

**M. A. JOURNALISM AND MASS
COMMUNICATION**

I - YEAR

MASS COMMUNICATION

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**I - YEAR
MASS COMMUNICATION
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MASS COMMUNICATION

UNIT - I

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UNIT - II

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GENERAL INTRODUCTION

MASS COMMUNICATION

Mass communication is the study of how individuals and entities relay information through mass media to large segments of the population at the same time. It is usually understood to relate to newspaper, magazine, and book publishing, as well as radio, television and film, as these mediums are used for disseminating information, news and advertising. Mass communication differs from the studies of other forms of communication, such as interpersonal communication or organizational communication, in that it focuses on a single source transmitting information to a large group of receivers. Mass communication is "the process by which a person, group of people, or large organization creates a message and transmits it through some type of medium to a large, anonymous, heterogeneous audience."

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

Theories of mass communication have changed dramatically since the early 1900s, largely as a result of quickly changing technology and more sophisticated academic theories and research methods. A quick overview of the state of the media in the early 1900s and in the early 2000s provides some context for how views of the media changed. In the early 1900s, views of mass communication were formed based on people's observation of the popularity of media and assumptions that something that grew that quickly and was adopted so readily must be good. Many people were optimistic about the mass media's potential to be a business opportunity, an educator, a watchdog, and an entertainer. For example, businesses and advertisers saw media as a good way to make money, and the educator class saw the media as a way to inform citizens who could then be more active in a democratic society. As World War I and the Depression came around, many saw the media as a way to unite the country in times of hardship. Early scholarship on mass media focused on proving these views through observational and anecdotal evidence rather than scientific inquiry.

UNIT - I

FORMS OF COMMUNICATION

Unit - I : Forms of Communication

STRUCTURE

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- 1.1. Introduction
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- 1.12. Answers to Check Your Progress
- 1.13. Terminal Questions
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1.0. Learning Objectives

After reading this unit, you will be able to :

- ◆ Know the various forms of communication
- ◆ Describe the term Intrapersonal communication
- ◆ Discuss the concept and stages of Interpersonal communication
- ◆ Examine the features of Small group communication
- ◆ Enumerate the aspects of Public communication
- ◆ Explain the origin, forms and functions of Mass communication
- ◆ Derive the salient features and significance of Non verbal communication
- ◆ Explain the types of Verbal communication

1.1. Introduction

Communication is a process of exchanging information, ideas, thoughts, feelings and emotions through speech, signals, writing, or behavior. In communication process, a sender (encoder) encodes a message and then using a medium/channel sends it to the receiver (decoder) who decodes the message and after processing information, sends back appropriate feedback/reply using a medium/channel. People communicate with each other in a number of ways that depend upon the message and its context in which it is being sent. Choice of communication channel and your style of communicating also affect communication. So, there are varieties of types of communication.

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1.2. Forms of Communication

The part of communication in which self of a human being is involved only and the communication is confined to one human entity. This means that all the elements which come into action in a given piece of communication are located within the self of an individual. A message originating from source part of the brain travels through the channel of nerves to reach another location, however close it may be to the point of origin of message, where it is interpreted and understood as receiver.

All the process of meditation, thinking, monologue and even dreaming while asleep are all but examples of intra communication.

Inter personal Communication

This part of communication belongs to involving two or more individuals for exchange of information. Since this part is experienced more due to its vastness, it is further classified in many categories.

Inter personal Communication®

Interpersonal communication is the simplest form in which more than one individual communicate to each other

Group Communication

More often people are seen exchanging views with almost all the participants enjoying an equal status on one count or the other. Like all the players of a hockey team, class-fellows, doctors, teachers, bureaucrats, politicians, economists etc.

Organizational communication

In this part, communication usually takes place on vertical lines. For instance, a company director is passing on instructions to managers who would be guiding accordingly to field officers and the relevant other field staff. An army general may not be talking to lowest rank men in khaki but would follow the chain of organizational command to deliver his message to the last rank people. Be it a corporate sector, NGO, a political party, an educational institution, the communication process would strictly follow the essentials of the organizational communication.

Mass Communication

In this category we refer to the communication originating from one source and meant for all possible audience irrespective of distance, cast, creed, religion, nationality and beyond. The mass communication involves use of technology for it is not possible to carry message to a very high number of receivers without the use of certain devices or techniques. All other types of communication may take place when the source is coming across receivers without involving technology. That is why more research and investment has gone into handling the mass communication.

Forms of communication

In another way we can examine the communication process by dividing it into different forms of exchanging messages.

- ◆ Verbal
- ◆ Non verbal

Verbal

All the messages said or written in words make part of the verbal communication. This way, all that appears as text in books, magazines and newspapers is part of verbal communication. One can guess the size of an industry in the area of mass communication based on verbal communication.

Likewise, all the words heard on radio, television, telephone or any other public address system are also part of verbal communication. Again, the industry and technology based on verbal communication is enormous in size and value as well. One amazing part of the verbal communication is the availability of events of significance in history. Little is understood about the past from the available artifacts but a great deal of human civilization, growth and conflict is available in the form of verbal communication. The spread of religions and sharing of most scientific work is also due to the verbal communication over the centuries which recorded facts, sentiments and event of common human interest.

It is on the basis of verbal communication that the world has seen great poets, writers, playwrights, historian and newsmen. This also proves at what great scale the verbal communication has created job opportunities. In modern days, people having verbal communication skills are in high demand, especially with the fast expanding media all across the globe.

Non verbal

Senses

Part of human communication involving other than written or spoken words is referred to as non verbal communication. It involves human senses - sight, taste, touch, hearing and smelling. As a matter of fact about 90 per cent communication among human beings takes place through their senses and the rest by the use of words as languages.

Symbols, signs

Emblems, gestures, symbols and signs make more vivid and strong communication as compared to words which are often difficult to decipher. For instance making a victory sign by politicians, army generals, sportspersons and leaders in general at the time of defeating enemy is easily understood even by the illiterate. If the same feeling is expressed in words, many may not come even close to understanding what it is.

The traffic signals, red-cross mark and the symbol of dove are but few illustrations to make people around understand what a message stands for.

Combination

For practical purposes, however, the use of verbal and non verbal makes a very strong piece of communication. One may see a match on TV but an enthusiast commentator may relish the joy if your favorite team is winning the game. Similarly, feature films, documentaries and dramas on mini screen stand for more effective pieces of communication than if only one form of communication is brought into use. Even the newspapers and magazines, which are more to bank on verbal communication, carry so much of non verbal communication in the form of images, graphics and maps. The research journals also exploit the verbal-non verbal combination to share and advance the cause of scientific developments. In fact it has become rather impossible to find a newspaper and magazine, even books, which do not use non verbal communication to explain various aspects of daily life.

Check your Progress

1. Define the term "Communication".

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1.3. Intrapersonal Communication

Intrapersonal communication is language use or thought internal to the communicator. It can be useful to envision intrapersonal communication occurring in the mind of the individual in a model which contains a sender, receiver, and feedback loop.

Intrapersonal communication takes place within a single person, often for the purpose of clarifying ideas or analyzing a situation. Other times, intrapersonal communication is undertaken in order to

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reflect upon or appreciate something. Three aspects of intrapersonal communication are self-concept, perception and expectation.

