Africa during the era of apartheid, and the United States since the end of the Cold War, Rusciano suggested that some countries will adjust their actions in the world in order to maintain or strengthen their reputations in world opinion.

## **NOTES**

## NOTES

Some scholars have been skeptical of the notion of world opinion, arguing that it lacks methodological rigour. They question how the views of millions of people living in poverty or under totalitarian regimes can be accounted for and compared with the views of those living in capitalist democracies. By definition, world opinion cannot be measured, because there is no single general framework capable of drawing representative samples from the populations of different countries. Moreover, the rural areas of many developing countries—including China, India, Indonesia, Brazil, much of the Middle East, and most countries of Africa—are largely untouched by public opinion polling. Consequently, any formulation of world opinion tends to represent only the opinions of social and political elites living in urban centres. Although this emphasis may be partly justified by the fact that elite groups are able to influence events in their countries, it fails to represent the world population as a whole on the basis of one person, one vote. In order to achieve such global representation, a prototypical poll would need to accommodate the population disparities between countries by weighing, for example, the views of a single Chinese respondent with a factor roughly 100 times greater than that assigned to the views of a single British or American respondent. And there are examples of countries that choose to go against public opinion: Iceland, Norway, and Japan, for example, continued to allow commercial whaling operations despite criticisms and protests from around the world.

Despite these difficulties, Rusciano identified certain events, such as the First Persian Gulf War (1990–91), whose outcomes were bolstered by world opinion. He claimed that a prevailing world attitude of support for the defense of Kuwait effectively isolated Iraq and its President, Saddâm Hussein, and contributed to a swift U.S.-led victory against the Iraqi forces that had invaded Kuwait. In Rusciano's view, although world opinion may succeed in supporting, controlling, or limiting conflicts in certain instances, it is better conceived, at least for the present, as one among many variables utilized by political leaders in their formulation of foreign policy.

### **Political Polls**

Polls conducted on the eve of the voting day have been successful in forecasting election results in nearly every case in which they have been used for this purpose. Some notable failures occurred in the United States in 1948 (when nearly all polls forecast a Republican victory and the Democrats won by a narrow margin) and in Great Britain in 1970 (when all but one of the major polls incorrectly predicted a Labour Party victory) and again in 1992 (when all



polls incorrectly predicted a hung parliament). Professional opinion researchers point out that predicting elections is always uncertain, because of the possibility of last-minute shifts of opinion and unexpected turnouts on voting day; nevertheless, their record has been good over the years in nearly every country.

Although popular attention has been focused on polls taken before major elections, most polling is devoted to other subjects, and university-based opinion researchers usually do not make election forecasts at all. Support for opinion studies comes largely from public agencies, foundations, and commercial firms, which are interested in questions such as how well people's health, educational, and other needs are being satisfied, how problems such as racial prejudice and drug addiction should be addressed, and how well a given industry is meeting public demands. Polls that are regularly published in newspapers or magazines usually have to do with some lively social issue—and elections are included only as one of many subjects of interest. It is estimated that, in any country where polls are conducted for publication, electoral polling represents no more than 2 per cent of the work carried out by survey researchers in that country.

## **Methodology**

The principal steps in opinion polling are the following: defining the "universe", choosing a sample, framing a questionnaire, interviewing persons in the sample, collating the results, and then analyzing, interpreting, and ultimately reporting the results.

## **Persuasion and Public Opinion**

Public opinion is the collective expression of opinion of many individuals bound into a group by common aims, aspirations, needs, and ideals.

- Sociologists describe opinion leaders as: (1) highly interested in a subject or issue, (2) better informed on an issue than the average person, (3) avid consumers of mass media, (4) early adopters of new ideas, and (5) good organizers who can get other people to take action.
- The life cycle of public opinion includes (1) definition of the issue, (2) involvement of opinion leaders, (3) public awareness, (4) government/regulatory involvement, and (5) resolution.
- Persuasion is used to (1) change/neutralize hostile opinions, (2) crystallize latent opinions and positive attitudes, and (3) conserve favourable opinions.
- The most common propaganda techniques are known as (1) plain folks, (2) testimonial, (3) bandwagon, (4) card stacking, (5) transfer, and (6) glittering generalities.

## **NOTES**

## NOTES

The basic objective to most public relations programmes is to change or neutralize hostile opinions, to crystallize unformed or latent opinions, or to conserve favourable opinions by reinforcing them. This is done through persuasion. Primarily a communications process, persuasion is an effort to convey information in such a way as to get people to revise old pictures in their heads, or form new ones, and thus change their behaviour.

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### 3.6 SUMMARY

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The meaning of public opinion has changed dramatically over time. Political scientist Susan Herbst writes that "Formalized tabulation of political opinions began in the city-states of ancient Greece, where elections were viewed as central components of the democratic process." Yet it was not until the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries that quantification became a significant element of political discourse in the West. The American political scientist V.O. Key defined public opinion in 1961 as "opinions held by private persons which governments find it prudent to heed". Subsequent advances in statistical and demographic analysis led by the 1990s to an understanding of public opinion as the collective view of a defined population, such as a particular demographic or ethnic group.

Public opinion has different meanings depending on whether it acts as a critical authority in connection with a mandate that power be subject to publicity, or whether it acts as a moulded object of staged display. The two aspects of publicity and public opinion do not stand in relationship of norm to fact. Critical and manipulative publicity are of different orders. The public behaves in a different way in each manifestation. One is based on public opinion, the other on non-public opinion.

Various theories of public opinion have been developed since the early 20th century, though none has been recognized as predominant. According to a framework suggested by the Canadian communications theorist Sherry Devereux Ferguson, most of them fall into one or the other of three general categories. Some theories proposed in the first half of the 20th century treat public opinion as a welling up from the bottom levels of society to the top, ensuring a two-way flow of communication between the representatives and the represented. This "populist" approach acknowledges the tendency of public opinion to shift as individuals' interact with each other or respond to media influences. It has been opposed by theories of the "elitist" or social constructionist category, which emphasize the manipulative aspects of communication and recognize the multiplicity of perspectives that tends to form around any issue. Reflecting a

more pessimistic outlook, theories belonging to a third category, known as critical or radical-functionalist, hold that the general public—including minority groups—has negligible influence on public opinion, which is largely controlled by those in power. This perspective, however, has been challenged by those who recognize a persistent plurality of views in democracies, evidenced most recently by the flourishing of public discourse through the Internet and other new media.

Environmental factors play a critical part in the development of opinions and attitudes. Most pervasive is the influence of the social environment: family, friends, neighbourhood, place of work, church, or school. People usually adjust their attitudes to conform to those that are most prevalent in the social groups to which they belong.

Newspapers, radio, television, and the Internet—including e-mail and blogs—are usually less influential than the social environment, but they are still significant, especially in affirming attitudes and opinions that are already established. The news media focus the public's attention on certain personalities and issues, leading many people to form opinions about them. Government officials accordingly have noted that communications to them from the public tend to "follow the headlines".

Opinion research developed from market research. Early market researchers picked small samples of the population and used them to obtain information on such questions as how many people read a given magazine or listen to the radio and what the public likes and dislikes in regard to various consumer goods. About 1930 both commercial researchers and scholars began to experiment with the use of these market research techniques to obtain information on opinions about political issues. In 1935 the American public opinion statistician George Gallup began conducting nationwide surveys of opinions on political and social issues in the United States. One of the first questions asked by the American Institute of Public Opinion, later to be called the Gallup Poll, was "Are Federal expenditures for relief and recovery too great, too little, or about right?"

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### 3.7 GLOSSARY

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- **Prime Time:** The time in the evening when most people watch TV.
- **Print Media:** Information that is printed and given to the people, like magazines, newspapers, etc.
- **Printing Quality:** Quality of a printed paper.

### NOTES

**NOTES**

- **Product Placement:** When a product appears in a TV programme or a film.
- **Profit:** To earn money.
- **Publish:** When something is written, printed and sold.

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### **3.8 REVIEW QUESTIONS**

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1. What is the concept of public opinion?
2. Discuss the factors influencing public opinion.
3. What is the importance of trademarks?
4. Write a note on packaging and advertising.

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### **3.9 FURTHER READINGS**

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# CHAPTER—4

*An Introduction  
to Advertising*

## AN INTRODUCTION TO ADVERTISING

NOTES

### STRUCTURE

- 4.1 Introduction
- 4.2 Definitions and Basic Concepts of Advertising
- 4.3 Communication and Advertising
- 4.4 Advertising vis a vis Publicity
- 4.5 Public Relations and Marketing
- 4.6 Importance of Trademarks
- 4.7 Packaging in Advertising
- 4.8 Summary
- 4.9 Glossary
- 4.10 Review Questions
- 4.11 Further Readings

### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

The word 'advertising' comes from the Latin word "advertere" meaning "to turn the minds of towards". Some of the definitions given by various authors are:

According to William J. Stanton, "Advertising consists of all the activities involved in presenting to an audience a non-personal, sponsor-identified, paid-for message about a product or organization."

According to American Marketing Association, "advertising is any paid form of non-personal presentation and promotion of ideas, goods and services by an identified sponsor".

Advertising is used for communicating business information to the present and prospective customers. It usually provides information about the advertising

## NOTES

firm, its product qualities, place of availability of its products, etc. Advertisement is indispensable for both the sellers and the buyers. However, it is more important for the sellers. In the modern age of large scale production, producers cannot think of pushing sale of their products without advertising them. Advertisement supplements personal selling to a great extent. Advertising has acquired great importance in the modern world where tough competition in the market and fast changes in technology, we find fashion and taste in the customers.

Advertising is as old as civilization and has been used as the means of communication to buy and sell the goods and services to the society. Advertising is an important tool of promotion that can create wonders with beautiful words to sell product, service and also ideas. Advertising has, acquired great importance in the modern India characterized by tough competition in the market and fast changes in technology, and fashion and taste of customers.

Today as per the changing marketing situation advertising is not the only sufficient medium of communication. It has to be integrated with other mediums so as to create the long lasting impact on the consumers. Thus the concept of integrated marketing communication is gaining considerable momentum due to challenges faced by the advertisers in designing and implementing their advertising communication messages.

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## 4.2 DEFINITIONS AND BASIC CONCEPTS OF ADVERTISING

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1. American Marketing Association has defined advertising as "any paid form of non-personal presentation of ideas, goods and services by an identified sponsor".
2. According to Webster, "Advertising is to give public notice or to announce publicity".
3. According to Gardner, "Advertising is the means of mass selling that has grown up parallel with and has been made necessary to mass production".

### Features of Advertising

1. **Communication:** Advertising is a means of mass communication to reach the masses. It is a non-personal communication because it is addressed to masses.
2. **Information:** Advertising informs the buyers about the benefits they would get when they purchase a particular product. However, the information given should be complete and true.

## NOTES

3. **Persuasion:** The advertiser expects to create a favourable attitude which will lead to favourable actions. Any advertising process attempts at converting the prospects into customers. It is thus an indirect salesmanship and essentially a persuasion technique.
4. **Profit Maximization:** True advertising does not attempt at maximizing profits by increasing the cost but by promoting the sales. This way it won't lead to increase the price of the product.  
Thus, it has a higher sales approach rather than a higher-cost approach.
5. **Non-personal Presentation:** Salesmanship is a personal selling whereas advertising is non-personal in character. Advertising is not meant for any individual but for all. There is an absence of personal appeal in advertising.
6. **Identified Sponsor:** A sponsor may be an individual or a firm who pays for the advertisement. The name of a reputed company may increase the sale of products. A product gets good market because of its identity with the reputed corporate body.
7. **Consumer Choice:** Advertising facilitates consumer choice. It enables consumers to purchase goods as per their budget requirement and choice. Right choice makes consumer happy and satisfied.
8. **Art, Science and Profession:** Advertising is an art because it represents a field of creativity. Advertising is a science because it has a body of organized knowledge. Advertising is a profession which is now treated as a profession with its professional bodies and code of conduct for members.
9. **Element of Marketing Mix:** Advertising is an important element of promotion mix. It has proved to be of great utility to sell goods and services. Large manufactures spend crores of rupees on advertising.
10. **Element of Creativity:** A good advertising campaign involves lots of creativity and imagination. When the message of the advertiser matches the expectations of consumers, such creativity makes way for successful campaign.

### Objectives of Advertising

The fundamental purpose of advertising is to sell something—a product, a service or an idea. In addition to this general objective, advertising is also used by the modern business enterprises for certain specific objectives which are listed below:

1. To introduce a new product by creating interest for it among the prospective customers.

## NOTES

2. To support personal selling programme. Advertising may be used to open customers' doors for salesman.
3. To reach people inaccessible to salesman.
4. To enter a new market or attract a new group of customers.
5. To light competition in the market and to increase the sales as seen in the fierce competition between Coke and Pepsi.
6. To enhance the goodwill of the enterprise by promising better quality products and services.
7. To improve dealer relations. Advertising supports the dealers in selling the product. Dealers are attracted towards a product which is advertised effectively.
8. To warn the public against imitation of an enterprise's products.

### Importance of Advertising

Advertising has become an essential marketing activity in the modern era of large-scale production. It serves competition in the market. It performs the following functions:

1. **Promotion of Sales:** It promotes the sale of goods and services by informing and persuading the people to buy them. A good advertising campaign helps in winning new customers both in the national as well as in the international markets.
2. **Introduction of New Products:** It helps the introduction of new products in the market. A business enterprise can introduce itself and its product to the public through advertising. A new enterprise can't make an impact on the prospective customers without the help of advertising. Advertising enables quick publicity in the market.
3. **Creation of Good Public Image:** It builds up the reputation of the advertiser. Advertising enables a business firm to communicate its achievements in an effort to satisfy the customers' needs. This increases the goodwill and reputation of the firm which is necessary to fight against competition in the market.
4. **Mass Production:** Advertising facilitates large-scale production. It encourages production of goods in large-scale because the business firm knows that it will be able to sell on large-scale with the help of advertising. Mass production reduces the cost of production per unit by the economical use of various factors of production.
5. **Research:** Advertising stimulates research and development activities. It has become a competitive marketing activity. Every firm tries to differentiate its product from the substitutes available in the market through advertising.



This compels every business firm to do more and more research to find new products and their new uses. If a firm does not engage in research and development activities, it will be out of the market in the near future.

6. **Education of People:** Advertising educates people about new products and their uses. Advertising message about the utility of a product enables the people to widen their knowledge. It is advertising which has helped people in adopting new ways of life and giving-up old habits. It has contributed a lot towards the betterment of the standard of living of the society.
7. **Support to Press:** Advertising provides an important source of revenue to the publishers and magazines. It enables to increase the circulation of their publication by selling them at lower rates.

People are also benefited because they get publications at cheaper rates. Advertising is also a source of revenue for TV network. For instance, Doordarshan and ZeeTV insert ads before, in between and after various programmes and earn millions of rupees through ads. Such income could be used for increasing the quality of programmes and extending coverage.

### Active Participation in Advertising

Following are the group of people who are actively involved in advertising.

1. **Advertiser:** The sellers, who manufacture and market consumer products are the prominent group of advertisers. Hindustan Unilever, Proctor and Gamble, Seimen and Larson and Toubro are the examples of advertisers. Also the retailers are the second prominent segment among advertisers. They stock the products and sell them to the ultimate consumers. Government and social organization are also the active participant in this category.
2. **Target Audience:** It refers to the recipient of the advertising message. Every message is either directed to a mass audience or a class audience. Advertising desires to cover this target audience for promoting sales. Advertising message intends to cover the potential user and non-user who may purchase the product in future. The messages are also directed to the user of the competitor's product so that they switch over the advertiser's products.
3. **Advertising Agencies:** An advertiser has two options, viz., (i) to design, develop and produce an advertising message and get it placed in desired media directly through his own sales or advertising department, or (ii) to entrust the entire job of advertising to a team of highly professionalized,

### NOTES

## NOTES

specialized, independent, advertising agency. An advertising agency is composed of creative people, who conceive design, develop and produce, advertising message with creative ideas and place it in the desired advertising media, for and on behalf of its client (the advertiser). The advertising agencies usually charge a commission of 15% on the media bills from the media owners. In addition, they charge out-of pocket expenses to their clients, i.e., the advertisers. They employ copywriters, artists, photographers, typographers, layout designers, editors and such other creative people.

4. **Advertising Production People (Artists):** The production of impressive and persuasive advertisements is possible only with the active help and creative spirit of the artists like copywriters, artists, photographers, typographers, layout designers, editors and such other creative people. Such people are usually employed by the ad agencies or, their services may be hired by the ad agencies on job basis.
5. **Target Audience (Readers, Listeners, Viewers and Present and Future Buyers):** Advertising messages are given about products, services and ideas to readers, listeners, viewers and actual and potential buyers, who are known as the audience. The target audience may be classified into the following three categories, viz.,
  - (i) existing or, current consumers, who are reminded and influenced to continue their patronage and to increase the volume of their buying,
  - (ii) consumers, who buy and use, a competitor's brand; hence they are persuaded to buy the advertised brand, instead of the competitor's brand; and
  - (iii) those consumers, who do not use any such product; and even then, are persuaded to buy the advertised product.
6. **Mass Media:** Advertising messages are communicated to the target audience through different mass media, such as:
  - (i) *Print Media:* They consist of newspapers, magazines, journals, handbills, etc.
  - (ii) *Electronic Media:* They consist of radio, television, motion pictures, video, multi-media and the Internet.
  - (iii) *Outdoor Media:* They consists of posters, hoardings, handbills, stickers air balloons, neon sign bill boards, local cinema houses and transit media.

## NOTES

(iv) *Direct Mail*: It consists of brochures, leaflets, pamphlets, letters and return cards addressed to consumers. The advertising agencies guide their clients (advertisers) in selection of the most appropriate advertising media, which is known as media planning. Each medium has its own merits and demerits.

7. **Government Authorities**: The business of advertising is regulated by the government department. The government adopts law and regulation which have a direct or an indirect bearing on the advertising. Apart from this ASCI (Advertising Standards Council of India) and ABC (Audit Bureau of Circulation) are also some of authorities regulating advertising.

8. **Advertising Production Firms**: Advertising production firms are the support agencies which help in the production of advertisement. This includes copywriter, artist, photographers, typographers, producer, editors. These are the people who transform ideas into a finished form. Thus, the success and the failure of the advertisement depend on these people.

### Role of Advertising in Marketing Mix

Marketing mix consist of four important variables of marketing, i.e. 4Ps:

- Product
- Price
- Promotion, and
- Place.

Apart from the traditional 4Ps, there are also other variables, i.e.

- Packaging
- Postion, and
- Pace.

Advertising is an element of promotion. However, it not only assists in promoting the product, but also affects the other variables of marketing mix. This can be explained as follows:

1. **Advertising and Product**: A product is normally a set of physical elements, such as quality, shape, size, colour and other features. The product may be of very high quality. At times, the product is so designed that it requires careful handling and operations. Buyers must be informed and educated on the various aspects of the product. This can be effectively done through advertising. Thus, advertising plays the role of information and education.

## NOTES

- 2. Advertising and Price:** The price is the exchange value of the product. A marketer may bring out a very high quality product with additional features as compared to competitors. In such a case, price would be definitely high. But buyers may not be willing to pay a high price would be definitely high. Here comes advertising.

Advertising can convince buyers regarding the superiority of the brand and thus its value for money. This can be done by associating the product with prestigious people, situations, or events. Alternatively, when a firm offers a low price products the job of advertising needs to stress the price advantage by using hard hitting copy. It is not just enough to convince, but it is desirable to persuade the buyer. Thus, advertising plays the role of conviction and persuasion.

- 3. Advertising and Place:** Place refers to physical distribution and the stores where the goods are available. Marketer should see to it that the goods are available at the convenient place and that too at the right time when the buyers need it. To facilitate effective distribution and expansion of market, advertising is of great significance. Thus, advertising does help in effective distribution and market expansion.

- 4. Advertising and Promotion:** Promotion consists of advertising, publicity, personal selling and sales promotion technique. Businessmen today have to face a lot of competition. Every seller needs effective promotion to survive and succeed in this competitive business world. Advertising can play a significant role to put forward the claim of a seller, and to counter the claims of a competitor. Through effective advertising, sellers can face competition and also help to develop brand image and brand loyalty.

- 5. Advertising and Pace:** Pace refers to the speed in marketing decisions and actions. It involves among other things the launch of new products or brand variations at greater speed than before. As and when new brands are launched, advertising plays an important role of informing, educating and persuading the customers to buy the product.

- 6. Advertising and Packaging:** The main purpose of packaging is protection of the product during transit, and preservation of quality and quantity. Nowadays, marketers take a lot of efforts to develop and design attractive packages as they carry advertising value. A creatively design package attracts the attention of the customers. It also carries an assurance of quality and creates confidence in the minds of customers to buy the product.

7. **Advertising and Positioning:** Product positioning aims at creating and maintaining a distinct image of the brands in the minds of the customers. Through advertising the marketer can convey the positioning of the brand and accordingly can influence the buying decision of the target audience.

## NOTES

### Role of Advertising in Society

Advertising is the integral part of everyday's life. It is a pervasive method of marketing in society. Though the methods by which marketers advertise have changed over the decades, the role and purpose of advertising has changed over the period of time. Without advertising modern society cannot survive. Advertising is useful to society in following ways.

*Encourages Purchasing:* Encouraging people to purchase goods and services is the main role of advertising. Some industries rely on advertising more than others: A cereal company, for instance, must advertise more aggressively, due to the wide arrange of competing products, than a power company that faces little or no competition. Advertisers often influence members of society to purchase products based on instilling a feeling of scarcity or lack.

*Reflects Cultural Trends:* Advertising bridges the gap among people by communicating varied culture through advertising message. It brings variation in the social life.

*Promotes Economic Growth:* Advertising contributes to bring about all round development of the economy by increasing demand and by encouraging economic activities. It fuels the desire to shop and, in turn, shopping stimulates the economy.

*Improves Standard of Living:* Advertising is an economic activity. It provides opportunities to people to improve their income. It motivates people to consume more material and thereby improves their standard of living.

*Provides Employment:* Effective advertising generates demand for goods and services. High demand calls for more production which requires more of physical and human resources thus creating employment opportunities.

### Advertising and Brand Building

Brands are the identification that differentiate one business from another (through name, symbol, etc.). However, today brands can also be defined as the personality they reflect to people in relation to status, emotional characteristics and subjective quality.

## NOTES

They give the consumers a perceived knowledge of the product, its quality and uniqueness before they buy it. Brands ensure delivery of service as promised by them. For example, pizza company A claims to deliver pizza within a certain time and pizza company B claims to deliver most delicious pizzas.

It makes easy for the consumers to identify what they want and which brand to choose for it. It is important for a brand to accomplish the claim advertised to retain Brand Image.

Advertising is one of the key elements in building a brand, which is equally important to the marketer and consumers. Brand personality acts as a potent brand differentiator and offers sustainable competitive advantage.

Advertising by creating or reinforcing brand's personality enhances brand value or equity which in turn can be leveraged through brand extension. Brand personality also helps brands to gain market share, command price premium and insulates from discounting brands.

Building a strong brand name is a key factor for business success. In the competitive business environment of today, consumer sophistication has altered business practices.

Organizations are forced to anticipate customers' needs and convey clear messages to consumers by establishing strong brand names and focusing on brand building.

A brand's practical attributes and symbolic values are inherent elements that help the brand appeal on consumers' minds and emotion. When consumers relate brands with symbols, it becomes easier for an organization to raise consumer interest. For instance, Lexus is known for luxury, or Apple is known for innovation.

Therefore, in consumers' minds, a brand is more than just a recognizable name: it is a promise that needs to be met on a regular basis.

Advertising is important for building brand awareness. By raising consumer interest and making consumers awareness of their products and services, firms not only expand their customer base, but also keep their loyal customers and increase their market share. In other words, the more aware consumers are of a brand, the more likely they are to buy from a particular business.

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## 4.3 COMMUNICATION AND ADVERTISING

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All organizations—large and small, commercial, government, charities, educational and other not-for-profit organizations—need to communicate with a range of stakeholders. This may be in order to get materials and services to

undertake their business activities, or to collaborate and coordinate with others to secure suitable distribution of their goods and services. In addition, there are consumers—you and me—people who are free to choose among the many hundreds and thousands of product offerings. Marketing communications provides a core activity so that all interested parties can understand the intentions of others and services offered.

## NOTES

Traditionally, there are five main marketing communication disciplines or tools: advertising, sales promotion, personal selling (see the EBS Sales Force Management text), public relations and direct marketing. In addition, there are media in which time and space can be bought or used to deliver messages to target audience. The appropriate mix of these tools and the choice of media have for a long time been largely predictable. Distinct mixes could be identified for business-to-consumer (b2c) and business-to-business (b2b) audiences. There were variations reflecting particular brand circumstances, but essentially in the b2c market advertising was used to build brand values, sales promotions were used to encourage customer action, and public relations sought to generate goodwill and interest about the company. Personal selling was regarded as the primary tool in b2b markets, but it also had a role to play in retail environments, for example selling consumer durables. In the 1990s, direct marketing became a more prominent tool in the mix because technology had enabled a form of communication by appealing personally and directly to the target customer. This change introduced new media formats, and the subsequent development of the Internet and related digital technologies has accelerated change in the marketing communications industry. There are now a myriad of opportunities to reach audiences, with the Internet representing a new, yet challenging, form of communication channel.

At the same time as the media world has splintered into many different parts so have the audiences with whom organizations need to communicate. Consumers now have a variety of different ways to spend their leisure time. Some of those who choose to incorporate the media as part of their relaxation now have access to numerous television channels; all have access to an increasing number of general and specific interest magazines, a multitude of new cinema complexes and, of course, the Internet, with an explosion of websites offering a seemingly endless source of information, opportunities to buy online and a form of global entertainment. The world of marketing communications is bright, exciting, sometimes unpredictable, yet always challenging and evolving.

Managers are now required not only to find new ways to communicate but also to do so on reduced budgets, and they must account for their

## NOTES

communications spend. The development of long-term relationships with customers, whether in b2b or b2c markets, is now an essential aspect of marketing policy. Customer retention is crucial today, and various devices, such as loyalty schemes, are used to shape long-term customer behaviour. Organizations now accept that the tools of the promotional mix are not the only way in which brands communicate. All parts of the marketing mix communicate.

The behaviour of employees and the performance of products, the actions of competitors – all serve to influence the way in which each customer perceives a brand. Corporate branding is now recognized as an integral part of the overall communication effort. Corporate reputation and the actions undertaken by the organizations are perceived not only in terms of brand values and profits but also in terms of their ethics, and the impact that organizations have on the environment. Marketing communications agencies are trying to adjust the way they can best serve the interests of their clients. One of the results is structural realignment (mergers and takeovers), which can lead to consolidation. Clients themselves are fighting to generate superior value for their customers and to find new ways of establishing competitive advantage. Globalization and the development of partnerships, alliances and networks are all testimony to changing markets and expectations. Where does this all lead? It leads to a new form of and role for marketing communications, and to a vision that an organization's entire marketing communications should be planned, coherent and consistent. This word—consistency—applies to internal policies and strategies, to messages to and from internal and external stakeholders: consistency with the values of their customers and with the relationships they forge with key suppliers and distributors. This course text introduces students to this changing world of marketing communications, and allows them to appreciate some of the conceptual underpinnings associated with marketing communications and associated aspects of integration. There are examples of the practical application of marketing communications, and examples that demonstrate the application of theory in practice. This course text does not just show how organizations use marketing communications; it also contains theoretical material to enable readers to understand why organizations use marketing communications in the ways they do.

Organizations engage with a variety of audiences in order to pursue their marketing and business objectives. Engagement refers to the form of communication and to whether the nature of the messages and media is essentially intellectual or emotional. Invariably organizations use a mixture of these two elements in order that they be heard, understood and engage their audiences in dialogue and mutually beneficial relationships.



## **NOTES**

MTV, Unilever, Virgin, Gucci, Oxfam, CNN, Singapore Airlines, easyJet, First-Pacific, Samsung and Disney operate across a number of sectors, markets and countries and use a variety of marketing communication tools to engage with their various audiences. These audiences consist not only of people who buy their products and services but also of people and organizations who might be able to influence them, who might help and support them by providing, for example, labour, finance, manufacturing facilities, distribution outlets and legal advice, or who are interested because of their impact on parts of society or the business sector in particular.

The organizations mentioned earlier are all well-known brand-names, but there are hundreds of thousands of smaller organizations that also need and use marketing communications to convey the essence of their products and services and to engage their audiences. Each of these organizations, large and small, is a part of a network of companies, suppliers, retailers, wholesalers, value-added resellers, distributors and other retailers, which join together, often freely, so that each can achieve its own goals. Effective communication is critically important to organizations, which is why they use a variety of promotional tools. Advertising, sales promotion, public relations, direct marketing, personal selling and added-value approaches such as sponsorship are the most used. To get their messages through they use traditional media such as print and broadcast, cinema and radio; but increasingly digital media, and the Internet in particular, are used to 'talk' to with their customers, potential customers, suppliers, financiers, distributors, communities and employees, among others.

Marketing communications provides the means by which brands and organizations are presented to their audiences. The goal is to stimulate a dialogue that will, ideally, lead to a succession of purchases and complete engagement. This interaction represents an exchange between each organization and each customer; according to the quality and satisfaction of the exchange process, it will or will not be repeated. It follows, therefore, that communication is a very important and integral part of the exchange process, and it is the skill and judgement of management that determine, in most cases, success or failure. Marketing communications is an audience-centred activity.

Bowersox and Morash (1989) demonstrated how marketing flows, including the information flow, can be represented as a network whose sole purpose is the satisfaction of customer needs and wants. Communication plays an important role in these exchange networks. At a basic level, communication can assume one of three main roles:

## NOTES

1. It can inform and make potential customers aware of an organization's offering.
2. Communication may attempt to persuade current and potential customers of the desirability of entering into an exchange relationship.
3. Communication can also be used to reinforce experiences. This may take the form of reminding people of a need they might have, or of reminding them of the benefits of past transactions with a view to convincing them that they should enter into a similar exchange. In addition, it is possible to provide reassurance or comfort either immediately prior to an exchange or, more commonly, post-purchase. This is important, as it helps to retain current customers and improve profitability. This approach to business is much more cost-effective than constantly striving to lure new customers.

Marketing communications can act as a differentiator, particularly in markets where there is little to separate competing products and brands. Mineral water products, such as Perrier and Highland Spring, are largely similar: it is the communications surrounding the products that have created various brand images, enabling consumers to make purchasing decisions. In these cases the images created by marketing communications disassociate one brand from another and position them so that consumers' purchasing confidence and positive attitudes are developed. Therefore, communication can inform, persuade, reinforce and build images to delineate a product or service.

At higher level, the communication process not only supports the transaction, by informing, persuading, reinforcing or differentiating, but also offers a means of exchange itself, for example communication for entertainment, for potential solutions and concepts for education and self-esteem. Communications involve intangible benefits, such as the psychological satisfactions, which are associated with, for example, the entertainment value of television advertisements. Communications can also be seen as a means of perpetuating and transferring values and culture to different parts of society or networks. For example, it is argued that the way women are portrayed in the media and stereotypical images of very thin or anorexic women are dysfunctional in the sense that they set up inappropriate role models. The form and characteristics of the communication process adopted by some organizations (both the deliberate and the unintentional use of signs and symbols used to convey meaning) help to provide stability and continuity.

### **Marketing Communications and the Process of Exchange**

The exchange process is developed and managed by researching consumer/ stakeholder needs, identifying, selecting and targeting particular groups of

consumers/ stakeholders who share similar discriminatory characteristics, including needs and wants, and developing an offering that satisfies the identified needs at an acceptable price, and is made available through particular sets of distribution channels. The next task is to make the target audience aware of the existence of the offering. Where competition or other impediments to positive consumer action exist, such as lack of motivation or conviction, a promotional programme is developed and used to communicate with the targeted group.

## NOTES

Collectively, these activities constitute the marketing mix—the 4Ps, as McCarthy (1960) originally referred to them—and the basic task of marketing is to combine these 4Ps into a marketing programme to facilitate the exchange process. The use of the 4Ps approach has been criticized as limiting the scope of the marketing manager. McCarthy's assumption was that the tools of the marketing mix allow adaptation to the uncontrollable external environment. It is now seen that the external environment can be influenced and managed strategically, and the rise and influence of the service sector is not easily accommodated within the original 4Ps. To accommodate these factors, additional Ps, such as Processes, Political Power and People, have been suggested. A marketing mix of 20Ps has even been proposed by some, but the essence of the mix remains the same, and this deterministic approach has raised concerns and doubts about its usefulness in a marketing environment that is very different from that in which the 4Ps were conceived. Promotion is therefore one of the elements of the marketing mix, and is responsible for the communication of the marketing offer to the target market. Certainly there is implicit and important communication through the other elements of the marketing mix (through a high price, for example, symbolic of high quality), but it is the task of a planned and integrated set of communication activities to communicate effectively with each of an organization's stakeholder groups. Marketing communications are sometimes perceived as dealing only with communications that are external to the organization, but good communications with internal stakeholders, such as employees, are also vital if successful favourable images, perceptions and attitudes are to be established, in the long term. This text considers the increasing importance of suitable internal communications and their vital role in helping to form a strong and consistent corporate identity.

The influence of social forces on marketing, and on marketing communications in particular, can be immense. For example, in the past few years increasing media and public attention has been paid to issues concerning healthy eating, obesity, and the role that food manufacturers and retailers play in helping us (or not) to be slimmer. Little Chef, which owns several hundred roadside restaurants, has used the brand icon of a chef called Charlie, who has

## NOTES

carried a discernible paunch since he first appeared in the 1970s. As part of an overall marketing strategy to provide guests with a healthy range of menu items, using less salt and more fruit, it was decided to slim Charlie down. Part of Little Chef's research programme included the use of focus groups and an online voting system for the public to decide which icon they preferred. The public decided, quite emphatically, that Charlie should not be slimmed down. The Michelin Man used to drink and smoke before social pressures forced these habits out. In 1998 he lost weight as well, in an effort to avoid unattractive associations. These changes can also be interpreted by the public as a measure of an organization's image and reputation.

New forms of promotion have been developed in response to changing market and environmental conditions. For example, public relations is now seen by some to have both a marketing and a corporate dimension. Direct marketing is now recognized as an important way of developing closer relationships with buyers, both consumer and organizational, while new and innovative forms of communication through sponsorship, floor advertising, video screens on supermarket trolleys and check-out coupon dispensers, and the Internet and associated technologies mean that effective communication requires the selection and integration of an increasing variety of communication tools. The marketing communication mix attempts to reflect these developments, and represents a new promotional configuration for organizations.

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## 4.4 ADVERTISING VIS A VIS PUBLICITY

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Advertising and publicity are very effective methods to promote and create positive awareness for you and your business. But there is a clear difference between advertising and publicity. Advertising is something you get by paying for it. Publicity however, is something you hope you'll get. Why? Because publicity can be generally gained at no cost to you. And... it generally has many times the credibility of advertising. Here's what we mean:

There are some experts like Al Reis, author of the superb marketing text, "Positioning: The Battle For Your Mind," who believe a majority of companies shouldn't waste their money on advertising until they have established name recognition and credibility through public relations and publicity. Others will tell you that a combination of both advertising and PR are required. But one thing's for certain: Every expert agrees, "that you can't just put up your website, open your store, offer your service or manufacture a product and then not do anything to attract customers!"

## NOTES

So... advertising is content you pay for (radio, television, newspaper, banner advertising, etc). Publicity on the other hand, refers to free content about you and your company that appears in the media. It's what others say about you. Publicity can result when an article you write is published, or when information you give to an editor convinces him/her to feature a story about you or is based on a publicity release issued by a public relations firm you have retained. Over time, these stories help create a favourable impression of your product or services.

The average person has no real idea of how the media find their stories, but the prevailing view seems to be that reporters go out and find all of their news. This is simply not realistic thinking! There just aren't enough reporters on the planet to find every bit of news worth covering. So if you can present your information convincingly, there's a good chance that you'll gain the interest of the media.

So how can I get publicity for my company? Well...let's deal with the Internet here. The Internet or World Wide Web, has its own rules about commercialism, and it usually is disastrous to those who break them. If your press releases, postings or articles are blatant self-promotion or a sales pitch instead of truly useful information they will be ignored and won't be used. Worse, you risk the negative publicity of being flamed (you and your company being strongly put down online, or you'll receive quantities of unwanted and negative e-mail). So... here's a simple philosophy to follow: Before you put out a public message, play "who cares"? and ask yourself "why would other people be interested in what I have to say"? or "how can people benefit from the information I am supplying"? If you can't come up with solid, positive answers to these questions, keep working on your publicity release or article until you do.

### **Publicity**

Publicity is the deliberate attempt to manage the public's perception of a subject. The subjects of publicity include people (for example, politicians and performing artists), goods and services, organizations of all kinds, and works of art or entertainment.

Publicity is the act of attracting the media attention and gaining visibility with the public. It necessarily needs the compliment of the media it cannot be done internally. It is the process of making service known by the people or creating awareness or letting your product known or your company. It is the publicist that carries out publicity while PR is the strategic management function

## NOTES

that helps an organization communicate, establish and maintain relation with the important audiences. It can be done internally without the use of media.

From a marketing perspective, publicity is one component of promotion which is one component of marketing. The other elements of the promotional mix are advertising, sales promotion, direct marketing and personal selling. Examples of promotional tactics include:

- Art people
- Event sponsorship
- Arrange a speech or talk
- Make an analysis or prediction
- Conduct a poll or survey
- Issue a report
- Take a stand on a controversial subject
- Arrange for a testimonial
- Announce an appointment
- Invent then present an award
- Stage a debate
- Organize a tour of your business or projects
- Issue a commendation.

The advantages of publicity are low cost, and credibility (particularly if the publicity is aired in between news stories like on evening TV news casts). New technologies such as weblogs, web cameras, web affiliates, and convergence (phone-camera posting of pictures and videos to websites) are changing the cost-structure. The disadvantages are lack of control over how your releases will be used, and frustration over the low percentage of releases that are taken up by the media.

Publicity draws on several key themes including birth, love, and death. These are of particular interest because they are themes in human lives which feature heavily throughout life. In television serials several couples have emerged during crucial ratings and important publicity times, as a way to make constant headlines. Also known as a publicity stunt, the pairings may or may not be according to the fact.

“Publicity is not merely an assembly of competing messages: it is a language in itself which is always being used to make the same general proposal,” writes

the art critic John Berger. "It proposes to each of us that we transform ourselves, or our lives by buying. Publicity is not paid for something more."

**Publicists:** A publicist is a person whose job is to generate and manage publicity for a product, public figure, especially a celebrity, or for a work such as a book or movie or band. Publicists could work in large companies as in little companies.

Though there are many aspects to a publicist's job, their main function is to persuade the press to report about their client in the most positive way possible. Publicists are adept at identifying and pulling out "newsworthy" aspects of products and personalities to offer to the press as possible reportage ideas. Publicists offer this information to reporters in the specific format of a magazine, newspaper, TV or radio show, or online outlet. The third aspect of a publicist's job is to shape "stories" about their clients at a time that fits within a media outlet's news cycle.

Publicists are most often categorized under a marketing arm of a company. Marketing is anything that a company does to get its product into the hands of a customer who will pay for it. Publicity, specifically, uses the objective opinion of a reporter to tell that story. A seasoned publicist knows how to present a newsworthy story in a way that suggests editorial coverage in a certain direction. This is what is generally referred to as "spin", though it is not a negative connotation, only a very keen ability to present a story in a way that fits for a media outlet at the right time.

**Effectiveness of Publicity:** The theory, *Any press is good press*, has been coined to describe situations where bad behaviour by people involved with an organization or brand has actually resulted in positive results, due to the fame and press coverage accrued by such events.

One example would be the Australian Tourism Board's "So where the bloody hell are you?" advertising campaign that was initially banned in the UK, but the amount of publicity it generated resulted in the official website for the campaign being swamped with requests to see the banned ad.

**Publicity vs. Public Relations:** Recently in the marketing world, the terms "publicity" and "public relations" are often thought of and discussed in the same breath. These terms are also often used interchangeably. However, they shouldn't be. They are in fact quite different—a difference many people do not fully understand. KPS13 would like to shed some light on this mystery.

Publicity is simply just one arrow in the quiver that is public relations. Publicity is the effort to garner media coverage or exposure about a brand,

## NOTES

## NOTES

product, event, etc. Its focus is narrow. Public relations, on the other hand, is the higher level development of an over-arching strategy for furthering a marketing or communications goal of an organization. It is often associated with the term “reputation management.”

It is true that publicity is a tool that PR professionals can use, but it is only a single tool. If your PR firm is limited to just creating publicity, you do not truly have a PR firm.