- ◆ Self-concept is the basis for intrapersonal communication, because it determines how a persona sees him/her and is oriented toward others. Self-concept (also called self-awareness) involves three factors: beliefs, values and attitudes. Beliefs are basic personal orientation toward what is true or false, good or bad; beliefs can be descriptive or prescriptive. Values are deep-seated orientations and ideals, generally based on and consistent with beliefs, about right and wrong ideas and actions. Attitudes are learned predisposition toward or against a topic, ideals that stem from and generally are consistent with values. Attitudes often are global, typically emotional. Beliefs, values and attitudes all influence behavior, which can be either spoken opinion or physical action. Some psychologists include body image as an aspect of intrapersonal communication, in that body image is a way of perceiving ourselves, positively or negatively, according to the social standards of our culture. Other things that can affect self-concept are personal attributes, talents, social role, even birth order.
- ◆ Whereas self-concept focuses internally, perception looks outward. Perception of the outside world also is rooted in beliefs, values and attitudes. It is so closely intertwined with self-concept that one feeds off the other, creating a harmonious understanding of both oneself and one's world.
- ◆ Meanwhile, expectations are future-oriented messages dealing with long-term roles, sometimes called life scripts. These sometimes are projections of learned relationships within the family or society.

Intrapersonal communication may involve different levels of communication activity: internal discourse, solo vocal communication, and solo written communication.

- ◆ Internal discourse involves thinking, concentration and analysis. Psychologists include both day-dreaming and nocturnal dreaming in this category. Prayer, contemplation and meditation also are part of this category, though from a theological point of view the argument may be made that this is not solely internal to one person. In Sufi tradition, this is similar to the concept of nafs, negotiating with the inner self. Example: Consciously appreciating the beauty of a sunset.
- ◆ Solo vocal communication includes speaking aloud to oneself. This may be done to clarify thinking, to rehearse a message intended for others, or simply to let off steam. Example: Talking to yourself as you complain about your boss.
- ◆ Solo written communication deals with writing not intended for others. Example: An entry in a diary or personal journal.

Check your Progress

2. Where does Intrapersonal Communication take place?

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3. What are the levels of Intrapersonal Communication?

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1.4. Interpersonal Communication

Interpersonal communication is direct face to face communication between two persons. It is, in other words, a dialogue or a conversation without the intervention of another person or a machine like the telephone or a two-way radio or television setup. It is personal, direct, and intimate, allowing for maximum interaction and exchange in word and gesture. Indeed, it is the highest, the more persuasive and influential than any other type of communication such as group communication or mass communication, for it involves the interplay of words and gestures, the warmth of human closeness and in fact all the five senses. All interpersonal exchange is, therefore a communion and a sharing at the most intimate

and open level. It is total communication for it takes within its compass words, body movements, physical characteristics, body odours, and even clothes. This is not to deny that interpersonal exchanges can be used by confidence tricksters and conmen to throw wool over people's eyes. A man may smile and yet be a villain for all we know. That perhaps explains why we cherish our privacy so much and is constantly on our guard face-to-face encounters, much more so than in group or mass gatherings. Only the ones who have our trust, and have proved themselves are allowed to cross the barriers of an intimate relationship. Most are kept at a distance.

In the area of business communication that distance is ritualized. For instance, interpersonal exchanges between a medical representative and a doctor or that between a manager and a clerk are generally carried out on a professional level. As the saying goes they usually 'talk shop', but on occasions, even business chatter can lead to close and abiding friendships. That potential lies in the nature of interpersonal communication; hence the frequent barriers we raise lest people invade our space, our 'territory'. Interpersonal communication involves the sharing of a common space and time. Co-presence in a shared locale is imperative for this type of communication. So is a shared timeframe; we need to be together in time and space.

Konrad Lorenz and Desmond Morris have reported how animals and birds turn aggressive when their territories are invaded by outsiders. This is because of the 'territorial imperative' - the obsession with protecting one's space. The elephant has herd, the lion his pride, the wolf his pack, and the birds and bees their nests and hives. Any encroachment from other groups is resented, and fought off, sometimes violently. Human beings react in an equally savage manner when their spatial privacy is encroached upon. In European cultures, it is considered bad manners and communication to get too close (literally and figuratively) and too intimate unless we have been permitted to enter the sanctum sanctorum of another. Among Indians and Arabs, however, physical closeness in Interpersonal Communication does not generally imply intimacy, nor does constant gazing into each other's eyes. This is a part of Western and South Asian cultures. According to Buddhism, the four social emotions that should guide interpersonal communication are: metta (loving kindness), karuna (compassion), mudita (sympathetic joy) and upekkha (equanimity).

Focused and Unfocused Interactions

Interpersonal communication is conducted on the basis of focused and unfocused interactions. In his study of Behaviour in Public Places, Erving Goffman argues that most interpersonal communication is of an unfocused nature. It takes place whenever we observe or listen to persons with whom we are not conversing, for instance in buses, trains, lifts or in public places like stations, bus stops, or on the street. It's the kind of activity we indulge in when we are 'people watching' without their being aware we are doing so. And what do we come to know about them? Our inferences may not all be valid or meaningful, but the fact remains that we do make inferences all the time about people. The young man who passes us by in a street dressed in pyjama and kurta evokes different associations from one clad in jeans and a jazzy shirt, depending of course on our own background, and the location of the street. The girl in a simple cotton sari, with her hair tied in a 'plait' say in a city like Bombay, conveys different impressions from the girl in a dress and with her hair bobbed. Additional sources of information about these persons are height, weight, and build. For instance, a well-built tall man is regarded as handsome, a stout fat woman as ugly, a thin wiry figure as athletic. Body movements such as gestures, the manner of standing, sitting or walking too convey certain meanings to us. Very broad gestures and loud talk, for example, are considered uncouth in polite society, but not necessarily so among working class groups. Thus it is that we draw conclusion on a person's qualities, cultural and religious background, socio-economic status, political ideology and other preferences without ever speaking to him or to her.

Focused Interactions

Focused interactions, on the other hand, result from an actual encounter between two persons. The persons involved are fully aware that they are communicating with each other. Sitting or standing face to-face either close or distant, they know fully well that they are exchanging both verbal and non verbal messages, though they may not realize how these messages are being interpreted. Also, they are generally not conscious of the meaning they are conveying through 'body language'. An unfocused interaction usually is set off by eye contact. The meeting of eye indicates that both parties are willing to have an interpersonal exchange. The turning away of eyes, on the other hand, cuts off the attempts to come

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Channel

The channel refers to the physical means by which the message is transferred from one person to another. In face-to-face context the channels which are used are speech and vision, however during a telephone conversation the channel is limited to speech alone.

Uses of Interpersonal Communication

Interpersonal communication can be used to:

- ◆ Give and collect information.
- ◆ Influence the attitudes and behaviour of others.
- ◆ Form contacts and maintain relationships.
- ◆ Make sense of the world and our experiences in it.
- ◆ Express personal needs and understand the needs of others.
- ◆ Give and receive emotional support.
- ◆ Make decisions and solve problems.
- ◆ Anticipate and predict behaviour.
- ◆ Regulate power.