Other aspects of PR (beyond publicity) might include: community outreach, corporate social responsibility programming and sponsorships, government relations, grassroots communications and engagement efforts, “public” presentations and other tools used to position the organization as thought leaders, new media tactics, and many more.

So publicity is a way of providing newsworthy information about your company and its product to the general public. It involves writing a press release of newsworthy information about your company and its products and sending it to the media. The media will often use the information if it considers the press release to contain genuine news and not information designed to sell your product. The advantage of publicity over advertising is that publicity is free and usually reaches a larger and broader audience.

Public relations is closely related to publicity and focuses on managing the relationship between your company and its customers and the general public. It focuses less on selling your products and more on promoting your company as a good neighbour and a valuable part of the community.

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## 4.5 PUBLIC RELATIONS AND MARKETING

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Our basic premise is that organizations are best served by the inherent diversity of perspectives provided by separate public relations and marketing functions. Theory developed in the IABC Excellence Project shows that public relations makes an organization more effective when it identifies strategic constituencies in the environment and then develops communication programmes to build long-term, trusting relationships with them. Participation in strategic management provides the integrating link for public relations in enhancing organizational effectiveness. To provide its unique contribution, however, public relations must be separate from other management functions. However, communication programmes should be integrated or coordinated by a public relations department and that department should have a matrix arrangement with other departments it serves. Therefore, we advocate integrated marketing



communication of advertising and marketing public relations. We add that an integrated marketing communication programme should be coordinated through the broader public relations function. Data are presented from the Excellence study confirming that public relations is most excellent when it is strategic and when marketing does not dominate public relations. However, public relations was equally excellent when housed in a single department or in specialized communication departments. Beyond structure, we add that marketing communication theories, if applied by an integrated department, differ in important ways from public relations theory and that discussion and research are needed to resolve these differences and to integrate the theories into a broader communication theory.

## NOTES

The role of public relations in management and its value to an organization have been debated for at least 100 years. The debate has centred on the question of whether the role of public relations is to support marketing or whether it serves a broader social and political function. Tedlow (1979) studied the history of corporate public relations from 1900 to 1950 and concluded that the public relations function survived during that half century because it fulfilled the broader function:

Public relations has promised two benefits to business: increased sales and protection from unpopularity which could lead to detrimental governmental or regulatory agency activity. . . . It is not as a sales device, however, but as a method for protection against the political consequences of a hostile public opinion that corporate public relations has been most influential. If it had been restricted to sales promotion, public relations might have been absorbed by advertising departments and could have been dismissed as a footnote to business history. Instead, it grew into a tool for dealing with many publics, including residents of plant communities, employees, suppliers and dealers, and politicians as well as customers. The debate has continued, however, and has become intense in recent years as both scholars and practitioners have debated the relationship of public relations to the concepts of integrated marketing communication (IMC) and integrated communication (IC). White and Mazur (1995) captured this debate when they described three possible 'futures' for public relations.

There are a number of possible futures for public relations. In the first scenario, it becomes largely a technical practice, using communication techniques to support marketing activities and is involved in work on product and corporate branding, corporate reputation, market penetration and development.

## NOTES

In the second, public relations will increasingly become a social practice, helping organizations into their social environments, and working on relationships between groups to help bring about social and economic development, and to help in completing social tasks.

These futures are not mutually exclusive. Public relations is a strategic and enabling practice. To progress, it will need to mark out its agenda, and to invest in a programme of research and development to do this. Both Tedlow's (1979) two historical paths for public relations and White and Mazur's (1995) three future scenarios centre on the relationship between public relations and marketing: Is one a subset of the other, does one serve the other or do the two provide different but equally important contributions to an effective organization? In this article, we address both theoretical and empirical literature about this relationship. In doing so, we conclude with the overarching premise that the organization is best served by the inherent diversity of perspectives provided by marketing and public relations when those functions remain distinct and coordinated yet not integrated. To develop this premise, we begin with theoretical discussions of structural relationships between public relations and marketing.

### **Structural Relationship to Public Relations and Marketing**

Kotler and Mindak were among the first to address the relationship between public relations and marketing when they outlined five alternative arrangements.

1. Separate but equal functions (marketing and public relations have different functions, perspectives and capabilities).
2. Equal but overlapping functions (both are important and separate functions but they share some terrain, particularly product publicity and customer relations; in addition, public relations serves as a 'watchdog' on the social responsibility of marketing).
3. Marketing as the dominant function (marketing manages the relationship with all publics in the same way as the relationship with customers – 'mega marketing').
4. Public relations as the dominant function (if public relations builds relationships with all key publics of the organization, then programmes to build relationships with customers, i.e., marketing, would be a subset of public relations).
5. Marketing and public relations as the same function (public relations and marketing converge in concepts and methodologies and a single department manages the external affairs of the company).

Hallahan (1992) modified Kotler and Mindak's typology to include six arrangements:

(1) Celibate (only one of the functions exists), (2) co-existent (the two functions operate independently), (3) combative (the two functions are at odds), (4) co-optive (one function usurps the other), (5) coordinated (the two functions are independent but work closely together) or (6) combined (the two functions operate within a single unit).

Public relations scholars and professionals have expressed fear of arrangements in which marketing dominates public relations or when the two are combined into a single unit—arrangements that Lauzen (1991, 1992) called 'marketing imperialism' and 'encroachment' on public relations territory. Marketing professionals presumably would feel the same about public relations departments taking over the marketing function. In a book on hospital public relations, for example, Lewton (1991) described the problems of either a dominant or combined structure:

Obviously, when the issue is one of merging both functions, and either public relations being 'under marketing', or marketing being 'under public relations', some concerns are inevitable, just as there would be concerns if a hospital were going to have the human resources department report to finance, or medical staff relations report to the legal department. In a public relations-marketing merger, the PR professionals wonder why their discipline is seen as a subset of marketing (which it isn't), and wonder what marketing number-crunchers know about media and stakeholder relations. They're concerned that other non-customer audiences will be ignored. If marketing is placed under public relations, marketers wonder how a PR vice-president can make decisions on pricing or set up an effective sales representative programme. They're concerned that their customers—who are their universe—will get lost in the midst of 'all those audiences'.

In contrast to the frequent discussion in the theoretical literature about subservient relationships between public relations and marketing, in a representative sample of 75 of the 300 largest US corporations Hunter found that public relations and marketing most commonly are separate but equal management partners. Of these corporations, 81% had separate public relations and marketing departments. In two-thirds of the cases the two departments were on the same level and when one was above the other, public relations was as likely to be above marketing as below.

Approximately one-third of the public relations departments reported directly to the chief executive officer (CEO) and one-third to a vice-president of corporate

## NOTES

## NOTES

communication. The other third reported to other vice-presidents or lower managers. Few public relations departments reported to or were integrated into a marketing department in these companies.

As might be expected, Hunter (1997) also found that marketing is more likely to be dominant in consumer product companies, for whom the consumer stakeholder is most important. Public relations, however, dominated in utilities, which are regulated and for which government and other stakeholders are crucial.

Hunter (1997) followed up his survey with qualitative interviews with public relations executives in six companies. In contrast to discussions in the literature of conflict between public relations and marketing, he found that these executives described their relationships with marketing as positive. Marketing and public relations departments cooperated as equal partners which respected the contributions of the other.

The situation that Hunter (1997) found in the US suggests that we should examine not whether public relations and marketing should be integrated or merged but how they work together most truthfully in successful, well-managed organizations. That question was a major one that we addressed in a 10-year study of excellence in public relations and communications management.

*Principles from the Excellence Study:* Together with four colleagues, we began a major research project in 1985 with financial support from the IABC (International Association of Business Communicators) Research Foundation. The project addressed two major research questions.

1. What values do public relations-communications management have for an organization?
2. How should the public relations function be organized to contribute most to organizational effectiveness?

The answer to the first research question provided an overarching theoretical principle that explained why the principles for organizing the public relations function make an organization more effective. One of these key principles defined the relationship of public relations to strategic management. Two others defined the relationship of public relations to marketing and other management functions: (The theoretical principles were developed in Grunig, J. (1992); some results were presented in Dozier *et al.* (1995) and complete results will be presented in L. Grunig, J. Grunig and D.M. Dozier (in preparation)).

**The Value of Public Relations:** The literature on organizational effectiveness indicates, first, that organizations are effective when they attain their goals (Grunig, L. *et al.*, 1992). However, it also suggests that these goals must be appropriate for the organization's internal and external environment—which consists of strategic constituencies (stakeholders or publics). If an organization chooses appropriate goals, strategic constituencies will support the organization and, in doing so, provide it with a competitive advantage (Vercic and Grunig, 1995). If it chooses inappropriate goals, the constituencies will organize and constrain the ability of the organization to achieve its mission. To be effective, therefore, organizations must build long-term relationships with the publics in their environment that have consequences on organizational decisions or upon whom those decisions have consequences.

Organizations plan public relations programmes strategically when they identify strategic publics and use communication programmes to build stable, open and trusting relationships with them. Thus, the quality of these relationships is an important indicator of the long-term contribution that public relations makes to organizational effectiveness.

### **Strategic Management as the Key to Excellent Public Relations**

Participation in strategic management provides the integrating link that makes it possible for the public relations function to contribute to achieve the goals of an organization. Excellent public relations departments contribute to decisions made by the dominant coalition that runs an organization by providing information to those senior managers about strategic publics.

Organizations use strategic management to define their missions and make 'relatively consequential decisions' (Mintzberg, 1994, p. 27), but they do so through an iterative process of interacting with their environments. Most theories of strategic management do not suggest a formal mechanism in the organization for interacting with the institutional, social and political component of the environment and do not acknowledge the presence of public relations (see, e.g. Ring, 1989). To a public relations scholar, however, public relations departments provide the obvious mechanism for organizations to interact with strategic constituencies that make up their social and political environments (for additional conceptualization of public relations and strategic management. When public relations is a part of the organization's strategic management function, public relations departments are likely to manage communication programmes strategically. The senior public relations manager helps to identify the stakeholders of the organization by participating in central strategic management. He or she then develops programmes at the functional level of the public relations department

## **NOTES**

to build long-term relationships with these strategic publics. In this way, public relations communicates with the publics that are most likely to constrain or enhance the effectiveness of the organization.

## NOTES

The role of public relations in strategic management is most clear if we take a post-modern view of strategic management as a subjective process in which the participants from different management disciplines (such as marketing, finance, law, human resources or public relations) assert their disciplinary identities. A rational approach to strategic management would suggest that participants come together to find the best solution to problems they agree on. The subjective view, however, suggests that participants in strategic management from different disciplines recognize different problems as important as well as different solutions. Marketing would see the problem of selling products as most important, manufacturing the problem of producing products, human resources, the problem of motivating employees and the problem of acquiring resources. The value of public relations, therefore, is that it brings a different set of problems and possible solutions to the strategic management arena. In particular, it brings the problems of stakeholder publics into decision-making publics that make up the environment of the organization.

*Public Relations and Other Management Functions:* Among the principles of excellent public relations that increase organizational effectiveness, the research team proposed that integrating all communication functions through the public relations department enhances the ability of the communication function to participate in strategic management. With such integration, public relations departments are organised into horizontal structures that reflect the strategic publics or stakeholders of the organizations. The managers of these sub functions—such as employee relations, marketing communication, investor relations or community relations—have a matrix relationship with both the public relations department and the functional department they serve.

However, the decision of which publics are most strategic at a particular time is made by the senior public relations officer in collaboration with the CEO and other members of the organization's dominant coalition and resources are moved from programme to programme depending on which publics are most strategic in different situations. With such integration, marketing communication reports to public relations serves marketing, employee communication reports to public relations serves human resources and so forth.

Four principles of public relations excellence specify the relationship of public relations to strategic management and to other management functions such as marketing.

1. The public relations function should be located in the organizational structure so that it has ready access to the key decision makers of the organization—the dominant coalition—and so that it can contribute to the strategic management processes of the organization.
2. All communication programmes should be integrated into or coordinated by the public relations department.
3. Public relations should not be subordinated to other departments such as marketing, human resources or finance.
4. Public relations departments should be structured horizontally to reflect strategic publics, so that it is possible to reassign people and resources to new programmes as new strategic publics emerge and other publics cease to be strategic.

## NOTES

**Integrating Communication: IMC or IC:** In the US and throughout the world, there has been an intense debate over whether public relations, advertising and sales promotion should be integrated into a programme called 'integrated marketing communication (IMC)'. IMC consists of integrating what Harris called 'marketing public relations' with advertising. In Harris' (1991) terms, 'corporate public relations' remains a separate function and is not placed under the marketing function. This concept of IMC is the definition from the American Association of Advertising Agencies (AAAA):

A concept of marketing communications planning recognizes the added value of a comprehensive plan that evaluates the strategic role of a variety of disciplines—general advertising, direct response, sales promotion, and public relations—and combines these disciplines to provide clarity, consistency and maximum communication impact.

One can hardly deny the merits of integrating all marketing communication functions. However, the view of public relations held by most adherents of IMC is extremely narrow, as has been documented by several studies. Most adherents of IMC see public relations as a technical support function and not as a management function, consider public relations to be press agency or product publicity alone and deal solely with customer publics. In addition, most interest in IMC seems to have come from advertising professionals and agencies and most studies that have shown support for IMC from the profession have been studies of marketing managers and have been sponsored by advertising associations. To overcome the objections to IMC from public relations scholars and professionals, adherents of the concept began to use the term 'integrated communication' (IC) in place of IMC (Newsom and Carroll, 1992; Duncan *et al.*, 1993). Dropping

the 'M' from 'IMC' was intended to make the concept more palatable to public relations as well as advertising and marketing professionals by expanding the definition to include stakeholders other than consumers.

## NOTES

Duncan and Caywood proposed seven stages through which communication programmes can be integrated: awareness, image integration, functional integration, coordinated integration, consumer-based integration, stakeholder-based integration and relationship management integration. Their last two stages closely resemble the integration of communication through the public relations function that we have proposed in this article.

Indeed, Duncan and Caywood state that public relations will come to the fore in the last two stages of integration, while pointing out the first five stages emphasize marketing communication and customer relations only:

Although the full role of public relations may have seemingly been limited in the first five stages to the promotional aspects of marketing public relations, the sixth stage demands a fully integrated corporate communications function. Communication at the corporate stage of integration must include employees, the media, community leaders, investors, vendors, suppliers, competitors, government at all stages, and so on.

Gronstedt proposed a similar 'stakeholder relations model' that included 11 stakeholder groups, only one of which was consumers and described several 'receiving tools', 'interactive tools' and 'sending tools', that come from the tool bags of public relations, marketing and advertising. Nevertheless, Gronstedt (1996) placed consumers at the centre of his stakeholder diagram in the belief that the consumer is always the most strategic stakeholder.

We disagree with that fundamental premise. One can make an equally good case that employees or investors are the most strategic public. In reality, however, different publics are more or less strategic for different kinds of organizations and which public is most strategic changes as situations change. For example, investors may be most strategic during a take-over attempt, employees may be most strategic following downsizing and donors generally will be most strategic for non-profit organizations.

The integration of communication functions that we propose, therefore, incorporates these higher levels of integration proposed by IMC theorists. The major difference is that we do not propose moving integration upward through the marketing communication function.

Rather we propose beginning at the highest level of integration and then pulling marketing communication and communication programmes for other



stakeholders into the public relations function. Drobis (1997–1998), the CEO of Ketchum Public Relations Worldwide, took the same position recently when he declared that 'integrated marketing communication is dead':

It died because we never could decide if it was a tool to help sell advertising and public relations agency services or if it was a true, complete communications discipline. As a result, the term 'integrated marketing communications' was frequently abbreviated to 'integrated communications' and came to stand for many things, but nothing in particular. Admittedly, integrated marketing communications as it was originally conceived seemed to stand for the blending of multiple forms of marketing communications. Still, given its potential for greatness, the discipline withered under the chronic stress of being misunderstood by public relations professionals, many of whom consider the role of public relations in 'integrated marketing communications' too narrow. Let's just call its cause of death 'unknown'.

Drobis went on to say that IC must go beyond marketing to encompass employee and labour relations, investor relations, government affairs, crisis and risk management, community affairs, customer service and just about any other facet of management where effective communications is a critical success factor.

He concluded that public relations practitioners are in the best position to manage the integrated communications process because, unlike other communications disciplines, they are involved in every facet of the organization. It is their job to listen and respond to the full range of important stakeholders.

In the end, the theoretical discussions of and research on the relationship between marketing and public relations suggest that few public relations and marketing functions actually have been merged into single departments and that the two separate functions generally work well together. They work together well because public relations departments possess the environmental scanning and communication expertise needed by marketing and other management functions. The discussion of IMC and IC then suggests that all communication functions should be integrated into or coordinated by the public relations department, that is IC.

In practice, communication professionals who provide marketing communication skills (both advertising and marketing public relations) have different technical expertise than other specialized public relations people. Therefore, marketing communication programmes are often housed in separate departments

## NOTES

## NOTES

from other public relations functions even though they practise IMC—usually in business units rather than at headquarters (Hunter, 1997, Chapter 10). We propose for strategic reasons, however, that marketing communication reports to or at least be coordinated by a corporate-level public relations department.

The IABC Excellence study provided evidence both on the strategic role of public relations and its relationship to marketing—evidence to which we now turn.

*The Value of Public Relations:* The major premise of the Excellence Project theory stated that communication has value to an organization because it helps to build good long-term relationships with strategic publics, so measures of the value of public relations were perhaps the most important variables to be included in the Excellence factor. We measured the value of communication through the method of compensating variation, by which we asked the CEO to estimate the value of public relations in comparison with other management functions and to estimate the rate of return to communication. We also asked the top communicator to make similar estimates and to predict the estimates that the members of senior management who made up the dominant coalition of decision maker in the organization would make on the same variables.

Both the CEOs and the top communicators estimated the return to public relations highly—186 and 197%, respectively. However, the heads of public relations underestimated the CEO's estimate: 131%. On the question that asked the CEOs and public relations heads to compare the value of the public relations department with the typical organizational department, respondents were told that 100 was the value of a typical department. CEOs provided a mean score of 159 and heads of public relations a mean score of 189. Again, the public relations heads underestimated the value that the CEO would assign to the department: 138.

In the qualitative portion of the study, we asked CEOs to explain why they assigned the value they did to their public relations departments. Their explanations provided further evidence that our theory of the contribution of public relations to organizational effectiveness was accurate. However, the support came more in the form of their explanations of the value of public relations than from estimates of monetary value. As we had theorized, CEOs and public relations managers said they believed that credible, positive relationships serve as a buffer between the organization and its key constituencies in times of convict and crisis.

## NOTES

At least one top communicator was reluctant to link dollar figures to public relations efforts because of fear that the numbers would seem almost unbelievably high. When participants in the qualitative research did attempt to talk about the value of public relations in dollar amounts, the numbers were actually high. Some estimated that they had saved their organization millions of dollars in fending off law suits. One CEO acknowledged that his entire association had been saved by the successful handling of a crisis.

**Contribution to Strategic Management:** Our research into the value of public relations was most useful when we could correlate estimated values with the characteristics of excellent public relations, such as involvement in strategic management and the relationship between public relations and marketing. For strategic management, we asked CEOs and heads of public relations units to describe the extent to which public relations contributes to four strategic functions in their organizations: strategic planning, response to major social issues, major initiatives such as acquisitions or new products and programmes and routine operations such as employee communication or media relations.

For the overall sample, we found that public relations units most often contribute to routine operations and in response to major social issues. They are less likely to participate in major initiatives and, particularly, in strategic planning. We also asked what public relations units do to contribute to strategic management when they are involved in the process. The responses showed that communication units that participate in strategic planning most often do so through informal approaches, contacts with influential people outside the organization and judgement based on experience. The typical public relations department less often conducts research or uses other formal approaches to gather information for strategic planning—an indication that many communication units are not qualified to make a full contribution to strategic planning.

However, this picture changed dramatically when we looked at the departments that were most valued by their CEOs and that conform most to our criteria for excellence.

**Strategic Management as Seen by CEOs:** To develop a relatively simple picture of how CEOs view excellent public relations, we placed organizations into three categories based on responses to a questionnaire item that asked respondents to compare the value of public relations with the value of other management functions.

## NOTES

### **Relative Support for Public Relations and Marketing**

In the questionnaire completed by the senior public relations officer, a series of three questions asked whether the organization had separate communication units for 'marketing-related public relations' and another for 'public affairs'—essentially the distinction that Harris and others have made between 'marketing public relations' and 'corporate public relations'. A second question asked which unit had the larger budget. We then asked, 'Regardless of whether you have separate units, which function—public affairs or marketing-related public relations—receives more support from senior administrators—the dominant coalition?'