Direct interpersonal communication involves a direct face-to-face relationship between the sender and receiver of a message, who are in an interdependent relationship. Because of interpersonal communication's immediacy (it is taking place now) and primacy (it is taking place here), it is characterized by a strong feedback component. Communication is enhanced when the relationship exists over a long period of time. Interpersonal communication involves not only the words used but also the various elements of nonverbal communication. The purposes of interpersonal communication are to influence, help and discover, as well as to share and play together.

Interpersonal communication can be categorized by the number of participants.

- ◆ Dyadic communication involves two people. Example: Two friends talking.
- ◆ Group communication involves three or more persons, though communication scholars are inconsistent as to the top end of the number scale. The smaller the number in the group, the more closely this mode resembles interpersonal communication. Often group communication is done for the purpose of problem solving or decision making. Example: University study group.
- ◆ Public communication involves a large group with a primarily one-way monologue style generating only minimal feedback. Information sharing, entertainment and persuasion are common purposes of public communication. Example: Lecture in university class.

Another way of categorizing interpersonal communication is on the function or setting of the communication.

- ◆ Organizational communication deals with communication within large organizations such as businesses. This is sometimes considered part of group communication, but communication scholars have built up a body of knowledge focused primarily on organizations. Example: Work-focused discussion between employer and employee.
- ◆ Family communication focuses on communication patterns within nuclear, extended and blended families. Like organizational communication, this too is sometimes seen as part of the general category of group communication, but much research has been focused specifically on communication within a family relationship. Family communication can be enhanced by the long-standing and close relationships among participants as well as the likelihood that families have shared heritage, similar values, and social rituals. Patterns differ in communication between spouses, between parent and child, among siblings, and within the wider family context. Example: Conversation during a holiday meal.

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Additionally, some scholars identify a category of impersonal communication. This is a distinction between impersonal and interpersonal communication on the basis of the quality of the interaction. Impersonal communication is that which involves functional short-term exchanges such as might occur between a shopper and a salesman; the label of interpersonal is reserved for communication that functions in deeper and more meaningful relationships.

The process of interpersonal communication includes several stages over an extended life cycle. Communication scholar Mark Knapp has outlined one useful framework for understanding the coming-together process. Note that these stages can be applied to personal friendships, romantic relationships, business encounters, and many other types of interaction.

- ◆ The initial encounter offers a first impression that can be full of communication data. Likes or dislikes can be instantaneous, though many people have learned that first impressions may be misleading.
- ◆ Experimenting is the second step in interpersonal communication. In this step, information is exchanged on a variety of topics - general and "safe" at first, gradually becoming more personal and more self-revealing.
- ◆ Intensifying follows when the experimentation leads to positive mutual conclusions that the relationship is worth pursuing.
- ◆ The fourth step in interpersonal communication is integration, in which mutual decisions are made that the relationship is fulfilling. This is the stage of intense friendships, close business partnerships, romantic commitments, and so on.
- ◆ Bonding is the final stage, in which the relationship is sealed (often formally with contracts or written agreements) and generally is publicized (such as through announcements).

Knapp also outlined a similar reverse pattern for the unraveling of interpersonal relationships:

- ◆ Differentiating mirrors the initiating phase but focuses instead on the differences that people notice about each other.
- ◆ Communication likewise plays a central role in the circumscribing stage, during which time participants in the relationship begin to minimize their communication and confine it to mainly functional topics.
- ◆ Stagnating is the next stage, in which the relationship becomes flat and personally unfulfilling and is continued mainly for reasons beyond the relationship, such as religious or family obligation, contractual obligation, or social expectation.
- ◆ Overt unpleasantness is evident in the avoidance stage, in which the participants in interpersonal communication both avoid each other and express mutual annoyance when they encounter each other.
- ◆ Termination is the final stage of breakdown, at which time legal, religious or other formal contracts are abrogated and the demise of the relationship is announced to others.

Mediated interpersonal communication involves technology that assists or links the sender and receiver of messages. This may involve immediacy (live or so-called real time). It does not involve a primary context but instead uses technology to link the various parties in communication.

- ◆ Dyadic communication includes two people, with some of the elements of interpersonal, but the context is not face-to-face. Example: Two business colleagues using the telephone or e-mail.
- ◆ Group communication includes a small group of people. Example: Teleconference in a distance-learning class.

Mediated communication offers the advantage that it allows people to communicate over a distance or throughout a time span that would not be possible in direct communication. E-mail offers instantaneous global communication, and cell phones are highly mobile. Computer technology makes it possible for people to do their job without being physically present, allowing them to work from their home or from across the world.

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Like direct communication, mediated communication may be formal or informal, personal or public. Feedback may be immediate or delayed. Machines even can assist in communication across language barriers (more on that in Unit 5 on intercultural communication).

Mediated communication has several inherent limitations, including the ability of telephone or Internet users to mask or disguise the source of the message, or the susceptibility of machines to various mechanical or technological noise sources.

Related Concepts in Interpersonal Communication

- ◆ **Conversation:** Often considered informal and everyday speech, but more formally a finite element within an ongoing relationship based on interpersonal communication. Most conversations of a standard five-step process of opening, built-up, substance, feedback, and closing. Since a conversation is a two-way process, it involves various controls, many associated with conversational turns (the changing of the speaker and listener role). Conversations can exist in both direct and mediated settings.
- ◆ **Speech act:** An intentional utterance made to achieve an intended goal. In an informal context, a speech act might be a promise made by a parent to his or her child. A more formal example of a speech act is an interview given by a government leader with hopes of persuading voters.
- ◆ **Communication competence:** The ability to communicate in a socially acceptable way. For interpersonal relationships, this involves the speaker's interaction with others. For more public situations, this involves the audience perception of the speaker in terms of vocal presentation, message control, command of language, physical appearance, and so on.
- ◆ **Self-disclosure:** Process of making internal revelations about oneself that others would be unlikely to know otherwise. While self-disclosure is an individual communication tactic, it invites reciprocity.
- ◆ **Gender differences:** Communication scholars have researched the varying ways men and women communicate, which often varies further among different cultures. Some of the major differences are that men use report talk to share information or demonstrate knowledge, whereas women often use rapport talk to enhance relationships and share experiences. Psychologists have observed that men and women who are androgynous in their communication styles rather than those who rely heavily on stereotypically masculine or feminine style are more successful in their interactions with others.
- ◆ **Metacommunication:** Communication about the act or process of communicating rather than focusing on the content of communication. For example, a couple that argues about how to spend their money is communicating. A couple that discusses how they argue is engaging in metacommunication.

Check your Progress

4. What is meant by Focused Interactions?

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1.5. Small Group Communication

Much communication takes place in the context of small groups, which are defined as those of three or more participants. The various and overlapping types of small groups lead to various types of communication patterns.

- ◆ Social groups are units such as families, friends living as roommates, and voluntary recreational groups such as soccer teams.
- ◆ Families also form primary groups, which are defined as those in which people share living and financial arrangements.