This third question was most useful in analysing the relationship between support for marketing and public affairs communication programmes and overall public relations excellence. On the overall index, excellence was below average when marketing received greater support, average when public affairs received greater support and above average when the two received approximately equal support. The differences were statistically significant.

Some of the differences were not significant. In some cases, though, the mean for the variables was highest either when public affairs received greater support or when the support was even. Almost always, the mean was lower when marketing communication received greater support. The most important lack of difference in the means indicated that public relations was approximately equally likely to perform a managerial or senior adviser role with all three levels of support and CEOs were equally likely to prefer such a managerial role. Levels of knowledge to perform a two-way symmetrical or asymmetrical model of public relations and the managerial role also were not significantly different.

However, CEOs valued and supported public relations significantly less when marketing communication received greater support and when the public relations head estimated less support from the dominant coalition. Most importantly, CEOs were significantly less likely to see public relations as a strategic management function and as a two-way function when marketing communication received greater support from the dominant coalition. The same was true when the top communicator said he or she participated in strategic planning and when he or she estimated that the dominant coalition would prefer the two-way symmetrical model. Interestingly, the public relations heads estimated that women received significantly less support in organizations where marketing communication dominated. In contrast, however, organizations that emphasized marketing

communication over public affairs were most likely to have participative organizational cultures, in contrast to authoritarian cultures.

## **Organization of the Communication Function**

The initial Excellence Project theory specified that organizations should integrate or coordinate their communication activities through a central public relations function rather than having independent units for such communication programmes as marketing communication, employee communication, investor relations or media relations—either as stand-alone units or units that are subordinated to other functions such as marketing, human resources or finance. Independent units challenge strategic public relations because it is difficult to shift resources from one set of stakeholder publics to another when those publics become more or less strategic to organizational interests.

Some of the organizations we studied had a single public relations department, some had one or more specialized departments and some had public relations programmes administered by non-public relations departments. The latter were most likely to be programmes for consumers (marketing), employees (human resources) or investors (finance). However, even these latter programmes were relatively rare. Most public relations functions were organized either through a central public relations department or one or more specialized departments.

Excellence was slightly above average for centralized departments, about average for specialized departments and below average for programmes in non-public relations departments. The differences were not significant, however.

In short, the departmental arrangement seems to make little difference, although these organizations rarely subordinated public relations to other functions. Central public relations departments were no higher in excellence than a series of specialized units, although our data could not show what if any coordination occurred between the specialized units. What seemed to matter most was the support given to a broad public relations function by the dominant coalition and the world view of the dominant coalition that public relations is a strategic management function rather than merely a supporting function for other units such as marketing.

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## **4.6 IMPORTANCE OF TRADEMARKS**

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The trademarks play an important role for the commercialization and growth of the industry. It is an asset, which forms the foundation of any business to the ultimate purchaser or the consumer. It is the trademark, which provides a link between the goods and the manufacturer. The reputation built by a

### **NOTES**

## NOTES

trademark on account of its quality or performance coupled with the customer satisfaction, influences the customer's mind for repeat orders. The customer may not even know the name or the address of the manufacturer but it is the mark, as an ambassador of the manufacturer, which weights his decision to buy or not to buy a particularly branded product. It takes a long journey for any manufacturer to establish goodwill or reputation of his trademark in the eye of the ultimate purchaser so as to reap long-term benefits. The publicity of the trademark by the proprietor also plays an important role in a reputation built up exercise.

Trademarks establish goodwill between the source of a product or service and the consumer. A well-chosen and well-publicized trademark often has value far beyond the physical assets of a company. Trademarks uniquely associate a product or a service with a particular source, even if that source is unknown to the consumer. Thus, trademarks help businesses build and retain demand for their products and services while enabling consumers to quickly identify and make a purchase decision based upon a recognized trademark. Because of their value, it is vital for every company—be it a multinational conglomerate or a one-product start-up business—to make every effort to protect its trademarks.

### **Trademark**

Trademark is not based on the original kind of work, but on the degree to which the work distinguishes that company or product from others—the distinctiveness of the words, symbol, or design.

The trademark can be exceptionally useful in helping practitioners establish and maintain an identity for a client. The practitioner should use such protected marks carefully and consistently in communication and ensure that the press uses the mark with the same precision. Some corporations, for example, run advertisement in journalism publications that explain which words and phrases are trademarked and how they should be used. The initial trademark registration is for ten years, and the owner may apply for renewal in false—light, lawsuits are based on two actions: distortion and fictionalization.

Distortion, which is more common, usually involves the omission of information or the presentation of information in a context that leads the viewer to a false conclusion. Fictionalization occurs when a published or broadcast report includes fictional characters, dialogue, or thoughts that are reported as facts. The fictionalization does not have to be negative to be the subject of such a lawsuit—neutral, even flattering information can be considered a representation in false light as long as it is fiction.

Although false-light litigation relates to publicity, the defense is often similar to that of a libel suit. For example, the defense may argue that:

- The context for the presentation is essentially true.
- The image has not been widely disseminated.
- The people in the photograph are not adequately identified for the suit to have merit.
- The falsification was inconsequential or, conversely, was so outrageous that the normal reader would recognize that the information was fictional.

## NOTES

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### 4.7 PACKAGING IN ADVERTISING

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Packaging is very important in the promotion of a product. Good packaging and interesting aesthetics will attract the attention of potential customers. Good packaging can be influential in the decision to purchase a product. Packaging in combination with an advertising campaign and the right price, a product can be successful. Packaging, pricing and advertising alone will not secure success, if the product does not live up to expectations.

Careful design of packaging, including aesthetics, colour schemes, shape and form, often leads to a desire to learn more about the product inside. The choice of a culturally acceptable colour scheme that targets potential customers, is also an important aspect of packaging.

The packaging should be manufactured from the right materials, ensuring that the product inside is not damaged. Potential customers today expect packaging to be environmentally friendly. Consequently, the use of sustainable, recyclable and bio-degradable materials is essential. FSC trust packaging, that is distinctive and different compared to the competition, usually leads to customer interest.

Logos and symbols are often applied to packaging, especially by companies that regard their products as a 'brand'. Branded products often have an advantage over non-branded products.

Some successful products are promoted through competitions, contests, sales and discounts, on their packaging. Products can also be promoted by a well-known celebrity.

Customers/potential customers can use their smart phones to enter an interactive world, directly from the QR code (Quick Response Code) on the packaging of products. When scanned, the code directs the phone to display

the website linked to the product. This usually promotes the product and is often an attempt to persuade the customer to buy it.

## NOTES

### The Importance of Packaging in Advertising

Each one of us every day walking to the store is definitely not wondered what in fact is that packaging which affects the consumer. In the past there was a stereotype notion that packaging was intended only to protect against the elements. Presently there has been more and more talk about the importance of the attractiveness of the packaging and sale of the product.

Packaging is important for several reasons, first of all, it is the determinant of the hygiene requirements for the production of products: food products (milk, butter, yogurt) industrial (cleaning liquids, powders) cosmetics (creams, deodorants, perfumes) construction (paints, varnishes, adhesives) extension shelf life, and many others.

One of the roles of the package is to focus the attention of consumers to the product and to encourage the consumer to purchase or to "collapse" in memory of the goods. The attractiveness of the product is also influenced by the omnipresent advertising today. Although we are not always aware of it, our decisions are not entirely ours. One of the factors that encourage us to buy the product is on television advertising, promotion and famous brand such as Adidas and colorful and eye-catching, and our attention to packaging. Manufacturers are aware of this and therefore employ a staff of people involved in inventing new interesting advertising, packaging, which will distinguish this product in a special way. Those professionals that have particularly in mind is that this package is primarily to attract and focus the attention of the potential customer for this purpose, are divided into many different groups, among others, such as industrial designers, graphic designers and artists responsible for the form and shape of packaging.

Another role of packaging is to protect against the elements during transportation of goods, used, and the roles of informing the consumer of the content, by weight, sometimes on how the handling of the goods or application.

Another role is to associate a shape such as a bottle of the product, e.g., a bottle of Coca-Cola is not a variable shape for many years and because consumers are seeing the streamlined shape, immediately think of Coca-Cola.

The packaging is also tailored to the type of goods sold. This is due to the fact that, for example the packaging of milk is needed other than the packaging container such as a birthday gift for a friend/colleague or come to pallets on which materials are transported.



Packaging share with this reason:

- Paper
- Cardboard
- Cardboard beverage
- Foil
- aluminium foil
- Metal
- Plastic
- Glass

Also the packaging aesthetics is important in attractiveness and in the number of products sold. Different combinations of appearance including shape, colour, captions, illustrations contained in it, the choice of material have a significant visual impact of consumer packaging.

It is now fashionable 'organic' food and ecological packaging when purchasing the goods for sure of two products of the same type will choose the one that is eco-friendly packaging.

With impressive graphics package that is easier to transmit information. Printed text describes the contents and informs the buyer how to use the product. Illustrations or symbols transmit messages either directly or indirectly on the product, its value and quality. Proper placement and use of these elements are extremely important to pay attention to the packaging and delivery of customer information they wish.

Those involved in the design of packaging need to know what will work effectively to a potential customer. The most important are:

**(a) Colour:** Choosing the right colour of the packaging is difficult because it must meet the seven functions:

- To attract attention.
- To ensure realism.
- To create compliance psychological and symbolic.
- To facilitate the identification.
- To enhance the effectiveness of store.
- To raise the contrast.
- To increase the attractiveness of the article.

Also the colour of the package is important so, blue colour "moves" the product placed on a shelf, red "shows" it, and yellow enlarges it. The

## NOTES

## NOTES

conscious and subconscious buyers are encoded connotations associated with certain colours, such as blue is associated with freshness, purity, cold (frozen fish, powders and lotions), red increases the interest and stimulates to action, black, silver, gold and purple indicate the luxurious nature of the product. At the same time the colour should be tailored to the group of goods such as blue fish. At the same time you cannot give the green kolorku to fish or cheese, because it is associated with goods and outright corruption.

- (b) Shape:** Shape like colour also has an important role in the attractiveness of the product. Selecting the shape should follow a few rules:
- It should be easy to make, which should be of materials that are available. The packaging must be suitable for packaging machines.
  - Easy to store.
  - The shape of the packaging should facilitate the seller to put it on a shelf.
  - It should be distinguished from many other shapes.
- (c) Size:** The size as well as the shape to be matched to the amount (volume) of shelves in stores and supermarkets to the place in which the consumer will likely hold the commodity:
- (d) Material:** The material, of course, depends on what is in the middle. It is clear that, for example, milk or mineral water, there will be pack in paper or wooden or metal container. For many reasons, among others, so that it would not be economical or feasible.
- (e) Communicative text:** The text appearing on the packaging must be:
- Unique.
  - Understandable for the average buyer.
  - The information provided must be true.
  - Selecting the proper font.
- (f) Font:** N shapes of letters are very important to give the desired message and put the overall impression, therefore, must be transparent, effective, simple and arouse the reader's interest. Font should serve not only the purpose of communication but also to surface decoration. In the case of self-service stores, it is important that the font was bold, broad, extended.
- (g) Illustration:** Illustration included in the package increases the attractiveness of the product. Illustrations are most appropriate to the age of the consumer, for whom it is intended. Illustration works on the subconscious mind of the consumer, so the juices for children in preschool and school are heroes

of fairy tales animated drawings or friendly dragons and bears. At the same time photo of your dog or cat will mean that this is the food for the animals, and has already drawn.

Unfortunately, the package is also a threat. Because almost every product is packaged, the fuel is the problem of waste ground. By far the most dangerous are the packages made of materials harmful to the environment. Despite the large number of ways to use by "recycling" the problem still remains, however, and still most of the packaging ends its "life" the junkyard.

**Importance of Packaging:** Packaging plays a vital role in terms of protection, storage and hygienic handling of a product and it plays a key role in the marketing mix. Timothy Beattie, GM of Pyrotec PackMedia, a leading provider in product identification solutions, says, "Packaging is often regarded as the most important form of advertising at the most critical point of all in the purchasing journey: the point of purchase."

## Consumers' Needs

**Attention Grabbing:** A distinctive, unmistakable and eye-catching appearance is a signal at the point-of-sale to which all consumers respond positively. Whatever stands out clearly in the monotonous competitive environment scores points with the consumer. Think carefully about where you want your products to be most visible. For instance, if your product is a fortified cereal consumed mainly by kiddies, you may want to place your goods on a lower shelf where it is visible to children, instead of at eye-level. We all know the influence kids have on their parents' purchases!

**Multi-sensory Appeal:** Packaging which appeals to more than one sense attracts greater attention, intensifies perception and stimulates interest in buying. Packaging that can be felt, smelled and heard as well as looked at wins the customer's favour, which often means that he will be prepared to pay a higher cost for that product. Innovative packaging makes new products stand out over trusted, familiar ones.

**Functionality:** Product and aroma protection, hygiene and tightness, environmental responsibility and practical handling are just as important as ideas that improve comfort, for example, closure mechanisms.

**Added Value:** Cross merchandising and **buy one get one free** promotions increases value-for-money perception in the mind of the consumer.

"Packaging plays a key role as a medium in the marketing mix, in promotional campaigns, as a pricing criterion, in defining the character of new products and

## NOTES

as an instrument to create shelf impact. It is vital that brand owners understand its importance and spend the necessary time getting it right, as it has an impact in driving sales and influencing purchasing decisions,” concludes Beattie.

**NOTES**

**A Small Comparison**

Advertising	Packaging
Always set out to reduce the word count in any commercial presented to you;	The copy on the front panel should only have key words!
Be an absolute maniac about imaginative and inspired casting;	Food styling is like God, in the details;
If you have something you can dramatically demonstrate, use it to its full effect;	Exaggerate and highlight product taste, structure or advantage.
Never allow a slice-of-life commercial to become a slice-of-non-life;	Copy on back: consumer language is superior to producer language!
Make each commercial in a campaign be an evolution of it, not just a mirror image of the last commercial.	Rejuvenate your pack design constantly!

**4.8 SUMMARY**

Advertising consists of all the activities involved in presenting to an audience a non-personal, sponsor-identified, paid-for message about a product or organization.

Advertising has become essential to promote sales, to introduce new product, to create good public, for large-scale of production, for educating people, etc.

Advertising is the integral part of every day’s life. Without advertising modern society cannot survive. Advertising is useful to society as it encourages people to purchase goods and services, bridges the gap among people by communicating varied culture through advertising message, contributes to bring about all round development of the economy by increasing demand, and provides opportunities to people to improve their income.

Advertising is used for communicating business information to the present and prospective customers. It usually provides information about the advertising firm, its product qualities, place of availability of its products, etc. Advertisement

is indispensable for both the sellers and the buyers. However, it is more important for the sellers. In the modern age of large-scale production, producers cannot think of pushing sale of their products without advertising them. Advertisement supplements personal selling to a great extent.

Advertising is as old as civilization and has been used as the means of communication to buy and sell the goods and services to the society. Advertising is an important tool of promotion that can create wonders with beautiful words to sell product, service and also ideas. Advertising has acquired great importance in the modern India characterized by tough competition in the market and fast changes in technology, and fashion and taste of customers.

Advertising is the integral part of everyday life. It is a pervasive method of marketing in society. Though the methods by which marketers advertise have changed over the decades, the role and purpose of advertising has changed over the period of time.

All organizations—large and small, commercial, government, charities, educational and other not-for-profit organizations—need to communicate with a range of stakeholders. This may be in order to get materials and services to undertake their business activities, or to collaborate and coordinate with others to secure suitable distribution of their goods and services.

Marketing communications provides the means by which brands and organizations are presented to their audiences. The goal is to stimulate a dialogue that will, ideally, lead to a succession of purchases and complete engagement. This interaction represents an exchange between each organization and each customer; according to the quality and satisfaction of the exchange process, it will or will not be repeated. It follows, therefore, that communication is a very important and integral part of the exchange process, and it is the skill and judgement of management that determine, in most cases, success or failure. Marketing communications is an audience-centred activity.

Using advertising and publicity are very effective methods to promote and create positive awareness for you and your business. But... there is a clear difference between advertising and publicity. Advertising is something you get by paying for it. Publicity, however, is something you hope you'll get. Why? Because publicity can be generally gained at no cost to you.

Publicity is the deliberate attempt to manage the public's perception of a subject. The subjects of publicity include people (for example, politicians and performing artists), goods and services, organizations of all kinds, and work of art or entertainment.

## NOTES

## NOTES

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## 4.9 GLOSSARY

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- **Advertising:** The activity or profession of producing advertisements for commercial products or services.
- **Message:** The content of the communicative act.
- **Multiple Channel Approach:** Communicating a message through a variety of channels, including various mass media, personal conversation, meetings, etc.
- **Noise:** Anything that interferes with the ability to send or receive messages.
- **Publicity:** Notice or attention given to someone or something by the media.
- **Receiver:** The person who is the target (intended or unintended) of the source's efforts during the communication process.
- **Source:** The person who originates and transmits a message to others during the communication process.
- **Stereotypes:** Fixed, unchanging mental images that embrace all that is believed to be typical of members of a given group. When we make use of stereotypes, we categorize people or things without regard for their individual characteristics.
- **Theory of Cognitive Dissonance:** A person's tendency to avoid information that is dissonant or opposed to her or his own point of view. Tending to seek out information that is consonant or in support of one's own attitudes.

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## 4.10 REVIEW QUESTIONS

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1. Define advertising and explain its nature and features.
2. Explain the main objectives of advertising.
3. Explain the importance of advertising.
4. Who are the active participants in advertising?
5. What is the role of advertising in marketing mix?
6. Explain the role of advertising in the society.
7. Discuss public relations and publicity.

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## 4.11 FURTHER READINGS

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## NOTES

## CHAPTER—5

# ADVERTISING MEDIA

### NOTES

#### STRUCTURE

- 5.1 Introduction
- 5.2 Advertising Media
- 5.3 History of Advertising
- 5.4 Concepts of Media and Medium Vehicle
- 5.5 Characteristics of Advertising Media
- 5.6 Applications to Newspapers
- 5.7 Magazine Television and Out of Home Media
- 5.8 Summary
- 5.9 Glossary
- 5.10 Review Questions
- 5.11 Further Readings

### 5.1 INTRODUCTION

Every day when we watch TV or read the newspaper, we come across advertisements. Advertising persuades people to buy a certain product. It brings goods to the attention of consumers. People who are concerned with marketing, deal with: Market research, Product development, Promotion, etc.

The main idea of market research is, to find out whether a product is needed, whether people would buy it and what kind of people they are. These people are called TARGET GROUP. Market research is often carried out by specialist organizations, they make market surveys and customer tests to find out preferences in design, quality, colour and taste. This information is used to decide whether to produce a product, how much it should cost and how it should be promoted.

There are two ways of product development. On the one hand, the product-oriented companies and on the other hand the market-oriented companies.



Product-oriented companies invest a lot of money and time in finding new or improved goods to sell them on the market. This is a very risky form of product development, because companies might not sell the new goods. So they lose a lot of money.

Market-oriented companies want to find out what is needed and then they try to develop new ways of production or new goods.

Promotion is very important because however good a product is, it will not find any buyers, if no one knows about it. If you want to sell a specialized product, all you have to do is to write to people or companies, which are known to be interested or place an advertisement in a trade magazine. If you are not able to do this yourself, you can instruct an advertising agency. They have the experts who can make a successful campaign. They know how, when and where the message should be transmitted to reach most people of the target group.

At the beginning of production, advertising will inform you what a product is like, where you can get it and how much it costs. Later, it is necessary to persuade the people to keep on buying or attract new customers to buy. Modern advertising uses language, pictures, sound and colours to sell the products as well as possible.

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## 5.2 ADVERTISING MEDIA

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Advertising media selection is the process of choosing the most cost-effective media for advertising, to achieve the required coverage and number of exposures in a target audience.

Advertising media is typically measured on two dimensions: frequency and spread.

### Frequency

To maximize overall awareness, the advertising must reach the maximum number of the target audience. There is a limit for the last few per cent of the general population who don't see the main media advertisers use. These are more expensive to reach. The 'cumulative' coverage cost typically follows an exponential curve. Reaching 90 per cent can cost double what it costs to reach 70 per cent, and reaching 95 per cent can double the cost yet again. In practice, the coverage decision rests on a balance between desired coverage and cost. A large budget achieves high coverage—a smaller budget limits the ambitions of the advertiser.

### NOTES

## NOTES

Frequency—even with high coverage, it is insufficient for a target audience member to have just one ‘Opportunity To See’ (OTS) the advertisement. In traditional media, around five OTS are believed required for a reasonable impact. To build attitudes that lead to brand switching may require more. To achieve five OTS, even in only 70 per cent of the overall audience, may require 20 or 30 peak-time transmissions of a commercial, or a significant number of insertions of press advertisements in the national media. As these figures suggest, most consumers simply don’t see the commercials that often come in the various media (whereas the brand manager, say, sees every one and has already seen them many times before their first transmission, and so is justifiably bored).

The life of advertising campaigns can often extend beyond the relatively short life usually expected. Indeed, as indicated above, some research shows that advertisements require significant exposure to consumers before they even register. As David Ogilvy long ago recommended, “If you are lucky enough to write a good advertisement, repeat it until it stops selling. Scores of good advertisements have been discarded before they lost their potency.”

### Spread

More sophisticated media planners also look at the ‘spread’ of frequencies. Ideally all of the audience should receive the average number of OTS. Those who receive fewer are insufficiently motivated, and extra advertising is wasted on those who receive more. It is, of course, impossible to achieve this ideal. As with coverage, the pattern is weighed towards a smaller number—of heavy viewers, for example, who receive significantly more OTS, and away from the difficult last few per cent. However, a good media buyer manages the resulting spread of frequencies to weigh it close to the average, with as few audience members as possible below the average.

Frequency is also complicated by the fact that this is a function of time. A pattern of 12 OTS across a year may be scarcely noticed, whereas 12 OTS in a week is evident to most viewers. This is often the rationale for advertising in ‘bursts’ or ‘waves’ (sometimes described as ‘pulsing’). This concentrates expenditure into a number of intense periods of advertising, spread throughout the year, so brands do not remain uncovered for long periods.

### Media Buyers

In the end, it is the media buyers who deliver the goods; by negotiating special deals with the media owners, and buying the best parcels of ‘slots’ to achieve the best cost (normally measured in terms of the cost per thousand viewers, or per thousand household ‘impressions’, or per thousand impressions

on the target audience. The “best cost” can also be measured by the cost per lead, in the case of direct response marketing). The growth of the very large, international, agencies has been partly justified by their increased buying power over the media owners.

The best times for commercials are the times at which people wait for something special like the news or sports. At these times advertising can be very successful, but it is also very expensive.

## NOTES

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### 5.3 HISTORY OF ADVERTISING

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Advertising in business is a form of marketing communication used to encourage, persuade, or manipulate an audience (viewers, readers or listeners; sometimes a specific group) to take or continue to take some action. Most commonly, the desired result is to drive consumer behaviour with respect to a commercial offering, although political and ideological advertising is also common. This type of work belongs to a category called affective labour.

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 advertisers often seek to generate increased consumption of their products or services through “branding”, which involves associating 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 rely on free modes of persuasion, such as a public service announcement (PSA).

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

In 2010, spending on advertising was estimated at \$143 billion in the United States and \$467 billion worldwide. Internationally, the largest (“big four”) advertising conglomerates are Interpublic, Omnicom, Publicis, and WPP.

## NOTES

## History

Egyptians used papyrus to make sales messages and wall posters. 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 BCE. Out-of-home advertising and billboards are the oldest forms of advertising.

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.

As education became an apparent need and reading, as well as printing, developed advertising expanded to include handbills. 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.

*Advertising in 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 well into the 20th century. Under Barratt's guidance, Pears Soap became the world's first legally registered brand and is therefore the world's oldest continuously existing brand.

An advertising tactic that he used was to associate the Pears brand with high culture and quality. Most famously, he used the painting Bubbles by John Everett Millais as an advertisement by adding a bar of Pears soap into the foreground. (Millais protested at this alteration of his work, but in vain as Barratt had bought the copyright. Barratt continued this theme with a series of adverts

of well groomed middle-class children, associating Pears with domestic comfort and aspirations of high society.

Barrat established *Pears Annual* in 1891 as a spin-off magazine which promoted contemporary illustration and colour printing and in 1897 added the *Pears Cyclopaedia* a one-volume encyclopedia. From the early 20th century Pears was famous for the annual "Miss Pears" competition in which parents entered their children into the high-profile hunt for a young brand ambassador to be used on packaging and in consumer promotions. He recruited scientists and the celebrities of the day to publicly endorse the product. Lillie Langtry, a British music hall singer and stage actress with a famous ivory complexion, received income as the first woman to endorse a commercial product, advertising Pears Soap.

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 re-evaluating 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

## NOTES

## NOTES

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 behaviour 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 now often considered the founder of modern advertising.

The tobacco industry was one of the firsts to make use of mass production, with the introduction of the Bonsack machine to roll cigarettes. The Bonsack machine allowed the production of cigarettes for a mass markets, and the tobacco industry needed to match such an increase in supply with the creation of a demand from the masses through advertising. 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 favour 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 tamed by today's standards, the advertisement featured a couple with the message "The skin you love to touch".

*On the Radio from the 1920s: Advertisement for a live radio broadcast, sponsored by a milk company and published in the Los Angeles Times on May 6, 1930.*

In the early 1920s, the first radio stations were established by radio equipment manufacturers and retailers who offered programmes 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 programmes was popularized, each individual radio programme 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.

#### *Public service advertising in WW2*

The advertising techniques used to promote commercial goods and services can be used to inform, educate and motivate the public about non-commercial issues, such as HIV/AIDS, political ideology, energy conservation and deforestation.

Advertising, in its non-commercial guise, is a powerful educational tool capable of reaching and motivating large audiences. "Advertising justifies its existence when used in the public interest—it is much too powerful a tool to use solely for commercial purposes." Attributed to *Howard Gossage* by *David Ogilvy*.

Public service advertising, non-commercial advertising, public interest advertising, cause marketing, and social marketing are different terms for (or aspects of) the use of sophisticated advertising and marketing communications techniques (generally associated with commercial enterprise) on behalf of non-commercial, public interest issues and initiatives.

In the United States, the granting of television and radio licenses by the FCC is contingent upon the station broadcasting a certain amount of public service advertising. To meet these requirements, many broadcast stations in America air the bulk of their required public service announcements during the late night or early morning when the smallest percentage of viewers are watching, leaving more day and prime time commercial slots available for high-paying advertisers.

## NOTES

## NOTES

Public service advertising reached its height during World Wars I and II under the direction of more than one government. During WWII President Roosevelt commissioned the creation of the War Advertising Council (now known as the Ad Council) which is the nation's largest developer of PSA campaigns on behalf of government agencies and non-profit organizations, including the longest-running PSA campaign, Smokey Bear.

*Commercial Television in the 1950s:* This practice was carried over to commercial television in the late 1940s and early 1950s. A fierce battle was fought between those seeking to commercialize the radio and people who argued that the radio spectrum should be considered a part of the commons—to be used only non-commercially and for the public good. The United Kingdom pursued a public funding model for the BBC, originally a private company, the British Broadcasting Company, but incorporated as a public body by Royal Charter in 1927. In Canada, advocates like Graham Spry were likewise able to persuade the federal government to adopt a public funding model, creating the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation. However, in the United States, the capitalist model prevailed with the passage of the Communications Act of 1934 which created the Federal Communications Commission (FCC). However, the U.S. Congress did require commercial broadcasting companies to operate in the “public interest, convenience, and necessity”. Public broadcasting now exists in the United States due to the 1967 Public Broadcasting Act which led to the Public Broadcasting Service (PBS) and National Public Radio (NPR).

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 programmes 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.

*Media Diversification in the 1960s:* In the 1960s, campaigns featuring heavy spending in different mass media channels became more prominent. For example, the Esso gasoline company spent hundreds of millions of dollars on a brand awareness campaign built around the simple and alliterative theme *Put a Tiger in Your Tank*. Psychologist Ernest Dichter and DDB Worldwide copywriter Sandy



Sulcer learned that motorists desired both power and play while driving, and chose the tiger as an easy-to-remember symbol to communicate those feelings. The North American and later European campaign featured extensive television and radio and magazine ads, including photos with tiger tails supposedly emerging from car gas tanks, promotional events featuring real tigers, billboards, and in Europe station pump hoses “wrapped in tiger stripes” as well as pop music songs.

*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, speciality 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, marketing through the Internet opened new frontiers for advertisers and contributed 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 20th to 21st century, a number of websites, including the search engine Google, started a change in online advertising by emphasizing contextually relevant ads based on an individual’s browsing interests. This has led to a plethora of similar efforts and an increasing trend of interactive advertising.

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

A recent advertising innovation is “guerrilla marketing”, which 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. Guerrilla advertising is becoming increasingly more popular with a lot of companies. This type of advertising is unpredictable and innovative, which causes consumers to buy the product or idea. This reflects an increasing trend of interactive and “embedded” ads, such as via product placement, having

## NOTES

## NOTES

consumers vote through text messages, and various innovations utilizing social network services such as Facebook or Twitter.

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

Domain owners (usually those who buy domains as an investment) sometimes "park" their domains and allow advertising companies to place ads on their sites in return for a per-click payment.

### Advertising Theory

*Hierarchy-of-effects Models:* Various competing models of hierarchies of effects attempt to provide a theoretical underpinning to advertising practice.

The model of Clow and Baack clarifies the objectives of an advertising campaign and for each individual advertisement. The model postulates six steps a consumer or buyer moves through while making a purchase:

- Awareness
- Knowledge
- Liking
- Preference
- Conviction
- Purchase.

Means-End Theory suggests that an advertisement should contain a message or means that leads the consumer to a desired end-state.

Leverage Points aim to move the consumer from understanding a product's benefits to link those benefits with personal values.

*Marketing Mix:* The marketing mix has been a key concept to advertising. It was proposed by professor E. Jerome McCarthy in the 1960s. The marketing mix consists of four basic elements called the four P's. Product is the first P representing the actual product. Price represents the process of determining the value of a product. Place represents the variables of getting the product to the consumer such as distribution channels, market coverage and movement organization. The last P stands for Promotion which is the process of reaching the target market and convincing them to buy the product.

## Advertising

Advertising or advertizing in business is a form of marketing communication used to encourage, persuade, or manipulate audiences (viewers, readers or listeners; sometimes a specific group) to take or continue to take some action. Most commonly, the desired result is to drive consumer behaviour with respect to a commercial offering, although political and ideological advertising is also common. This type of work belongs to a category called affective labour.

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.

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

Through communication channels, news, entertainment, education, data, or promotional messages are disseminated. Media includes every broadcasting and narrowcasting medium such as newspapers, magazines, TV, radio, billboards, direct mail, telephone, fax, and internet. Media is the plural of medium and can take a plural or singular verb, depending on the sense intended.

Advertising media selection is the process of choosing the most cost-effective media for advertising, to achieve the required coverage and number of exposures in a target audience. Advertising is a message that tries to sell something. Companies advertise everything from cars to candy. Advertising is also used to change people's ideas. For example, an ad could try to make voters choose a certain candidate for president. Ads appear almost everywhere you look. You find them on the radio and on TV, in magazines, shop windows and on T shirts. They show up inside elevators, on school buses and even in schools. About 600 billion dollars are spent on advertising around the world every year.

## NOTES

## NOTES

Virtually any medium can be used for advertising. Commercial advertising media can include wall paintings, billboards, street furniture components, printed flyers and rack cards, radio, cinema and television adverts, web banners, mobile telephone screens, shopping carts, web popups, skywriting, bus stop benches, human billboards and forehead advertising, magazines, newspapers, town criers, sides of buses, banners attached to or sides of airplanes (“logojets”), in-flight advertisements on seatback tray tables or overhead storage bins, taxicab doors, roof mounts and passenger screens, musical stage shows, subway platforms and trains, elastic bands on disposable diapers, doors of bathroom stalls, stickers on apples in supermarkets, shopping cart handles (grabertising), the opening section of streaming audio and video, posters, and the backs of event tickets and supermarket receipts. Any place an “identified” sponsor pays to deliver their message through a medium is advertising.

### **Types of Advertising**

Virtually any medium can be used for advertising. Commercial advertising media can include wall paintings, billboards, street furniture components, printed flyers and rack cards, radio, cinema and television adverts, web banners, mobile telephone screens, shopping carts, web popups, skywriting; bus stop benches, human billboards and forehead advertising, magazines, newspapers, town criers, sides of buses, banners attached to or sides of airplanes (“logojets”), in-flight advertisements on seatback tray tables or overhead storage bins, taxicab doors, roof mounts and passenger screens, musical stage shows, subway platforms and trains, elastic bands on disposable diapers, doors of bathroom stalls, stickers on apples in supermarkets, shopping cart handles (grabertising), the opening section of streaming audio and video, posters, and the backs of event tickets and supermarket receipts. Any place an “identified” sponsor pays to deliver their message through a medium is advertising.

We see many types of advertising, some of them are discussed below:

**Television Advertising:** The TV commercial is generally considered the most effective mass-market advertising format, as is reflected by the high prices. TV networks charge for commercial airtime during popular TV events. The annual Super Bowl football game in the United States is known as the most prominent advertising event on television. The average cost of a single thirty-second TV spot during this game has reached US \$3.5 million (as of 2012). Some television commercials feature a song or jingle that listeners soon relate to the product. Virtual advertisements may be inserted into regular television programming through computer graphics. It is typically inserted into otherwise

blank backdrops or used to replace local billboards that are not relevant to the remote broadcast audience. More controversially, virtual billboards may be inserted into the background where none exists in real-life. This technique is especially used in televised sporting events. Virtual product placement is also possible.

**Infomercials:** An infomercial is a long-format television commercial, typically five minutes or longer. The word "infomercial" is a portmanteau of the words "information" and "commercial". The main objective in an infomercial is to create an impulse purchase, so that the consumer sees the presentation and then immediately buys the product through the advertised toll-free telephone number or website. Infomercials describe, display, and often demonstrate products and their features, and commonly have testimonials from consumers and industry professionals.

**Radio Advertising:** Radio advertising is a form of advertising via the medium of radio. Radio advertisements are broadcast as radio waves to the air from a transmitter to an antenna and thus to a receiving device. Airtime is purchased from a station or network in exchange for airing the commercials. While radio has the limitation of being restricted to sound, proponents of radio advertising often cite this as an advantage. Radio is an expanding medium that can be found not only on air, but also online. According to Arbitron, radio has approximately 241.6 million weekly listeners, or more than 93 per cent of the U.S. population.

**Online Advertising:** Online advertising is a form of promotion that uses the Internet and World Wide Web for the expressed purpose of delivering marketing messages to attract customers. Online ads are delivered by an ad server. Examples of online advertising include contextual ads that appear on search engine result pages, banner ads, in text ads, Rich Media Ads, Social network advertising, online classified advertising, advertising networks and e-mail marketing, including e-mail spam.

**New Media:** Technological development and economic globalization favour the emergence of new communication channels and new techniques of commercial messaging.

**Product Placements:** Covert advertising is when a product or brand is embedded in entertainment and media. For example, in a film, the main character can use an item or other of a definite brand, as in the movie *Minority Report*, where Tom Cruise's character John Anderton owns a phone with the *Nokia* logo clearly written in the top corner, or his watch engraved with the *Bulgari* logo.

## NOTES

## NOTES

Another example of advertising in film is in *I, Robot*, where main character played by Will Smith mentions his *Converse* shoes several times, calling them "classics", because the film is set far in the future. *I, Robot* and *Spaceballs* also showcase futuristic cars with the *Audi* and *Mercedes-Benz* logos clearly displayed on the front of the vehicles. Cadillac chose to advertise in the movie *The Matrix Reloaded*, which as a result contained many scenes in which Cadillac cars were used. Similarly, product placement for Omega Watches, Ford, VAIO, BMW and Aston Martin cars are featured in recent James Bond films, most notably *Casino Royale*. In "Fantastic Four: Rise of the Silver Surfer", the main transport vehicle shows a large Dodge logo on the front. *Blade Runner* includes some of the most obvious product placement; the whole film stops to show a Coca-Cola billboard.

**Press Advertising:** Press advertising describes advertising in a printed medium such as a newspaper, magazine, or trade journal. This encompasses everything from media with a very broad readership base, such as a major national newspaper or magazine, to more narrowly targeted media such as local newspapers and trade journals on very specialized topics. A form of press advertising is classified advertising, which allows private individuals or companies to purchase a small, narrowly targeted ad for a low fee advertising a product or service. Another form of press advertising is the Display Ad, which is a larger ad (can include art) that typically run in an article section of a newspaper.

**Billboard Advertising:** Billboards are large structures located in public places which display advertisements to passing pedestrians and motorists. Most often, they are located on main roads with a large amount of passing motor and pedestrian traffic; however, they can be placed in any location with large amounts of viewers, such as on mass transit vehicles and in stations, in shopping malls or office buildings, and in stadiums.

The *Redeye* newspaper advertised to its target market at North Avenue Beach with a sailboat billboard on Lake Michigan.

**Mobile Billboard Advertising:** Mobile billboards are generally vehicle mounted billboards or digital screens. These can be on dedicated vehicles built solely for carrying advertisements along routes preselected by clients, they can also be specially equipped cargo trucks or, in some cases, large banners strewn from planes. The billboards are often lighted; some being backlit, and others employing spotlights. Some billboard displays are static, while others change; for example, continuously or periodically rotating among a set of advertisements. Mobile displays are used for various situations in metropolitan areas throughout the world, including: Target advertising, One-day, and long-term campaigns,

Conventions, Sporting events, Store openings and similar promotional events, and Big advertisements from smaller companies.

**In-store Advertising:** In-store advertising is any advertisement placed in a retail store. It includes placement of a product in visible locations in a store, such as at eye level, at the end of aisles and near checkout counters (aka POP - Point of Purchase display), eye-catching displays promoting a specific product, and advertisements in such places as shopping carts and in-store video displays.

**Coffee Cup Advertising:** Coffee cup advertising is any advertisement placed upon a coffee cup that is distributed out of an office, café, or drive-through coffee shop. This form of advertising was first popularized in Australia, and has begun growing in popularity in the United States, India, and parts of the Middle East.

**Street Advertising:** This type of advertising first came to prominence in the UK by Street Advertising Services to create outdoor advertising on street furniture and pavements. Working with products such as Reverse Graffiti, air dancers and 3D pavement advertising, the media became an affordable and effective tool for getting brand messages out into public spaces.

**Sheltered Outdoor Advertising:** This type of advertising opens the possibility of combining outdoor with indoor advertisement by placing large mobile, structures (tents) in public places on temporary bases. The large outer advertising space exerts a strong pull on the observer, the product is promoted indoor, where the creative decor can intensify the impression.

**Celebrity Branding:** This type of advertising focuses upon using celebrity power, fame, money, popularity to gain recognition for their products and promote specific stores or products. Advertisers often advertise their products, for example, when celebrities share their favourite products or wear clothes by specific brands or designers.

Celebrities are often involved in advertising campaigns such as television or print adverts to advertise specific or general products. The use of celebrities to endorse a brand can have its downsides, however. One mistake by a celebrity can be detrimental to the public relations of a brand. For example, following his performance of eight gold medals at the 2008 Olympic Games in Beijing, China, swimmer Michael Phelps' contract with Kellogg's was terminated, as Kellogg's did not want to associate with him after he was photographed smoking marijuana. Celebrities such as Britney Spears have advertised for multiple products including Pepsi, Candies from Kohl's, Twister, NASCAR, Toyota and many more.

## NOTES

## NOTES

**Consumer-generated Advertising:** This involves getting consumers to generate advertising through blogs, websites, wikis and forums, for some kind of payment.

**Aerial Advertising:** Using aircraft, balloons or airships to create or display advertising media. Skywriting is a notable example.

**Purpose of Advertising:** Advertising is at the front of delivering the proper message to customers and prospective customers. The purpose of advertising is to convince customers that a company's services or products are the best, enhance the image of the company, point out and create a need for products or services, demonstrate new uses for established products, announce new products and programmes, reinforce the salespeople's individual messages, draw customers to the business, and to hold existing customers.

**Sales Promotions:** Sales promotions are another way to advertise. They are double purposed because they are used to gather information about what type of customers one draws in and where they are, and to jumpstart sales. Sales promotions include things like contests and games, sweepstakes, product giveaways, sample coupons, loyalty programmes, and discounts. The ultimate goal of sales promotions is to stimulate potential customers to action.