- ◆ Families also are an example of reference groups, through which participants gain a sense of identity and an awareness of expected behavior.
- ◆ Work groups are another pattern of relationships. These are built by people who are drawn together by a common task, such as students working together on a project or company employees assigned to a common job activity.
- ◆ Decision-making groups are brought together for the purpose of dealing with a question or policy.
- ◆ Similarly though distinctly, problem-solving groups focus on resolving a problem.

The working of groups has been the subject of much study, particularly from the framework of organizational communication. Leadership styles of small groups have been identified - generally in a three-part continuum ranging from high control (authoritarian leaders) through moderate control (democratic leaders) to low control (laissez-faire leaders). A fourth type, called abdacritic, involves the total collapse of leadership over uncontrolled group dynamics.

Psychologists and communication scholars have observed a pattern of group development, usually presented in a four-fold model.

- ◆ The process begins with an orientation phase in which participants get to know each other and learn what is expected of them as a group.
- ◆ In the conflict phase, they deal with sources of conflict, usually in an effort to avoid conflict within the group. Too much conflict can prevent the group from functioning. However, some conflict is useful to avoid the pressure toward conformity known as groupthink.
- ◆ This norm emergence phase centers on compromise, the convergence of ideas, generation of alternative solutions, and eventually consensus. A technique often used to enhance the early part of this phase is brainstorming, in which unrestrained possible solutions and options are generated with no self-censorship or initial group evaluation. The purpose of brainstorming is to generate as many ideas as possible. Only after the ideas have been generated will they be evaluated, keeping the two steps separate and thus allowing the group to consider all possible options.
- ◆ The closure phase completes the process by concluding the group's work.

1.6. Public Communication

It usually means communication that isn't private to a certain group. So, if we post a comment on a message board that anyone can access, that is public communication. If we say something in a public setting, where a lot of people could gain access to it that is public communication.

Communication doesn't happen in a vacuum. Public Communication students learn and use an integrated approach to communication that includes critically analyzing situations, managing information, and crafting messages that work in an increasingly global society.

Public communication is an essential part of everyday life and business interaction. More than ever, traditional and new forms of media are being used by individuals, groups, and organizations to disseminate information to the public, and influence judgments, perceptions, values, and actions.

An understanding of media use, processes and effects is critical for success in a competitive marketplace. As such, a degree in public communication prepares students to enter a large number of careers, including marketing, advertising and other strategic communication professions, legal and political fields, as well as new and emerging fields in social media management and promotion.

The most recent job outlook statistics from the National Association for Colleges and Employers rank effective communication skills as the most important job characteristic employers consider when making hiring decisions, ranking above even technical skills.

Greater competence and training in Public Communication prepares students to work more effectively in a wide range of situations and to meet industry demands with communication theory and research.

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communicators and the audience in traditional media are known to each other unlike in radio or television. The environment in which the performances take place is natural, known and friendly. The messages are also simple; the content known and the language and idioms are familiar. Unlike other modern media, people never get tired of them. Let us consider the example of the Ram Lila celebrated and performed all over north India. The story of Ramayana is known to everyone and so are the performers. They repeat the same story every year, yet people come in large numbers to see them. But can you see an ordinary Hindi film a number of times?

There are several forms of traditional media in our country. They are known by different names in different regions. Some common examples of traditional media are storytelling, folk songs, street theatre and puppetry. Some forms of traditional media like traditional songs and mythological stories are written down as proper text. But different forms of folk media are generally spontaneous or are made on the spot.

Functions of Mass Communication

Inform, Educate and Entertain

These are the functions of media. Let us learn more about these functions of media. Those who write, direct or produce programmes are people who give us messages. Let us consider the example of a news bulletin on radio or television or a news item in a newspaper. They inform us of some event or happening.... "A new President is elected", "The country has developed a new missile", "India has beaten Pakistan in cricket", "25 killed in a bomb blast"... All these inform us. These are properly designed or written messages given by people who are communicators. A doctor speaks on radio or television or writes in a newspaper about how to prevent a disease. Experts tell farmers on radio or television about a new crop, seed or agricultural practice. Thereby, the farmers are educated. All the commercial cinema, television serials and music programmes are entertaining.

The channels are the means through which messages are sent. These may be newspapers, films, radio, television or the internet. Mass media have tremendous impact on their readers, listeners and viewers. That is the effect. People watch an advertisement on television and buy the product. They are motivated to buy the product to satisfy their needs. When India became independent agriculture in the country was not developed. We did not produce enough rice or wheat to feed our people. We were importing food and the population was also growing fast. There were too many mouths to feed. So the government used the media, especially radio to change this situation. The farmers who were mostly illiterate were told to use the right seed, fertilizers and new techniques on farming. The effect was remarkable. We went through a revolution in agriculture and that was called the Green Revolution. Similarly, the media stressed on the need for small families. Many people followed the small family norm and decided to have only two or three children. Take for example, the campaign on polio. The mass media informed and educated the people about the polio vaccine to eradicate polio. Messages are created using creativity and film stars deliver these messages. Have you seen Amitabh Bachhan saying "Doh boond zindagi ki" on television meaning "two drops of life"?

1.8. Non Verbal Communication

Nonverbal communication is the sending or receiving of wordless messages. We can say that communication other than oral and written, such as gesture, body language, posture, tone of voice or facial expressions, is called nonverbal communication. Nonverbal communication is all about the body language of speaker.

Nonverbal communication helps receiver in interpreting the message received. Often, nonverbal signals reflect the situation more accurately than verbal messages. Sometimes nonverbal response contradicts verbal communication and hence affects the effectiveness of message.

Nonverbal communication has the following three elements:

Appearance:

- ◆ Speaker: clothing, hairstyle, neatness, use of cosmetics

- ◆ Surrounding: room size, lighting, decorations, furnishings

Body Language:

- ◆ Facial expressions, gestures, postures

Sounds:

- ◆ Voice Tone, Volume, Speech rate

Nonverbal communication describes the process of conveying meaning in the form of non-word messages. Research shows that the majority of our communication is non verbal, also known as body language. In fact, 63-93% of communication is non-verbal. Some of non verbal communication includes chronemics, haptics, gesture, body language or posture; facial expression and eye contact, object communication such as clothing, hairstyles, architecture, symbols, infographics, and tone of voice as well as through an aggregate of the above.

Speech also contains nonverbal elements known as paralanguage. These include voice lesson quality, emotion and speaking style as well as prosodic features such as rhythm, intonation and stress. Likewise, written texts include nonverbal elements such as handwriting style, spatial arrangement of words and the use of emoticons to convey emotional expressions in pictorial form.

1.9. Verbal Communication

Verbal communication refers to the form of communication in which message is transmitted verbally; communication is done by word of mouth and a piece of writing. Objective of every communication is to have people understand what we are trying to convey. In verbal communication remember the acronym KISS (keep it short and simple).

When we talk to others, we assume that others understand what we are saying because we know what we are saying. But this is not the case. Usually people bring their own attitude, perception, emotions and thoughts about the topic and hence creates barrier in delivering the right meaning.

So in order to deliver the right message, you must put yourself on the other side of the table and think from your receiver's point of view. Would he understand the message? How it would sound on the other side of the table?