**Approaches to Media and Advertising:** Increasingly, other media are overtaking many of the "traditional" media such as television, radio and newspaper because of a shift towards consumer's usage of the Internet for news and music as well as devices like digital video recorders (DVRs) such as TiVo.

Digital signage is poised to become a major mass media because of its ability to reach larger audiences for less money. Digital signage also offers the unique ability to see the target audience where they are reached by the medium. Technological advances have also made it possible to control the message on digital signage with much precision, enabling the messages to be relevant to the target audience at any given time and location which in turn, gets more response from the advertising. Digital signage is being successfully employed in supermarkets. Another successful use of digital signage is in hospitality locations such as restaurants and malls.

Advertising on the World Wide Web is a recent phenomenon. Prices of Web-based advertising space are dependent on the "relevance" of the surrounding web content and the traffic that the website receives.

Reasons for online display advertising: Display ads generate awareness quickly. Unlike search, which requires someone to be aware of a need, display advertising can drive awareness of something new and without previous knowledge.



Display works well for direct response. Display is not only used for generating awareness, its used for direct response campaigns that link to a landing page with a clear 'call to action'.

E-mail advertising is another recent phenomenon. Unsolicited bulk e-mail advertising is known as "e-mail spam". Spam has been a problem for e-mail users for many years.

A new form of advertising that is growing rapidly is social network advertising. It is an online advertising with a focus on social networking sites. This is a relatively immature market, but it has shown a lot of promise as advertisers are able to take advantage of the demographic information the user has provided to the social networking site. Friendtising is a more precise advertising term in which people are able to direct advertisements towards others directly using social network services.

As the mobile phone became a new mass media in 1998 when the first paid downloadable content appeared on mobile phones in Finland, it was only a matter of time until mobile advertising followed, also first launched in Finland in 2000. By 2007 the value of mobile advertising had reached \$2.2 billion and providers such as Admob delivered billions of mobile ads.

More advanced mobile ads include banner ads, coupons, multimedia messaging service picture and video messages, advergames and various engagement marketing campaigns. A particular feature driving mobile ads is the 2D barcode, which replaces the need to do any typing of web addresses, and uses the camera feature of modern phones to gain immediate access to web content. 83 per cent of Japanese mobile phone users already are active users of 2D barcodes.

Some companies have proposed placing messages or corporate logos on the side of booster rockets and the International Space Station.

Unpaid advertising (also called "publicity advertising"), can provide good exposure at minimal cost. Personal recommendations ("bring a friend", "sell it"), spreading buzz, or achieving the feat of equating a brand with a common noun (in the United States, "Xerox" = "photocopier", "Kleenex" = tissue, "Vaseline" = petroleum jelly, "Hoover" = vacuum cleaner, and "Band-Aid" = adhesive bandage) - these can be seen as the pinnacle of any advertising campaign. However, some companies oppose the use of their brand name to label an object. Equating a brand with a common noun also risks turning that brand into a genericized trademark—turning it into a generic term which means that its legal protection as a trademark is lost.

## NOTES

## NOTES

From time to time, The CW Television Network airs short programming breaks called "Content Wraps", to advertise one company's product during an entire commercial break. The CW pioneered "content wraps" and some products featured were Herbal Essences, Crest, Guitar Hero II, CoverGirl, and recently Toyota.

Recently, there appeared a new promotion concept, "Advertising", advertising on Augmented Reality technology.

Controversy exists on the effectiveness of subliminal advertising (see mind control), and the pervasiveness of mass messages.

**Rise in New Media:** With the Internet came many new advertising opportunities. Popup, Flash, banner, Popunder, advergaming, and e-mail advertisements (all of which are often unwanted or spam in the case of e-mail) are now commonplace. Particularly since the rise of "entertaining" advertising, some people may like an advertisement enough to wish to watch it later or show a friend. In general, the advertising community has not yet made this easy, although some have used the Internet to widely distribute their ads to anyone willing to see or hear them. In the last three-quarters of 2009 mobile and Internet advertising grew by 18.1% and 9.2% respectively. Older media advertising saw declines: 10.1% (TV), 11.7% (radio), 14.8% (magazines) and 18.7% (newspapers).

**Niche Marketing:** Another significant trend regarding future of advertising is the growing importance of the niche market using niche or targeted ads. Also brought about by the Internet and the theory of The Long Tail, advertisers will have an increasing ability to reach specific audiences. In the past, the most efficient way to deliver a message was to blanket the largest mass market audience possible. However, usage tracking, customer profiles and the growing popularity of niche content brought about by everything from blogs to social networking sites, provide advertisers with audiences that are smaller but much better defined, leading to ads that are more relevant to viewers and more effective for companies' marketing products. Among others, Comcast Spotlight is one such advertiser employing this method in their video on demand menus. These advertisements are targeted to a specific group and can be viewed by anyone wishing to find out more about a particular business or practice at any time, right from their home. This causes the viewer to become proactive and actually choose what advertisements they want to view.

Google AdSense is a perfect example of Niche marketing. Google calculates the primary purpose of the website and adjusts ads accordingly. They use key

words on the page (or even in e-mails) to find the general ideas of topics disused and places ads that will most likely be clicked on by viewers of the e-mail account or website visitors. Google has pioneered an ingenious method of putting ads right where they need to be.

**Crowdsourcing:** The concept of crowdsourcing has given way to the trend of user-generated advertisements. User-generated ads are created by consumers as opposed to an advertising agency or the company themselves, most often they are a result of brand sponsored advertising competitions. For the 2007 Super Bowl, the Frito-Lays division of PepsiCo held the Crash the Super Bowl contest, allowing consumers to create their own Doritos commercial. Chevrolet held a similar competition for their Tahoe line of SUVs. Due to the success of the Doritos user-generated ads in the 2007 Super Bowl, Frito-Lays relaunched the competition for the 2009 and 2010 Super Bowl. The resulting ads were among the most-watched and most-liked Super Bowl ads. In fact, the winning ad that aired in the 2009 Super Bowl was ranked by the USA Today Super Bowl Ad Meter as the top ad for the year while the winning ads that aired in the 2010 Super Bowl were found by Nielsen's BuzzMetrics to be the "most buzzed-about".

This trend has given rise to several online platforms that host user-generated advertising competitions on behalf of a company. Founded in 2007, Zooppa has launched ad competitions for brands such as Google, Nike, Hershey's, General Mills, Microsoft, NBC Universal, Zinio, and Mini Cooper. Crowd sourced advertisements have gained popularity in part to its cost effective nature, high consumer engagement, and ability to generate word-of-mouth. However, it remains controversial, as the long-term impact on the advertising industry is still unclear.

**Global Advertising:** Advertising has gone through five major stages of development: domestic, export, international, multinational, and global. For global advertisers, there are four potentially competing, business objectives that must be balanced when developing worldwide advertising: building a brand while speaking with one voice, developing economies of scale in the creative process, maximizing local effectiveness of ads, and increasing the company's speed of implementation. Born from the evolutionary stages of global marketing are the three primary and fundamentally different approaches to the development of global advertising executions: exporting executions, producing local executions, and importing ideas that travel.

## NOTES

## NOTES

Advertising research is key to determine the success of an ad in any country or region. The ability to identify which elements and/or moments of an ad contribute to its success is how economies of scale are maximized. Once one knows what works in an ad, that idea or ideas can be imported by any other market. Market research measures, such as Flow of Attention, Flow of Emotion and branding moments provide insight into what is working in an ad in any country or region because the measures are based on the visual, not verbal, elements of the ad.

**Foreign Public Messaging:** Foreign governments, particularly those that own marketable commercial products or services, often promote their interests and positions through the advertising of those goods because the target audience is not only largely unaware of the forum as a vehicle for foreign messaging but also willing to receive the message while in a mental state of absorbing information from advertisements during television commercial breaks, while reading a periodical, or while passing by billboards in public spaces. A prime example of this messaging technique is advertising campaigns to promote international travel. While advertising foreign destinations and services may stem from the typical goal of increasing revenue by drawing more tourism, some travel campaigns carry the additional or alternative intended purpose of promoting good sentiments or improving existing ones among the target audience towards a given nation or region. It is common for advertising promoting foreign countries to be produced and distributed by the tourism ministries of those countries, so these ads often carry political statements and/or depictions of the foreign government's desired international public perception. Additionally, a wide range of foreign airlines and travel-related services which advertise separately from the destinations, themselves, are owned by their respective governments; examples include, though are not limited to, the Emirates airline (Dubai), Singapore Airlines (Singapore), Qatar Airways (Qatar), China Airlines (Taiwan/Republic of China), and Air China (People's Republic of China). By depicting their destinations, airlines, and other services in a favourable and pleasant light, countries market themselves to populations abroad in a manner that could mitigate prior public impressions.

**Diversification:** In the realm of advertising agencies, continued industry diversification has seen observers note that "big global clients don't need big global agencies any more". This is reflected by the growth of non-traditional agencies in various global markets, such as Canadian business TAXI and SMART in Australia and has been referred to as "a revolution in the ad world".

**New Technology:** The ability to record shows on digital video recorders (such as TiVo) allow users to record the programmes for later viewing, enabling

them to fast forward through commercials. Additionally, as more seasons of pre-recorded box sets are offered for sale of television programmes; fewer people watch the shows on TV. However, the fact that these sets are sold, means the company will receive additional profits from the sales of these sets.

To counter this effect, a variety of strategies have been employed. Many advertisers have opted for product placement on TV shows like Survivor. Other strategies include integrating advertising with internet-connected EPGs, advertising on companion devices (like smart phones and tablets) during the show, and creating TV apps. Additionally, some like brands have opted for social television sponsorship.

**Advertising Education:** Advertising education has become widely popular with bachelor, master and doctoral degrees becoming available in the emphasis. A surge in advertising interest is typically attributed to the strong relationship advertising plays in cultural and technological changes; such as the advance of online social networking. A unique model for teaching advertising is the student-run advertising agency, where advertising students create campaigns for real companies. Organizations such as American Advertising Federation and AdU Network partner established companies with students to create these campaigns.

**Criticism of Advertising:** While advertising can be seen as necessary for economic growth, it is not without social costs. Unsolicited commercial e-mail and other forms of spam have become so prevalent as to have become a major nuisance to users of these services, as well as being a financial burden on internet service providers. Advertising is increasingly invading public spaces, such as schools, which some critics argue is a form of child exploitation. In addition, advertising frequently uses psychological pressure (for example, appealing to feelings of inadequacy) on the intended consumer, which may be harmful. Many even feel that often, advertisements exploit the desires of a consumer, by making a particular product more appealing, by manipulating the consumer's needs and wants.

**Advertising Regulation:** There have been increasing efforts to protect the public interest by regulating the content and the influence of advertising. Some examples are: the ban on television tobacco advertising imposed in many countries, and the total ban of advertising to children under 12 imposed by the Swedish government in 1991. Though that regulation continues in effect for broadcasts originating within the country, it has been weakened by the European Court of Justice, which had found that Sweden was obliged to accept foreign programming, including those from neighbouring countries or via satellite. Greece's regulations

## NOTES

## NOTES

are of a similar nature, "banning advertisements for children's toys between 7 am and 10 pm and a total ban on advertisement for war toys".

In Europe and elsewhere, there is a vigorous debate on whether (or how much) advertising to children should be regulated. This debate was exacerbated by a report released by the Kaiser Family Foundation in February 2004 which suggested fast food advertising that targets children was an important factor in the epidemic of childhood obesity in the United States.

In New Zealand, South Africa, Pakistan, Afghanistan, Canada, and many European countries, the advertising industry operates a system of self-regulation. Advertisers, advertising agencies and the media agree on a code of advertising standards that they attempt to uphold. The general aim of such codes is to ensure that any advertising is 'legal, decent, honest and truthful'. Some self-regulatory organizations are funded by the industry, but remain independent, with the intent of upholding the standards or codes like the Advertising Standards Authority in the UK.

In the UK, most forms of outdoor advertising such as the display of billboards are regulated by the UK Town and County Planning system. Currently, the display of an advertisement without consent from the Planning Authority is a criminal offense liable to a fine of £2,500 per offence. All of the major outdoor billboard companies in the UK have convictions of this nature.

In the US, many communities believe that many forms of outdoor advertising blight the public realm. As long ago as the 1960s in the US there were attempts to ban billboard advertising in the open countryside. Cities such as São Paulo have introduced an outright ban with London also having specific legislation to control unlawful displays.

Many advertisers employ a wide variety of linguistic devices to bypass regulatory laws (e.g., in France, printing English words in bold and French translations in fine print to deal with the Article 120 of the 1994 Toubon Law limiting the use of English). The advertisement of controversial products such as cigarettes and condoms are subject to government regulation in many countries. For instance, the tobacco industry is required by law in most countries to display warnings cautioning consumers about the health hazards of their products. Linguistic variation is often used by advertisers as a creative device to reduce the impact of such requirements.

**Advertising Research:** Advertising research is a specialized form of research that works to improve the effectiveness and efficiency of advertising. It entails numerous forms of research which employ different methodologies. Advertising

research includes pre-testing (also known as copy testing) and post-testing of ads and/or campaigns - pre-testing is done before an ad airs to gauge how well it will perform and post-testing is done after an ad airs to determine the in-market impact of the ad or campaign on the consumer. Continuous ad tracking and the Communicus System are competing examples of post-testing advertising research types.

**Semiotics:** Today's culture is made up of meanings between consumers and marketers. These meanings depict signs and symbols that are encoded in everyday objects. Semiotics is the study of signs and how they are interpreted. Advertising has many hidden signs and meanings within brand names, logos, package designs, print advertisements, and television advertisements. The purpose of semiotics is to study and interpret the message being conveyed in advertisements. Logos and advertisements can be interpreted at two levels known as the surface level and the underlying level. The surface level uses signs creatively to create an image or personality for their product. These signs can be images, words, fonts, colours, or slogan. The underlying level is made up of hidden meanings. The combination of images, words, colours, and slogan must be interpreted by the audience or consumer. The "key to advertising analysis" is the signifier and the signified. The signifier is the object and the signified is the mental concept. A product has a signifier and a signified. The signifier is the colour, brand name, logo design, and technology. The signified has two meanings known as denotative and connotative. The denotative meaning is the meaning of the product. A television's denotative meaning would be that it is high definition. The connotative meaning is the product's deep and hidden meaning. A connotative meaning of a television would be that it is top of the line.

Apple is an excellent example of using semiotics in their advertising campaign. Apple's commercials used a black silhouette of a person that was the age of Apple's target market. They placed the silhouette in front of a blue screen so that the picture behind the silhouette could be constantly changing. However, the one thing that stays the same in these ads is that there is music in the background and the silhouette is listening to that music on a white iPod through white headphones. Through advertising, the white colour on a set of earphones now signifies that the music device is an iPod. The white colour signifies almost all of Apple's products.

The semiotics of gender plays a key influence on the way in which signs are interpreted. While considering gender roles in advertising, individuals are

## NOTES

## NOTES

influenced by three categories. First certain characteristics of stimuli may enhance or decrease the elaboration of the message (if the product is perceived as feminine or masculine). Secondly, the characteristics of individuals can affect attention and elaboration of the message (traditional or non-traditional gender role orientation). Finally, situational factors may be important to influence the elaboration of the message.

There are two types of marketing communication claims—objective and subjective. Objective claims stem from the extent to which the claim associates the brand with a tangible product or service feature. For instance, a camera has auto focus features. Subjective claims convey emotional and subjective impressions of intangible aspects of a product or service. They are non-physical features of a product or service that cannot be directly perceived, as they have no physical reality. For instance the brochure has a beautiful design. Males tend to respond better to objective marketing communications claims while females tend to respond better to subjective marketing communications claims.

In advertisements, men are represented as independent. They are shown in more occupations than women. Women are represented mainly as housewives and mothers. Men are more likely to be shown advertising cars or business products, while women advertise domestic products. Men are more likely to be shown outdoors or in business settings. Women are depicted in domestic settings. Men are more often portrayed as authorities. As far as ads go, with age men seem to gain wisdom and authority. On the other hand, women seem to disappear with age. Voiceovers are commonly used in advertising. Most voiceovers are men (figures of up to 94% have been reported). There have been more female voiceovers in recent years but mainly for food, household products, and feminine care products.

*Gender Effects in the Processing of Advertising:* According to a 1977 study by David Statt, females process information comprehensively, while males process information through heuristic devices such as procedures, methods or strategies for solving problems, which could have an effect on how they interpret advertising. According to this study, men prefer to have available and apparent cues to interpret the message whereas females engage in more creative, associative, imagery-laced interpretation.

More recently, research by Martin (2003) reveals that males and females differ in how they react to advertising depending on their mood at the time of exposure to the ads, and the affective tone of the advertising. When feeling sad,



males prefer happy ads to boost their mood. In contrast, females prefer happy ads when they are feeling happy. The television programmes in which the ads are embedded are shown to influence a consumer's mood state.

TV is one of the most powerful advertising media, because you can get very detailed information about a product. Depending on your target group you have to decide the time, when your spot shall be shown. It is not useful broadcasting an ad about cars in the children's programmes because this is not your target group, they cannot buy a car. In the afternoon there are many films on TV, which are interrupted regularly. At that time advertising can be very expensive. In fact, TV-adverts have a strange impact. You might have noticed how well you can remember slogans long after the spot is over.

The prices for full-page-adverts in national newspapers are roughly the same as for TV spots, but you can also place smaller adverts in the print media. In local newspapers you only pay a few pounds. The problem of adverts in newspapers and magazines is, that they can attract the reader's eyes only.

This problem can be solved by considering several factors:

- Only use right-hand pages for newspaper adverts, because you first look at the right side.
- The colour is an important fact. Red signals mean danger and colours of the dusk make us feel comfortable and safe.
- The layout and the text are also very important parts of newspaper adverts. The layout may take the readers look at the main information, and the text is just to inform interested people.

Direct mailing is another form of advertising. The companies get a list of names and addresses and send leaflets to those people who might be interested in their products. Some people find this direct mailing irritating, wasteful and unsightly, so the leaflets land in the rubbish bin.

Some people say, that advertising persuades people to buy things they don't need and to be wasteful, but advertising also means creating more jobs. Regardless whether we like advertisements or not, advertising has become indispensable in our economies. It has become a market of its own and it offers a high number of jobs. Moreover, advertisements are an important source of information for the public. And there is something that we should not forget: Advertising enables us to afford such "luxuries" like TV and newspapers, because without it, they would be considerably more expensive

## NOTES

## NOTES

## Advertising Techniques

Advertising does two main jobs. It tells people about something, like a product or a service and it also works to make people want to buy the product or service. Ads do their jobs in many different ways. Many printed ads have headlines or boldly printed words that make people stop and read them. A headline may promise something that the reader wants, like a good price. Other headlines may carry the announcement of a new product.

Some ads use slogans that are used over and over again. They are easy to remember and often use a catchy phrase. Sometimes slogans are not related to the product.

Advertising gets to people through different forms of communication. Newspapers, magazines and direct mail belong to print media. TV, radio and the Internet are among the most important electronic media.

**Newspapers:** Almost half of a newspaper is made up of ads. Local papers have ads of local companies, but nationwide newspapers also advertise products that are sold all over the country. Most papers are published daily, so new ads, like products on sale or movie openings can be placed every day. Newspapers sell advertising space in all sections of their paper. In most cases ads of products will be put in the section they are related to. Display ads are big ads that can take up from a few cm to a full page. They have illustrations, headlines and lots of information on a certain field.

Classified ads appear in a separate section of a newspaper. Most of them only have a few lines and list homes, cars for sale, furniture or other things that private people want to sell or buy.

**Magazines:** Magazines mostly appear all over the country and are used by national advertisers. In contrast to newspapers they are read when people have more time. They are kept for a few weeks or even months. Better printing quality and colour ads are among the advantages of magazines.

Many special magazines are made for groups of people. The ads that appear there are especially for these groups. A computer magazine, for instance, may have many ads related to computers, printers or scanners.

**Direct Mail:** Direct mail consists of leaflets, brochures, catalogues or letters, that are mailed directly to people. Mail-order companies profit from this kind of advertising. Some mailing lists send information to all the people. Others only have special lists according to the jobs that people have or their age or income. Direct mail costs a lot of money, but advertising companies can be sure that they will reach the people.