Verbal Communication is further divided into:

- ◆ Oral Communication
- ◆ Written Communication

Oral Communication

In oral communication, Spoken words are used. It includes face-to-face conversations, speech, telephonic conversation, video, radio, television, voice over internet. In oral communication, communication is influence by pitch, volume, speed and clarity of speaking.

Oral communication, while primarily referring to spoken verbal communication, can also employ visual aids and non-verbal elements to support the conveyance of meaning. Oral communication includes speeches, presentations, discussions, and aspects of interpersonal communication. As a type of face-to-face communication, body language and choice tonality play a significant role, and may have a greater impact upon the listener than informational content. This type of communication also garners immediate feedback.

Advantages of Oral communication

It brings quick feedback. In a face-to-face conversation, by reading facial expression and body language one can guess whether he/she should trust what's being said or not.

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Disadvantage of oral communication

In face-to-face discussion, user is unable to deeply think about what he is delivering, so this can be counted as a disadvantage.

Written Communication

In written communication, written signs or symbols are used to communicate. A written message may be printed or hand written. In written communication message can be transmitted via email, letter, report, memo etc. Message, in written communication, is influenced by the vocabulary & grammar used, writing style, precision and clarity of the language used.

Written Communication is most common form of communication being used in business. So, it is considered core among business skills.

Memos, reports, bulletins, job descriptions, employee manuals, and electronic mail are the types of written communication used for internal communication. For communicating with external environment in writing, electronic mail, Internet Web sites, letters, proposals, telegrams, faxes, postcards, contracts, advertisements, brochures, and news releases are used.

Advantages of written communication

- ◆ Messages can be edited and revised many time before it is actually sent. Written communication provides record for every message sent and can be saved for later study.
- ◆ A written message enables receiver to fully understand it and send appropriate feedback.

Disadvantages of written communication

Unlike oral communication, written communication doesn't bring instant feedback. It takes more time in composing a written message as compared to word-of-mouth. and number of people struggles for writing ability.

1.10. Summary

In communication process, a sender (encoder) encodes a message and then using a medium/channel sends it to the receiver (decoder) who decodes the message and after processing information, sends back appropriate feedback/reply using a medium/channel. People communicate with each other in a number of ways that depend upon the message and its context in which it is being sent. Choice of communication channel and your style of communicating also affect communication. So, there are varieties of types of communication.

Verbal communication refers to the form of communication in which message is transmitted verbally; communication is done by word of mouth and a piece of writing. Objective of every communication is to have people understand what we are trying to convey. In verbal communication remember the acronym KISS (keep it short and simple).

Nonverbal communication is the sending or receiving of wordless messages. We can say that communication other than oral and written, such as gesture, body language, posture, tone of voice or facial expressions, is called nonverbal communication. Nonverbal communication is all about the body language of speaker.

1.11. Key Words

1. **Verbal Communication** : Verbal communication refers to the form of communication in which message is transmitted verbally.
2. **Non-verbal Communication** : Nonverbal communication is the sending or receiving of wordless messages.

3. Mass Communication : Mass communication is "the process by which a person, group of people, or large organization creates a message and transmits it through some type of medium to a large, anonymous, heterogeneous audience.

4. Small group communication : Much communication takes place in the context of small groups, which are defined as small group communication.

5. Inter personal Communication : Interpersonal communication is the simplest form in which more than one individual communicate to each other.

1.12. Answers to Check Your Progress

1. Communication is a process of exchanging information, ideas, thoughts, feelings and emotions through speech, signals, writing, or behavior.
2. Intrapersonal communication takes place within a single person, often for the purpose of clarifying ideas or analyzing a situation. Other times, intrapersonal communication is undertaken in order to reflect upon or appreciate something.
3. Intrapersonal communication may involve different levels of communication activity: internal discourse, solo vocal communication, and solo written communication.
4. Focused interactions, on the other hand, result from an actual encounter between two persons. The persons involved are fully aware that they are communicating with each other. Sitting or standing face to-face either close or distant, they know fully well that they are exchanging both verbal and non verbal messages, though they may not realize how these messages are being interpreted.
5. Public Communication usually means communication that isn't private to a certain group. So, if we post a comment on a message board that anyone can access, that is public communication. If we say something in a public setting, where a lot of people could gain access to it that is public communication.

1.13. Terminal Questions

1. Describe the term Intrapersonal communication.
2. Discuss the concept and stages of Interpersonal communication.
3. Examine the features of Small group communication.
4. Enumerate the aspects of Public communication.
5. Explain the origin, forms and functions of Mass communication.
6. Derive the salient features and significance of Non verbal communication.
7. Explain the types of Verbal communication.

1.14. Further Readings

1. Mass Communication; Keval J.Kumar
2. The News Paper - An international history; Anthony Smith
3. Mass communication and journalism; D.S.Mehta in India.
4. Introduction to Communication Studies; John Fiske

Unit - II : Models of Communication

STRUCTURE

- 2.0. Learning Objectives
- 2.1. Introduction
- 2.2. Models of Communication
- 2.3. Aristotle Model
- 2.4. Smrc Model
- 2.5. Laswell Model
- 2.6. Shannon & Weaver Model
- 2.7. Osgood & Schramm Model
- 2.8. Gerbner Model
- 2.9. Gatekeeping Model
- 2.10. Summary
- 2.11. Key Words
- 2.12. Answers to Check Your Progress
- 2.13. Terminal Questions
- 2.14. Further Readings

2.0. Learning Objectives

After reading this unit, you will be able to

- ◆ Know the Models of communication
- ◆ Understand Aristotle's model of communication
- ◆ Discuss SMCR model of communication
- ◆ Explain Lass well model of communication
- ◆ Enumerate Shannon-weaver model of communication
- ◆ State the Osgood & Schramm model of communication
- ◆ Describe Gerbner model of communication
- ◆ Explain the Gatekeeping model of communication

2.1. Introduction

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

2.2. Models of Communication

"In the broadest sense, a model is a systematic representation of an object or event in idealized and abstract form. Models are somewhat arbitrary by their nature. The act of abstracting eliminates certain details to focus on essential factors. . . . The key to the usefulness of a model is the degree to which it conforms-in point-by-point correspondence-to the underlying determinants of communicative behavior."

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- ◆ "Communication models are merely pictures; they're even distorting pictures, because they stop or freeze an essentially dynamic interactive or transactive process into a static picture."
- ◆ Models are metaphors. They allow us to see one thing in terms of another.

Advantages of Models

1. They should allow us to ask questions.

Mortensen: "A good model is useful, then, in providing both general perspective and particular vantage points from which to ask questions and to interpret the raw stuff of observation. The more complex the subject matter-the more amorphous and elusive the natural boundaries-the greater are the potential rewards of model building."

2. They should clarify complexity.

Models also clarify the structure of complex events. They do this, as Chaparais (1961) noted, by reducing complexity to simpler, more familiar terms. . . Thus, the aim of a model is not to ignore complexity or to explain it away, but rather to give it order and coherence.

3. They should lead us to new discoveries-most important, according to Mortensen.

At another level models have heuristic value; that is, they provide new ways to conceive of hypothetical ideas and relationships. This may well be their most important function. With the aid of a good model, suddenly we are jarred from conventional modes of thought. . . Ideally, any model, even when studied casually, should offer new insights and culminate in what can only be described as an "Aha!" experience.