## Key Points

## NOTES

- **Local** advertisers **place** about 70 per cent of advertising on the radio. An **advantage** of radio is that people listen to programmes while doing other things. In some cases radios are on the whole day.
- **Commercials** last about 30 seconds. Radio stations are more specialized in what they **broadcast**. One radio station **offers** pop music and has a younger listening **audience**; the other may **broadcast** classical music with older listeners. The **ads** can be chosen **according** to the group of people who listen.
- Television combines sound and moving images. It is one of the most expensive forms of advertising, but on the other hand it reaches a very wide audience.
- Advertisers buy time from TV stations to **broadcast** their **commercials**. This time is cheaper at times when fewer people watch TV, as in the early morning hours and gets very expensive during **prime time** evening shows. Sometimes advertisers pay a lot of money to get their ads on TV during special programmes, like the Olympic Games or the Super Bowl.
- **Infomercials** have become very popular in the last few years.
- They are normal TV shows that **focus on the sales** of **certain** products. Details on how to buy the product (telephone numbers, etc.) are **repeated** many times during the programme.
- Some TV stations also sell advertisers **product placements**. For example, a **brand** of pizza can **appear** in a scene of a TV show.
- Internet advertising is becoming more and more important. **Especially** young people spend less time watching TV and more time on the Internet.
- The Internet has the **advantage** of being **available** to people around the world at all times.
- Ads **range** from **banners** to **pop-ups**. Companies that spend a lot of money on advertising often **create** their own Internet site for a **certain** product.
- Web users are often asked to fill out a **form** that asks them about their daily **routines**, where they live, how old they are, how much they earn etc.
- Companies use this information to find out what kind of people visit their websites. Sometimes ads are sent **via** e-mail. Because a lot of unwanted e-mails (spam) are sent **throughout**.

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## 5.4 CONCEPTS OF MEDIA AND MEDIUM VEHICLE

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### NOTES

Media (singular medium) are the storage and transmission channels or tools used to store and deliver information or data. It is often referred to as synonymous with mass media or news media, but may refer to any means of information communication.

The word 'medium' comes from the Latin word *medius* (middle). The beginning of human communication through designed channels, i.e., not vocalization or gestures, dates back to ancient cave paintings, drawn maps, and writing.

The Persian Empire (centred around present-day Iran) played an important role in the field of communication. It devised what might be described as the first real mail or postal system, which is said to have been developed by the Persian emperor Cyrus the Great (c. 550 BC) after his conquest of Media. The role of the system as an intelligence gathering apparatus is well documented, and the service was (later) called *angariae*, a term that in time turned to indicate a tax system. The Old Testament (Esther, VIII) makes mention of this system: Ahasuerus, king of Medes, used couriers for communicating his decisions.

The word 'communication' is derived from the Latin root *communicare*. This was due to the Roman Empire also devising what might be described as a mail or postal system, in order to centralize control of the empire from Rome. This allowed for personal letters and for Rome to gather knowledge about events in its many widespread provinces. More advanced postal systems later appeared in the Islamic Caliphate and the Mongol Empire during the Middle Ages.

The term "media" in its modern application relating to communication channels is traced back to its first use as such by Canadian communications theorist Marshall McLuhan, who stated in *Counterblast* (1954): "The media are not toys; they should not be in the hands of Mother Goose and Peter Pan executives. They can be entrusted only to new artists, because they are art forms." By the mid-1960s, the term had spread to general use in North America and the United Kingdom. ("Mass media", in contrast, was, according to H.L. Mencken, used as early as 1923 in the United States.)

### Electronic Media

In the last century, a revolution in telecommunications has greatly altered communication by providing new media for long distance communication. The

first transatlantic two-way radio broadcast occurred in 1906 and led to common communication via analogue and digital media:

Analogue telecommunications include some radio systems, historical telephony systems, and historical TV broadcasts.

Digital telecommunications allow for computer-mediated communication, telegraphy, and computer networks.

Modern communication media now allow for intense long-distance exchanges between larger numbers of people (many-to-many communication via e-mail, Internet forums, and teleportation). On the other hand, many traditional broadcast media and mass media favour one-to-many communication (television, cinema, radio, newspaper, magazines, and also facebook).

Electronic media is enjoying broader use every day with an increase in electronic devices being made. The meaning of electronic media, as it is known in various spheres, has changed with the passage of time. The term 'media' has achieved a broader meaning nowadays as compared to that given it a decade ago. Earlier, there was multimedia, once only a piece of software (application software) used to play audio (sound) and video (visual object with or without sound). Following this, it was CD (Compact Disc) and DVD (Digital Versatile Disc), then camera of 3G (Third Generation) applications in the field. In modern terms, the media includes all the software which are used in PC (Computer) or Laptop or Mobile Phone installed for normal or better performance of the system; today, however, hard discs (used to increase the installation capacity of data) of computer is an example of electronic media. This type of hard disc is becoming increasingly smaller in size. The latest inclusion in the field is magnetic media (magnetic stripe) whose application is common, in the fastest growing Information Technology field. Modern day IT media is commonly used in the banking sector and by the Income Tax Department for the purpose of providing the easiest and fastest possible services to the consumers.

In this magnetic strip, account information linking to all the data relating to a particular consumer is stored. Credit card, Debit card, ATM card, High end travel card are comprised within the term Media as it is known today. The main features of these types of media are prepared unrecorded (blank form), and data is normally stored at a later stage as per the requirement of its user or consumer.

### **Social Impact**

Media technology has made communicating increasingly easier as time has passed throughout history. Today, children are encouraged to use media tools

### **NOTES**

## NOTES

in school and are expected to have a general understanding of the various technologies available. The Internet is arguably one of the most effective tools in media for communication. Tools such as e-mail, Skype, Facebook, etc., have brought people closer together and have created new online communities. However, some may argue that certain types of media can hinder face-to-face communication and therefore can result in complications like identity fraud.

In a large consumer-driven society, electronic media (such as television) and print media (such as newspapers) are important for distributing advertisement media. More technologically advanced societies have access to goods and services through newer media than less technologically advanced societies.

Media, through media and communications psychology, has helped to connect diverse people from far and near geographical location. It has also helped in the aspect of online or internet businesses and other activities that have an online version. All media intended to affect human behaviour is initiated through communication and the intended behaviour is couched in psychology. Therefore, understanding media and communications psychology is fundamental in understanding the social and individual effects of media. The expanding field of media and communications psychology combines these established disciplines in a new way.

Timing change based on innovation and efficiency may not have a direct correlation with technology. The information revolution is based on modern advancements. During the 19th century, the information “boom” rapidly advanced because of postal systems, increase in newspaper accessibility, as well as schools “modernizing”. These advancements were made due to the increase of people becoming literate and educated. The methodology of communication although has changed and dispersed in numerous directions based on the source of its sociocultural impact.

### **New Model for Media**

Internet as a synonym of the “new media” not only contains and disseminates information worldwide—like electronic broadcast media—but also is capable of processing information in an interactive manner, since it is computer-based, i.e., its information objects are virtual machines.

Thus, the potential of the new media is urging us to reconsider the notion of media. Since we witness that formal logic is constituting the concept of the computer, we need a new model of “media” to describe, understand and manage the effects of the new infosphere.

We propose a new model for media, namely for computational media, that includes the effects of the processes that are changing and evolving knowledge, executed by humans or computers.

The new medium computer is changing the notion of a medium, which hitherto meant the press or printmedia and meanwhile classical electronic media. Since the development of the computer as an universal information carrier is able to integrate all known types of media (say "multimedia") and its combination with telecommunications, the term "new media" includes "communication". In fact, the five factors constituting communication, as initiator, recipient, vehicle, message, and effect, include the defining characteristic of the new media.

Besides unique communication, the advantages of the new media, are:

- **Democratic Access:** Access as is offered by Internet is open to everybody, any time, anywhere, to the same conditions;
- **Low Costs:** Internet contains information and knowledge of different communities worldwide, being displayed on a mouse click;
- **Updated Contents:** New and changed entries on World Wide Web undergo no delay in the communication process, they are instantly available for everybody;
- **Approach to the contents:** Any requests about a topic can be ordered by keywords, using a choice of powerful search engines<sup>3</sup> able to browse Usenet and World Wide Web. This comprehensive approach for information should not be underestimated, although there is accord that at present tracing down the desired bit of information is as difficult as searching for the needle in a haystack;
- **Disposal of contents:** The information processed by the Internet is digital, multimedial, interactive (answerable) and thus adaptable to a variety of purposes by the user; A new aspect of the new media is their processing capacity, providing us with living information.

As said above, media hitherto were understood as mere carriers of information, thus the information was passed passive (or "dead"). Only human beings could transmit "living" information (say, could explain the information in dialogue with the receiver)-until the invention of computers.

Today, computers offer interactive information with the capability of self-application wrt. To queries, to problems and data. This affects the process of communication and the notion of media.

We therefore propose a new model for the term "media" which includes the processes that are changing and evolving the knowledge in the process of

## NOTES

## NOTES

transmission, which are executed by distributed "agents" - be they humans or computers.

### **Computation and Logic**

The concept of the computer, core of the new information infrastructure, is rooted in the formalistics of logic as developed in the end of the 19th and the beginning of our century. The rise of the scientific method, going back to Galilei, Descartes, Leibniz and other mathematicians in the 17th century, initiated first a scientific and engineering approach towards matter and space. It got hold of the Cartesian "res extensa" via the formal description of time and space in terms of analytical geometry and analysis and eventually determined the modern quest of scientific truth. The formalization of logic and language and of computation submits the Cartesian "res cogitans" to the scientific method. Computation is now closely related to (formal) logic, and vice versa (- as titles like "computational logic" suggest). We are witnessing how information management is re-engineering and how formal logic will structure the global infosphere. To describe, understand and manage these effects, we need a model of "media", which arises from the same body of concepts as its carrier, the computer, does.

### **Computational Media a New Concept**

Here we announce a new media model, which we will present in more detail at the next workshop. We model media as spaces of platforms, i.e., as media for multi agent systems. Active agents collect and represent information as their knowledge. They are able to learn, to reason about their knowledge and to adapt themselves to their environment. Agents represent humans as well as other interactive carriers of information, e.g., computers or databases.

The behaviour of agents is determined by their roles, describing rights and obligations. Agents have locations in time and space. Channels connect agents and facilitate communication and navigation. In communication, knowledge is externalized, represented by a code (meme, in R. Dawkin's terms), and stored on a channel, in order to become transportable. Protocols regulate the communication between agents.

The formal basis of a medium is a logical system, comprising the logic modelling the multiagent system as well as the logic in which the agents represent their knowledge. The logical system determines the formal relation between the representation of information objects, and the world, partially represented in the medium. It comprises also the notion of deduction of knowledge from the knowledge bases of agents and the way a medium with it agents evolves.



We consider the memotype of a medium as well as the processes of selection of memes or memotypes, respectively, of agents and the process of adaptation and learning.

Particular of this notion of medium is that it is dynamic and active: The processes of accumulating, representing, disseminating and managing knowledge on a medium are an integral part of our media metaphor; the medium comprises different kinds of (active) agents as its parts.

This metaphor enables us:

- To analyze and understand media,
- To organize the processes of collection, accumulation, dissemination and management of information, and
- To specify computer based media in a way which is required by this technology: Due to the formal basis of our approach, the description of a required medium is its specification in the sense of computer science. The implementation of this specification provides us with the technical infrastructure of the required medium.

## Media Messages

All messages are 'constructed'.

To explore the idea of 'authorship' in media literacy is to look deeper than just knowing whose name is on the cover of a book or all the jobs in the credits of a movie. It opens up two fundamental insights about all media—*"constructedness"* and *choice*.

The first is the simple but profound understanding that media texts are not "natural" although they look "real". Media texts are built just as buildings and highways are put together: a plan is made, the building blocks are gathered and ordinary people get paid to do various jobs.

Whether we are watching the nightly news, passing a billboard on the street or reading a political campaign flyer, the media message we experience was written by someone (or probably many people), images were captured and edited, and a creative team with many talents put it all together.

The second insight is that in this creative process, *choices are made*. If some words are spoken; others are edited out; if one picture is selected, dozens may have been rejected; if an ending to a story is written one way; other endings may not have been explored. However as the audience, we don't get to see or

## NOTES

## NOTES

hear the words, pictures or endings that were rejected. We only see, hear or read what was accepted! Nor does anybody ever explain why certain choices were made.

The result is that whatever is “constructed” by just a few people then becomes “normal” for the rest of us. Like the air we breathe, media get taken for granted and their messages can go unquestioned. Media are not “real” but they affect people in real ways because we take and make meaning for ourselves out of whatever we’ve been given by those who do the creating.

The success of media texts depends upon their apparent naturalness; we turn off a TV show that looks “fake.” But the truth is, it’s all fake—even the news. That doesn’t mean we can’t still enjoy a movie or sing along with a favourite CD or tune in to get the news headlines.

Media messages are constructed using a creative language with its own rules.

The second point is to explore the ‘format’ of a media message and examine the *way* a message is constructed, the creative components that are used in putting it together—words, music, colour, movement, camera angle and many more.

To build this checklist, we have to, first, begin to *notice* how a message is constructed. Through the activities in this unit, students will grow in understanding how all forms of communication—whether magazine covers, advertisements or horror movies—depend on a kind of “creative language”: use of colour creates different feelings, camera close-ups convey intimacy, scary music heightens fear.

“What do you notice. . .?” is one of the most important questions to ask in the media literacy classroom. And, of course, all answers are acceptable because different people notice different things.)

Because so much of today’s communications, including the news, comes to us visually, it is critical that students learn the basics of visual communication—lighting, composition, camera angle, editing, use of props, body language, symbols, etc.—and how the use of these techniques influences the various meanings we can take away from a message. Understanding the grammar, syntax and metaphor system of media, especially visual language, not only helps us to be less susceptible to manipulation but also increases our appreciation and enjoyment of media as a constructed “text.”

Just as writing improves not only one's reading skill but also one's appreciation for good writing, the best way to understand how media are put together is to do just that—make a public service announcement, create a website, develop marketing campaign for a school activity. The more real world, the project is the better. Digital cameras and computer authoring programmes provide easy ways to integrate creative production projects in the classroom from writing and illustrating their own stories in kindergarten to creating a personal video documentary in the upper grades.

The four major arts disciplines—music, dance, theatre and the visual arts—can also provide a context through which one gains skills of analysis, interpretation and appreciation along with opportunities to practise self-expression and creative production.

*Different People Experience the same Media Message Differently:* How do audiences interact with the media in their lives? Our bodies may not be moving but in our heads, we're constantly trying to connect what we're hearing, seeing or reading with everything else we know. Key Question Core Concept incorporates two important ideas: first, that our differences influence our various interpretations of media messages and secondly, that our similarities create common understandings.

When you think about it, no two people see the same movie or hear the same song on the radio; even parents and children do not "see" the same TV show! Each audience member brings to each media encounter a unique set of life experiences (age, gender, education, cultural upbringing, etc.) which, when applied to the text—or combined with the text—create unique interpretations. A World War II veteran, for example, brings a different set of experiences to a movie like *Saving Private Ryan* than a younger person—resulting in a different reaction to the film as well as, perhaps, greater insight.

Finally, exploring this question reminds teachers that they must not only be open to various interpretations among their students but also that students and teachers don't experience the same media the same way, either! The goal of media literacy is not to ferret out one "right" interpretation that resides in the head of the teacher but rather to help students think through the "constructedness" of a media message and then substantiate their interpretation with evidence.

*Media have Embedded Values and Points of View:* While looking at the content of a media message, it is important to understand that there are no value-free media and never will be. All media carry subtle messages about who and what is important. Because all media messages are constructed, choices

## NOTES

## NOTES

have to be made. These choices inevitably reflect the values, attitudes and points of view of the ones doing the constructing. The decision about a character's age, gender or race mixed in with the lifestyles, attitudes and behaviours that are portrayed, the selection of a setting (urban? rural? affluent? poor?), and the actions and reactions in the plot are just some of the ways that values become "embedded" in a TV show, a movie or an ad. Even the news has embedded values in the decisions made about what stories go first, how long they are, what kinds of pictures are chosen, and so on.

Sometimes, like us, media makers are careless and turn a generalization (a flexible observation) into a stereotype (a rigid conclusion). We should expect them, however, to strive for fairness and balance between various ideas and viewpoints. But we also need to know how to locate alternative sources of both news and entertainment and to be able to evaluate the alternatives as well for their own embedded values.

What's significant about the concept is not that ideas and values are embedded in media messages but that the values of mainstream media typically reinforce, and therefore, affirm, the existing social system. This explains two of the major complaints many people have about media:

1. Less popular or new ideas can have a hard time getting aired, especially if they challenge long-standing assumptions or commonly-accepted beliefs;
2. Unless challenged, old assumptions can create and perpetuate stereotypes, thus further limiting our understanding and appreciation of the world and the many possibilities of human life.

If we have the skills to question and rationally identify both overt and latent values in a mediated presentation, whether from the news, entertainment—or now especially from the Internet—we are likely to be much more astute in our decision-making to accept or reject the overall message. That's vital for effective citizenship in a democratic society.

Being able to recognize and name missing perspectives is also a critical skill as we negotiate our way each day of our lives through an increasingly multicultural world.

***Most Media Messages are Organized to Gain Profit and/or Power:*** We look at the *motive* or *purpose* of a media message—and whether or how a message may have been influenced by money, ego or ideology. To respond to a message appropriately, we need to be able to see beyond the basic content

motives of *informing*, *persuading* or *entertaining*. Much of the world's media were developed as money making enterprises and continue to operate today as commercial businesses. Newspapers and magazines lay out their pages with ads first; the space remaining is devoted to news. Likewise, commercials are part and parcel of most TV watching. What many people do not know is that what's really being sold through commercial media is not just the advertised products to the audience—but also the audience to the advertisers!

The real purpose of the programmes on television, or the articles in a magazine, is to create an audience (and put them in a receptive mood) so that the network or publisher can sell time or space to sponsors to advertise products. We call this "renting eyeballs." Sponsors pay for the time to show a commercial based on the number of people the network predicts will be watching. And they get a refund if the number of actual viewers turns out to be lower than promised.

Exploring how media content, whether TV shows, magazines or Internet sites, makes viewers and readers of all ages receptive target audiences for advertisers creates some of the most enlightening moments in the media literacy classroom.

Examining the purpose of a message also uncovers issues of ownership and the structure and influence of media institutions in a society. Commercially, sponsored entertainment may be more tolerable to many people than, say, a commercial influence over the news. But with democracy at stake almost everywhere around the world, citizens in every country need to be equipped with the ability to determine both economic and ideological "spin".

But there's more. The issue of message motivation has changed dramatically since the Internet became an international platform through which groups and organizations—even individuals—have ready access to powerful tools that can persuade others to a particular point of view, whether positive or negative. The Internet provides multiple reasons for all users to be able to recognize propaganda, interpret rhetorical devices, verify sources and distinguish legitimate websites from bogus, hate or hoax websites.

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## 5.5 CHARACTERISTICS OF ADVERTISING MEDIA

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If mediators describe the physical agencies which make communication possible, characteristics describe the essential qualities of a medium. These qualities exist, to some extent, independently of either the mediators that constitute the medium, the effects the medium has, or the way people use it. It is reasonable

## NOTES

## NOTES

to view characteristics as a high level description of what a medium's possibilities. They state what can happen when people take advantage of a medium's potential. Viewed from this perspective, the potential inherent in characteristics sees realization in a medium's actual effects (a third, still to be examined, view of media).

Restating this view slightly, characteristics express abstract qualities that are inherent to various combinations of physical agencies (mediators). Mediators are concrete and observable. Characteristics are also observable, but are an abstraction related to the way mediators are used. Using biology as a metaphor in which we can express this vocabulary, a discussion of "biological mediators" might say that a bird has wings and a fish has fins. A similar discussion of "biological characteristics" might say that a bird is capable of flying and a fish is capable of swimming. In this view, the difference is one of structure versus behaviour. Characteristics are, then, a view of the essential behaviour of media.

In a third perspective of characteristics, they describe the essential relationship of a medium's mediators (as agency) to agents (the people that use media) and acts (the messages we transmit via media). In this view we see a medium's mediators as having specific essential impacts on the messages and communicators that a medium mediates:

- A capacitive filter, for instance, will slow the message flow and deliver messages in bundles. The slowed message flow can be regarded as an expression of a characteristic of media. The bundled message flow can be regarded as an expression of a characteristic of media. Both characteristics describe the relationship of a medium to its messages.
- Simultaneous and parallel interfaces between communicators, in another instance, entail both interface symmetry (both communicators have the same interface) and a requirement for synchrony (both communicators must use the medium at the same time). Both synchrony and interface symmetry can be regarded as characteristics of media. Both characteristics describe the relationship of a medium to its users.