Check your Progress

1. Define the term Model.

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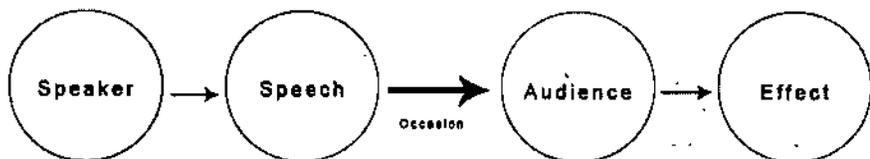
2.3. Aristotle's Model

Aristotle, a great philosopher initiative the earliest mass communication model called "Aristotle's Model of Communication". He proposed model before 300 B.C who found the importance of audience role in communication chain in his communication model. This model is more focused on public speaking than interpersonal communication.

Aristotle Model of Communication is formed with 5 basic elements

(i) Speaker, (ii) Speech, (iii) Occasion, (iv) Audience and (v) Effect

Aristotle advises speakers to build speech for different audience on different time (occasion) and for different effects.



ARISTOTLE'S MODEL OF COMMUNICATION

Speaker plays an important role in Public speaking. The speaker must prepare his speech and analysis audience needs before he enters into the stage. His words should influence in audience mind and persuade their thoughts towards him.

Example:

Alexander gave brave speech to his soldiers in the war field to defeat Persian Empire.

- ◆ Speaker - Alexander
- ◆ Speech - about his invasion
- ◆ Occasion - War field
- ◆ Audience - Soldiers
- ◆ Effect - To defeat Persia

Aristotle's Model is also known as the earliest linear communication model, this communication model was developed based on Aristotle's ideas expressed in *On Rhetoric*. This model is known linear because it is concerned with persuasion and political speech deliberation. Stone et al evaluated the Aristotle's work on rhetoric as "the most influential during the next 2300 years". This model can be claimed as the core of the other communication theories from the west since many communication scholars have developed their model having their root in the Rhetoric theory.

This communication model includes five elements of the communication process:-

1. The spokesperson or the speaker
2. The speech or the message
3. The audience
4. The occasion
5. The effect

In this model, the feedback is not present because the main goal is only to persuade the audience. The spokesperson or the speaker when speaks something in powerful thoughtfulness aptitude, passes the speech to the audience. The speech that is targeted to the audience brings some alteration in the mind of the receiver (audience) which is known as the effect.

This communication involves direct interaction between the speaker and audience because both receiver and speaker are most to be in the same place in the same occasion. To a certain extent it is influencing to say that, "Western communication models and theories have their origin in Aristotle's Rhetoric" (Kumar 16). Moreover, "the western concept of communication can be traced to and consists of further elaborations of Aristotle's concept of Rhetoric, the art of persuasive speech" (Yadava "Research" 189).

Human beings care about arts, imitate, create, react, review, critique all over again but his views in this is just the art of swaying or perusing without any similar ideas or the feedback. (Christopher shields Aristotle).

Aristotle's conduct of Rhetoric has produced controversy. Scholars, artists, politicians have been looking forth for Aristotle's guidance and inspiration, sometimes with too good outcome and sometimes with nonsensical consequences.

Aristotle's definition of rhetoric. Ehninger, Gronbeck and Monroe: One of the earliest definitions of communication came from the Greek philosopher-teacher Aristotle (384-322 B.C.).

- ◆ "Rhetoric" is "the faculty of observing in any given case the available means of persuasion" (Rhetoric 1335b).
- ◆ Aristotle's speaker-centered model received perhaps its fullest development in the hands of Roman educator Quintilian (ca. 35-95 A.D.), whose *Institutio Oratoria* was filled with advice on the full training of a "good" speaker-statesman.

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Aristotle's model of proof. Kinnevey also sees a model of communication in Aristotle's description of proof:

- ◆ Logos, inheres in the content or the message itself
- ◆ Pathos, inheres in the audience
- ◆ Ethos, inheres in the speaker

Bitzer's Rhetorical Situation. Lloyd Bitzer developed described the "Rhetorical Situation," which, while not a model, identifies some of the classical components of a communication situation.

"Bitzer defines the "rhetorical situation" as "a complex of persons, events, objects, and relations presenting an actual or potential exigence which can be completely or partially removed if discourse, introduced into the situation, can so constrain human decision or action so as to bring about significant modification of the exigence."

Check your Progress

2. Write a note on Aristotle's model of Communication.

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2.4. SMCR Model

Berlo's S-M-C-R, 1960

Background

- ◆ Ehninger, Gronbeck and Monroe: "The simplest and most influential message-centered model of our time came from David Berlo.
- ◆ Essentially an adaptation of the Shannon-Weaver model.

Significant after World War II because

- ◆ The idea of "source" was flexible enough to include oral, written, electronic, or any other kind of "symbolic" generator-of-messages.
- ◆ "Message" was made the central element, stressing the transmission of ideas.
- ◆ The model recognized that receivers were important to communication, for they were the targets.
- ◆ The notions of "encoding" and "decoding" emphasized the problems we all have (psycho-linguistically) in translating our own thoughts into words or other symbols and in deciphering the words or symbols of others into terms we ourselves can understand.

Weaknesses:

- ◆ Tends to stress the manipulation of the message-the encoding and decoding processes
- ◆ It implies that human communication is like machine communication, like signal-sending in telephone, television, computer, and radar systems.
- ◆ It even seems to stress that most problems in human communication can be solved by technical accuracy-by choosing the "right" symbols, preventing interference, and sending efficient messages.
- ◆ But even with the "right" symbols, people misunderstand each other. "Problems in "meaning" or "meaningfulness" often aren't a matter of comprehension, but of reaction, of agreement, of shared concepts, beliefs, attitudes, values. To put the com- back into communication, we need a meaning-centered theory of communication."

Explanation

Communication models have been used throughout history as a means of analyzing the components of effective communication, as well as exploring methods for improving communication on many levels. In his 1960 work titled *The Process of Communication*, David Berlo quoted Aristotle, saying that "...the prime goal of communication was persuasion, an attempt to sway other men to the speaker's point of view" (Berlo, 1960, p. 8). Berlo's work focuses on the purpose and goals of communication before addressing his communication model. He states that the purpose of communication is four-fold. It is:

1. Not logically contradictory or inconsistent with itself;
2. Behavior-centered; that is, expressed in terms of human behaviors;
3. Specific enough for us to be able to relate it to actual communication behavior;
4. Consistent with the ways in which people do communicate.

Once the purpose of communication is defined, it is necessary to understand the concept of levels of interdependence. Berlo writes, "In any communication situation, the source and the receiver are interdependent" (Berlo, p. 106-120). There are four levels of interdependence, from the most basic to the most sophisticated and effective. He is careful to note that all levels of interdependence are used in communication to some degree. The levels are:

1. **Definitional- physical interdependence**, which is the act of the source and receiver talking "at" each other, not listening or reacting to each other's message. The only function served by either is having a physical presence with which to communicate.
2. **Action-reaction interdependence**, in which the source has a purpose, encodes a message or request, the receiver decodes the message, performs the interpreted task, and the source provides feedback.
3. **Interdependence of expectations (empathy)**, is explained as communication relying on the source anticipating the receiver response, followed by adjusting the message and channel so that the message will be decoded accurately and reach the receiver as the source intends.
4. **Interaction** is the goal of interdependence, where the source and receiver cannot be independent and provide successful communication.

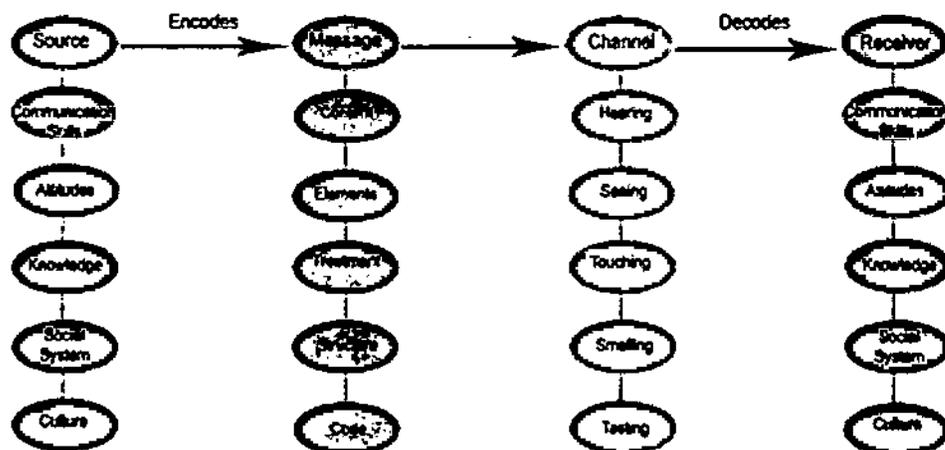
Berlo's theory is not unique in using compartmentalizing communication as a way to understand and facilitate communication. According to Berlo (1960), Aristotle asserted that there are three ingredients to communication: the person who speaks; the speech that he produces; and the person who listens.

Continuing in the tradition of analyzing the components and process of communication, Claude Shannon and Warren Weaver developed a linear model of communication known as the Shannon-Weaver Mathematical Model. According to Kaminski, the goal of Shannon and Weaver was to "formulate a theory to guide the efforts of engineers in finding the most efficient way of transmitting electrical signals from one location to another" (Kaminski, 2004). The Shannon-Weaver model is comprised of five elements: source, transmitter, signal, receiver, and destination. While this model is effective, it is criticized for oversimplifying the communication process. Berlo, recognizing the potential effectiveness of this system, made alterations to create a communication model that was more cyclical than the technological, linear Shannon-Weaver Model. As a result, Berlo's model, also known as the SMCR model, includes non-verbal as well as verbal communication.

The acronym SMCR is comprised of the Communication Source-encoder, the Message, the Channel, and the Communication Receiver-decoder. Berlo's model has depth in that it acknowledges the multiple ingredients to each element of communication.

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According to Berlo, the source "encodes message intended to produce desired response from receiver". The source-encoder is influenced by four factors: the source's communication skills, attitudes, knowledge level, and position within the social-cultural system. The message is encoded by the source and reflects these influences. The message itself is "the actual physical product of the source-encoder", and relies on three factors: the message code, content, and treatment. The channel is "how the message will be transmitted", meaning the determination of which senses will be utilized so that the receiver has the greatest opportunity to accurately interpret the message. It is crucial to note that the communication-receiver is influenced by the same factors as the source-encoder. Without accounting for the four critical factors of communications skills, attitudes, knowledge level, and social-cultural system position of the receiver, the sender is less likely to be able to communicate a message in an effective manner. When the message is decoded as the source intended the receiver is able to provide an effective response, thus exchanging roles with the original source-encoder.

An interpretation of the SMCR model, along with possible applications, is provided by Mielke, who has created a table incorporating SMCR with a list of possible options. The author provides five "tests," which exist to "make sure the proper route is being used in the SMCR model" (Mielke, 1999). These tests serve the purpose of predicting whether a message should be conveyed successfully, and provide a structure with which the SMCR model can be used.

Check your Progress

3. What is the acronym SCMR stands for?

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2.5. Las Well Model

Lass Well's model of communication (also known as Lass well's communication model) is regarded by many communication and public relations scholars as "one of the earliest and most influential communication models." The model was developed by American political scientist and communication theorist Harold Lasswell in 1948 while he was a professor at Yale Law School. In his 1948 article, *The Structure and Function of Communication in Society*, Lasswell wrote that "a convenient way to describe an act of communication is to answer the following questions:

- ◆ Who
- ◆ Says What

- ◆ In Which Channel
- ◆ To Whom

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Concept and Usage

This verbal communication model has been referred to as "a linear and Uni-directional process," "a one-way process," an "action model," a media theory "classic," "widely used segmentation of the communication process," and "a simple, linear, and potentially hypodermic conceptualization of communication."

The model organizes the "scientific study of the process of communication." The focus of the model is broken down by each element of communication: "'who' refers to the communicator who formulates the message; 'what' is the content of message; 'channel' indicates the medium of transmission; 'whom' describes either an individual recipient or the audience of mass communication; 'effect' is the outcome of the message..." The movement of the message travels from the communicator to the audience. Although this model represents a one-way flow of communication, the 'effect' also refers to feedback in public relations. The model can be used in pedagogical settings to teach students major elements of a communication process and as a starting point for developing hypotheses.

Lasswell stated, the "Who" referred to "control analysis," the "Says What" referred to "content analysis," the "In Which Channel" referred to "media analysis," the "To Whom" referred to "audience analysis," and the "With What Effect" referred to "effect analysis."

| Question | Element | Analysis |
|-------------------|--------------|-------------------|
| Who? | Communicator | Control Analysis |
| Says What? | Message | Content Analysis |
| In Which Channel? | Medium | Media Analysis |
| To Whom? | Audience | Audience Analysis |
| With What Effect? | Effect | Effects Analysis |

Lasswell was especially concerned with mass communication and propaganda, so his model is orientated to the researches we need to develop in order to answer his questions:

- ◆ Who - Control analysis
- ◆ Says what - Content analysis
- ◆ In which channel - Media analysis
- ◆ To whom - Audience analysis
- ◆ With what effect - Effect analysis

Who: the sender.

This component of communication has to be studied through the "Control Analysis". This requires the researcher to investigate things such as which company owes certain TV channel or newspaper, the ideology of the different media it owes, etc.

What: the message.

Lasswell's main preoccupation was the mass communication, so he was especially concerned with the messages present in the media. The "Content analysis" is usually related to representations of concrete persons and situations in the media, this is, with stereotypes. For example: how are women represented in television? If one common representation of women is the housewife that cleans the house and takes care of the children, we would have to compare the percentage of that kind of women in TV to the real or objective percentage by resorting to official statistics.

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Channel: the media.

In simple terms, we can state that messages can be sent in channels corresponding to our five senses. Each sense, and therefore each channel, suits better in different cases. The "Media analysis" is aimed to study the choice of one medium among all the possibilities, which will depend on lots of factors such as the content of the message, the purpose of the message, the target public, etc.