Each of these perspectives, characteristics as potential, characteristics as behaviour, and characteristics as relationship, contributes to the description of what constitutes a medium's characteristics. Each perspective is correct. None is entirely complete. One shows how characteristics (as potential) work to create effects (as realization). One shows how mediators (as structure) work to create characteristics (as behaviour). The third shows how characteristics express the relationship between mediators and the people and messages which they mediate.

The third view is, perhaps, the richest. It views characteristics as the intersection of medium and agent communicator; of medium and communication act. Characteristics are not, in this view, a simple function of mediator selection. Characteristics instead represent an interaction effect in which mediators have individual and collective effects on both messages and the people that create and receive them. Characteristics can be regarded as behaviour or effects in this view, but they are effects and characteristics of clusters of mediators rather than of media per se. This view provides, moreover, in its description of characteristics as expressing the relationship between media and both agents and acts, a useful way of organizing the characteristics of media:

- Media can be said to have message characteristics, including message speed, the distance a message can traverse, the persistence of a message, and the medium's bandwidth.
- Media can also be said to have communicator characteristics, including audience size, interactiveness, synchrony, ease of use, and interface symmetry.

These characteristics should be regarded as a few obvious selections from a probably infinite variety of media characteristics. Some of the characteristics of media will, like those named above, be easy to observe in a reliable manner. Others will not. It will be relatively easy to operationalize a scale on which the relative speed of media in delivering messages can be compared. It will be extremely difficult to operationalize a set of definitions that classify media as "hot" or "cool" (McLuhan, 1965). It will be relatively easy to state the senses that a medium affects and a summary measure of how many senses are affected. It will be relatively difficult to create a true measure of a medium's information bandwidth.

This study views characteristics as a summary statement of a medium's relationship with its messages and mediators and will repeatedly use this view as a tool for comparing computer conferencing with other media. We will tend to take the easy road, concentrating on a small range of characteristics which are relatively easy to operationalize and reliably observe. The characteristics either:

- make sense as key differentiating characteristics of communication media from the standpoint of existing models of communication.
- are exposed in our study of computer conferencing as key to differentiating computer conferencing from other media.
- are exposed in this chapter, particularly in the discussion of mediators, as key to differentiating media.

## NOTES

**NOTES**

## **An Informal Typology**

Two of these characteristics noted above, audience size and interactiveness, are restatements of two criteria for differentiating interpersonal and mass media as documented by Reardon and Rogers (1988). These measures, the number of potential recipients of a message and the potential for feedback, are fairly clearly operationalized as stated. High levels of feedback are clearly an inherent potential in any interpersonal medium. Where levels of feedback are clearly high, it will probably have interpersonal character regardless of how many participants are involved. High numbers of recipients is clearly an inherent potential in any mass medium.

It is possible, using just these two characteristics, to create a fairly interesting continuum of media. The table below depicts such a continuum crossing dimensions (treated as orthogonal) of potential recipients and potential feedback .

The continuum from mass communication to interpersonal communication extends across the dimensions. One end of the continuum resides at high feedback and low potential recipients. The other end of the continuum at high potential recipients and low feedback. Seventeen media are typologized within the two dimensional structure.

## **An Informal Typology of Media**

A contrast of potential recipients versus potential for feedback. Mass Media (in the upper left corner) tend to entail both high numbered potential recipients but a low potential for feedback. Interpersonal media (in the lower right corner) tend to entail both high levels of feedback, but among relative small groups of individuals. A continuum from mass to interpersonal is depicted in the diagonal line running from the upper left to lower right. Computer conferencing, in contrast to these media entails both large numbers of participants and high levels of feedback. It appears, in this informal typology, to be operating independently from, or orthogonal to, the continuum from mass media to interpersonal media.

The typology illustrates the problem presented by computer conferencing. Prototypic exemplars of interpersonal and mass communication occupy the extremes of the continuum. Most other media are on or near this continuum. Computer conferencing, by contrast, occupies a third extreme. It presents the possibility of a third major cluster of communication events, entailing large numbers of recipients and high levels of feedback. It also presents the possibility that the apparent negative correlation between potential recipients and potential



feedback that forms the basis of the differentiation of interpersonal and mass media is more historical accident than real.

The typology remains informal, however, potential feedback and potential recipients are two of many characteristics of media. Both are, moreover, agent-centred characteristics of communication. There are other characteristics to be considered, including characteristics that express the relationship of mediators to messages.

## NOTES

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## 5.6 APPLICATIONS TO NEWSPAPERS

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Before the invention of newspapers in the early 17th century, official government bulletins were circulated at times in some centralized empires. The earliest newspapers date to 17th-century Europe when printed periodicals began rapidly to replace the practice of hand-writing news sheets. The emergence of the new media branch has to be seen in close connection with the simultaneous spread of the printing press from which the publishing press derives its name. At the same time, then, as the printing press in the physical, technological sense was invented, 'the press' in the extended sense of the word also entered the historical stage. The phenomenon of publishing was born.

### Early News Publications of World

The term 'newspaper' became common in the 17th century. However, in Germany, publications that we would today consider to be newspaper publications, were appearing as early as the 16th century. They were discernibly newspapers for the following reasons: they were printed, dated, appeared at regular and frequent publication intervals, and included a variety of news items (unlike single item news mentioned above). The first newspaper however was said to be the Strasbourg Relation, in the early 17th century. German newspapers, like avis, were organized by the location from which they came, and by date. They differed from avis in the following manners: they employed a distinct and highly illustrated title page, and they applied an overall date to each issue.

Before the advent of the newspaper, there were two major kinds of periodical news publications: the handwritten news sheet, and single item news publications. These existed simultaneously.

The Roman Empire published *Acta Diurna* ("Daily Acts"), or government announcement bulletins, around 59 BC, as ordered by Julius Caesar. They were carved in metal or stone and posted in public places.

## NOTES

In China, early government-produced news sheets, called *tipao*, were commonly used among court officials during the late Han dynasty (2nd and 3rd centuries AD). Between 713 and 734, the *Kaiyuan Za Bao* ("Bulletin of the Court") of the Chinese Tang Dynasty published government news; it was handwritten on silk and read by government officials. In 1582, there was the first reference to privately published news sheets in Beijing, during the late Ming Dynasty.

In 1556, the government of Venice first published the monthly *Notizie scritte* ("Written notices") which cost one *gazetta*, a Venetian coin of the time, the name of which eventually came to mean "newspaper". These *avvisi* were handwritten newsletters and used to convey political, military, and economic news quickly and efficiently throughout Europe, more specifically Italy, during the early modern era (1500–1800)—sharing some characteristics of newspapers though usually not considered true newspapers.

However, none of these publications fully met the classical criteria for proper newspapers, as they were typically not intended for the general public and restricted to a certain range of topics.

Early publications played into the development of what would today be recognized as the newspaper, which came about around 1601. Around the 15th and 16th centuries, in England and France, long news accounts called "relations" were published; in Spain they were called "relaciones".

Single event news publications were printed in the broadsheet format, which was often posted. These publications also appeared as pamphlets and small booklets (for longer narratives, often written in a letter format), often containing woodcut illustrations. Literacy rates were low in comparison to today, and these news publications were often read aloud (literacy and oral culture were, in a sense, existing side by side in this scenario).

### Newspapers are Facing Challenges

Beyond the rituals of a landmark celebration, there are important facets of our life as a society of newspapers that must be acknowledged. By virtue of our age, and our experience, we must be presumed to possess a mature appreciation of the needs of the newspaper industry. We have faced several crises in the years gone by. We have dealt with these with equanimity and occasionally, even with a degree of skill.

But it must be noted that this jubilee is being celebrated even as the newspaper industry faces an existential crisis, one whose contours haven't quite

been appreciated by various stakeholders—including government and newspaper employees. A recent judgement of the Supreme Court, upholding the validity of an Act that ought to have been circumscribed or even repealed by the legislature for its lack of relevance to 21st century India, threatens to drive many of us to closure and it may do so after it has taken a severe toll on the industrial peace we have so carefully nurtured. Our forbearers crafted beneficial legislation that took into account the newspaper's capacity to pay. In other words, it was aimed at being a sustainable model of wage determination. Now, in the hands of authority, it has empowered a prescription that is far divorced from even the newspaper's capacity to earn.

It ill behoves me as head of a premier industry body to wonder on its 75th birthday if it will survive until its 100th. Such dire thoughts might even be considered inauspicious. But the crisis that looms and the storm clouds that have gathered, are direly ominous and therefore these fears must be voiced. Someone wise once said books and minds work only when they are open; both literally and metaphorically this is valid for newspapers as well.

There are other challenges, too. The health of newspapers is undermined by the presence of other media. It is undermined by occasionally intrusive policies of the government that impact our sustainability. It is undermined by rising costs, especially by the fall in the value of rupee that directly impacts our cost of production, since a large quantity of newsprint that we consume is still imported. It is undermined by advertisement policies of central and state governments that elevate to a fine art the subvention by newspapers of the state's messages to citizens.

Equally, it must be admitted that the health of newspapers is also undermined by the actions of some of us, especially by a phenomenon such as paid news that strikes at the very roots of an independent press. Unhealthy competition, predicated on the desire to consolidate media power, assails the democratic commandment to present a plurality of views.

These challenges too must be addressed. The point I wish to emphasize though is that the Society, as a responsible body of newspapers and periodicals, is quite capable of dealing with challenges, provided it is allowed to do so. The fact that we are 75 underlines our maturity; it ought not to give rise to the belief that we either need assisted living or judicially-directed euthanasia.

We note with some alarm and considerable dismay that the solution to those in authority is to legislate or to impose regulations on us, when we are

## NOTES

## NOTES

quite capable of determining solutions and imposing these on ourselves. Amendments to the Press and Registration of Books legislation, especially moves to link content to licensing, are a case in point. The continuance of the anachronism of wage boards, withdrawn from every other industry, is another. Artificial and arbitrary fixation of government advertisement rates, is yet another.

Newspapers disseminate knowledge. They empower citizens. They play a critical role in nation-building. They nurture the intellect, and offer a cerebral counterpoint to the occasionally mindless *shenanigans* of other media. A democracy thus owes it to itself to ensure that its newspapers are empowered to be free, to be fearless.

A jubilee is a milestone and our commemorative book to mark this milestone, quotes the first prime minister of India, Jawaharlal Nehru, extolling the virtues of a free press in these ringing words:

“To my mind, the freedom of the press is not just a slogan from the larger point of view, but it is an essential attribute of the democratic process. I have no doubt that even if the government dislikes the liberties taken by the press and considers them dangerous, it is wrong to interfere with the freedom of the press. By imposing restrictions, you do not change anything; you merely suppress the public manifestation of certain things, thereby causing the idea and thought underlying them to spread further. Therefore, I would rather have a completely free press with all the dangers involved in the wrong use of that freedom, than a suppressed or regulated press.”

These are the words of a liberal; they are words that deserve to be cast on tablets and placed in every newspaper office and in various nodal ministries of the press. But it is the slow poisoning of the well of liberalism that has compromised the completely free press Nehru had envisioned. On this occasion, our platinum jubilee, it is important for all of us—those inside newspapers and those responsible for policy—to revisit the basics of freedom and liberalism, and to craft a path that makes newspapers both relevant and viable.

In presenting the first copy of this book to the nation's first citizen, it is this Society's earnest wish and prayer that winds of change will fan the fires of freedom, and cleanse us of the occasional intolerance that has dogged the polity. As James Madison said more than 200 years ago, “I believe there are more instances of the abridgment of the freedom of the people by gradual and silent encroachments of those in power, than by violent and sudden usurpations.”

It is these silent encroachments that we must cast aside as we chart a course for the future.

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## 5.7 MAGAZINE TELEVISION AND OUT OF HOME MEDIA

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### NOTES

A news magazine is a typed, printed, and published piece of paper, magazine or a radio or television programme, usually weekly, showing articles on current events. News magazines generally go more in-depth into stories than newspapers or television programmes, trying to give the reader an understanding of the important events, rather than just the facts.

Television news magazines provide a similar service to print news magazines, but their stories are presented as short television documentaries rather than written articles. These broadcasts serve as an alternative in covering certain issues more in-depth than regular newscasts. The formula, first established by Panorama on the BBC in 1953 has proved successful around the world. Television news magazines provide several stories not seen on regular newscasts, including celebrity profiles, coverage of big businesses, hidden camera techniques, better international coverage, exposing and correcting injustices, in-depth coverage of a headline story, and hot topic interviews.

In the United States, television news magazines were very popular in the 1990s since they were a cheap and easy way to better use the investment in national television network Nightly News departments. Television news magazines once aired five nights a week on most television networks. However, with the success of reality shows, news magazines have largely been supplanted. Reality shows cost slightly less to produce and attain a younger and more loyal audience than the news magazines they replaced. Thus, the audiences once attracted to news magazine shows have largely drifted to Cable television in the United States, where common news magazine topics such as nature, science, celebrities, and politics all have their own speciality channel.

Most commercial broadcasting television stations have local news that refers to news coverage of events in a local context which would not normally be of interest to those of other localities, or otherwise be of national or international scope.

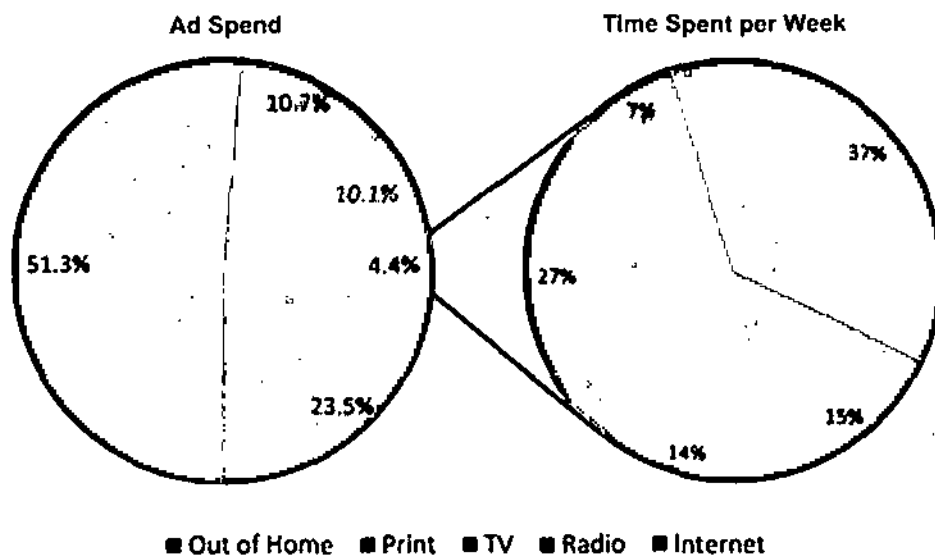
Advantages and Disadvantages of Major Media Formats, and How Does Out of Home Media Compare.

When most businesses consider forms of advertising that may be the best for their company, television, radio, newspaper, magazines, and internet are

## NOTES

typically the first types of media that come to mind. While each of these advertising outlets does have its advantages, it's Out of Home Media that is generally thought of the least, even though outdoor advertising actually reaches nearly every American, and still does not get a proportionate share of ad revenue.

In the chart below you can see on the left where most businesses are spending their advertising dollars. Television and print advertising pretty much take the cake. But on the right you can see the amount of time Americans are actually spending each week using or interacting with each of these forms of media. Interesting how Outdoor only receives a 4.4% share of spending money, but the return and average time spent outside is greater than every other form of advertising with the exception of TV.



Sources: Universal McCann, 2010 Total Media Spending; TVB, Nielsen Media Research Survey 2008, % Hours/Week

Below are some benefits and disadvantages of each of these forms of media, and why we feel Out of Home Media is not only the most unique form of advertising, but most effective.

### Television Benefits

- Wide geographic coverage & broad audience reach (appeals to most demographics)
- Perceived accountability with well accepted audience
- Relative ease of buying and post-buy maintenance
- Proven Success record for promoting mass consumer products (infomercials).

## Television Disadvantages

- Audience share is generally declining due to fragmented audiences
- Increasing use of DVR's diminishing the impact of commercials (people can record their shows and skip the commercials)
- Typically high CPM costs and rising production costs (most expensive)
- Many television shows skew older and lower income
- Increasing ad clutter as commercial pods lengthen (people don't want to watch commercials because they are taking more time away from their shows).

## NOTES

## How Out of Home Media Compares, or Can Help

When viewers are away from the TV they are spending a fair amount of time outside; whether that be commuting to and from work, going out for breakfast, lunch, or dinner, or just leisurely enjoying the outdoors. Out of Home Media can reinforce television messages while people are away from their TV and going through the course of their day to day activities.

Out of Home Media gives businesses the ability to target an audience geographically, actually minimizing the wasted coverage spent on such a broad range of viewers through television. Because television is so expensive, this cuts down on ad spending tremendously and improves the efficiency of a TV campaign by *driving down CPM costs*. Lastly, Out of Home Media reaches a unique classification of television viewers that are younger, mobile; and more affluent than heavy TV users.

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## 5.8 SUMMARY

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There are two ways of product development. On the one hand the product-oriented companies and on the other hand the market-oriented companies. Product-oriented companies invest a lot of money and time in finding new or improved goods to sell them on the market. This is a very risky form of product development, because companies might not sell the new goods. So they lose a lot of money.

Market-oriented companies want to find out what is needed and then they try to develop new ways of production or new goods. Promotion is very important because however good a product is, it will not find any buyers, if no one knows about it. If you want to sell a specialized product, all you have to do is to write

## NOTES

to people or companies, which are known to be interested or place an advertisement in a trade magazine. If you are not able to do this yourself, you can instruct an advertising agency. They have the experts who can make a successful campaign. They know how, when and where the message should be transmitted to reach most people of the target group.

At the beginning of production, advertising will inform you what a product is like, where you can get it and how much it costs. Later, it is necessary to persuade the people to keep on buying or attract new customers to buy. Modern advertising uses language, pictures, sound and colours to sell the products as well as possible.

The best times for commercials are the times at which people wait for something special like the news or sports. At these times advertising can be very successful, but it is also very expensive. TV is one of the most powerful advertising media, because you can get very detailed information about a product. Depending on your target group you have to decide the time, when your spot shall be shown. It is not useful broadcasting an ad about cars in the children's programmes because this is not your target group, they cannot buy a car. In the afternoon there are many films on TV, which are interrupted regularly. At that time advertising can be very expensive. In fact, TV-adverts have a strange impact. You might have noticed how well you can remember slogans long after the spot is over.

Advertising media selection is the process of choosing the most cost-effective media for advertising, to achieve the required coverage and number of exposures in a target audience.

Advertising is a message that tries to sell something. Companies advertise everything from cars to candy. Advertising is also used to change people's ideas. For example, an ad could try to make voters choose a certain candidate for president. Ads appear almost everywhere you look. You find them on the radio and on TV, in magazines, shop windows and on T shirts. They show up inside elevators, on school buses and even in schools. About 600 billion dollars are spent on advertising around the world every year.

Television news magazines provide a similar service to print news magazines, but their stories are presented as short television documentaries rather than written articles. These broadcasts serve as an alternative in covering certain issues more in-depth than regular newscasts. The formula, first established by Panorama on the BBC in 1953 has proved successful around the world. Television



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## NOTES

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## 5.9 GLOSSARY

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- **Classified ad:** Small ad with only a few lines.
- **Combine:** Unite, join.
- **Commercial:** An ad on TV or radio.
- **Communication:** The way of sending information from one person to another.
- **Create:** Make.
- **Customer:** A person who buys things in a shop.
- **Design:** Make.
- **Direct Mail:** Advertisements that are sent by post to many people.
- **Display:** A large screen that shows something or a presentation.
- **Display ad:** A big ad with pictures and text.
- **Draw:** To make a person do something.
- **Electronic Media:** Information that is offered to the public through TV, the radio, Internet etc.
- **Frequency:** The rate per second of a vibration constituting a wave, either in a material (as in sound waves), or in an electromagnetic field (as in radio waves and light).

- **Media:** The main means of mass communication (television, radio, and newspapers) regarded collectively.

## NOTES

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### 5.10 REVIEW QUESTIONS

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1. What is meant by advertising media?
2. Discuss the concepts of media.
3. Write a note on the application of newspapers.
4. Explain 'magazine television'.

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### 5.11 FURTHER READINGS

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1. McQuail, Denis (2000) *Mc Quail's Mass Communication Theory* (fourth edition), Sage, London, pp. 16–34. MAS
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3. Caron, A. H. and Caronia, L. (2007). *Moving cultures: mobile communication in everyday life*. McGill-Queen's University Press.