Whom: the receiver.

The question of the audience is of vital importance in order to be successful in a concrete communicational situation. By the "Audience analysis" we will try to know every important thing about the target public of one message, from gender and age to social status and tastes.

Effect: the consequences.

Lasswell was especially concerned by the consequences of mass communication on the population, so one of his major contributions was the concept of "effect". Through the "Effect analysis" we will try to know how certain message has affected its receivers.

Although Lasswell's model was aimed to study mass communication, it is positively known for being suitable to different situations, including interpersonal communication.

Check your Progress

4. Write a note on Lass well's model of communication.

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2.6. Shannon & Weaver Model

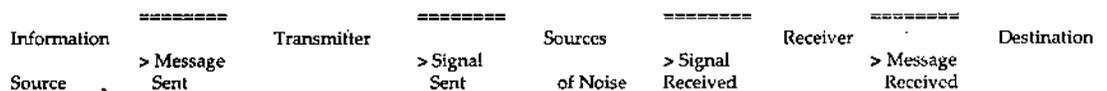
Claude Shannon was a research scientist at Bell Telephone Company trying to achieve maximum telephone line capacity with minimum distortion. He had never intended for his mathematical theory of signal transmission for anything but telephones. But when Warren Weaver applied Shannon's concept of information loss to interpersonal communication, one of the most popular models of communication was created.

According to Shannon and Weaver's model, a message begins at an information source, which is relayed through a transmitter, and then sent via a signal towards the receiver. But before it reaches the receiver, the message must go through noise (sources of interference). Finally, the receiver must convey the message to its destination.

Suppose we have an idea in our head (information source) that we want to tell someone about. We must first move the idea from our brain to our mouth (transmitter). Since we cannot actually share our gray matter, we must select words for our transmitter to use. Once we speak, our voice (signal) is carried through the air toward the listener's ear (receiver). Along the way, our signal is joined by a myriad of other sounds and distractions (noises). The receiver then takes everything it receives and tries to maximize the message and minimizes the noise. Finally, the receiver conveys its message to the other person's mind (destination).

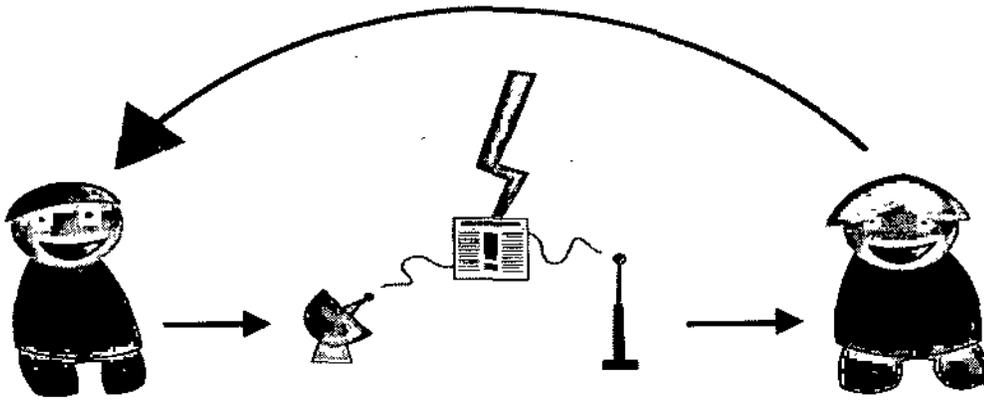
Shannon and Weaver's model clearly demonstrates why even the simplest communications can be misunderstood. Transmitting a signal across additional media only adds to the complexity of the communication and increases the chance for distortion. It is suddenly easier to understand why other people just can't grasp what we already know.

Shannon and Weaver's Model of Communication



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The original model was designed to mirror the functioning of radio and telephone technologies. Their initial model consisted of three primary parts: sender, channel, and receiver. The sender was the part of a telephone a person spoke into, the channel was the telephone itself, and the receiver was the part of the phone where one could hear the other person. Shannon and Weaver also recognized that often there is static that interferes with one listening to a telephone conversation, which they deemed noise. The noise could also mean the absence of signal.



In a simple model, often referred to as the transmission model or standard view of communication, information or content (e.g. a message in natural language) is sent in some form (as spoken language) from an emitter/ sender/ encoder to a destination/ receiver/ decoder. This common conception of communication views communication as a means of sending and receiving information. The strengths of this model are simplicity, generality, and quantifiability. Social scientists Claude Shannon and Warren Weaver structured this model based on the following elements:

1. An information source, which produces a message.
2. A transmitter, which encodes the message into signals
3. A channel, to which signals are adapted for transmission
4. A receiver, which 'decodes' (reconstructs) the message from the signal.
5. A destination, where the message arrives.

Shannon and Weaver argued that there were three levels of problems for communication within this theory.

- ◆ The technical problem: how accurately can the message be transmitted?
- ◆ The semantic problem: how precisely is the meaning 'conveyed'?
- ◆ The effectiveness problem: how effectively does the received meaning affect behavior?

Daniel Chandler critiques the transmission model by stating:

- ◆ It assumes communicators are isolated individuals.
- ◆ No allowance for differing purposes.
- ◆ No allowance for differing interpretations.
- ◆ No allowance for unequal power relations.
- ◆ No allowance for situational contexts.

To understand how the Shannon-Weaver Model pertains to communication, it is necessary to define each individual element.

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Source

The source of communication is the initiator, or origin, that puts the model into action. It is an individual or group that has a specific reason to begin the communication process. That is, there is a message that they wish another to receive.

Encoder

Once the purpose of the source has been decided, there must be a specified format for the message to take. This is what the communication encoder does; it takes the concept that the source wants sent out, and puts it into a suitable format for later interpretation.

Message

The information, idea, or concept that is being communicated from one end of the model to the other is the message. Most of the time, in human communication, the message contains a distinct meaning. When the model was created, Shannon and Weaver were not concerned whether the message had substance, but rather that it was being transmitted.

Channel

It is essential for meaningful communication that a suitable means to transmit the message be selected. The channel is the route that the message travels on, be it verbal, written, electronic, or otherwise.

Noise

It is inevitable that noise may come into play during the communication process. Noise could be considered an interference or distortion that changes the initial message; anything that can misconstrue the message may be noise. Noise can be physical, as in an actual sound that muffles the message as it is being said, or it can be semantic, like if the vocabulary used within the message is beyond the knowledge spectrum of its recipient. In order for communication to be effective, noise must be reduced.

Decoder

Before the message reaches the intended recipient, it must be decoded, or interpreted, from its original form into one that the receiver understands. This is essentially the same interaction as that of source and encoder, only in a reversed sequence.

Receiver

In order for communication to be executed, there must be a second party at the end of the channel the source has used. The receiver takes in the message that the source has sent out.

Feedback

For meaningful communication to come to fruition, it is vital that the receiver provides feedback to the source. Feedback relates to the source whether their message has been received, and most importantly, if it has been interpreted accurately. Without feedback, the source would never know if the communication was successful. Ongoing communication is made possible by the cyclical route feedback allows; if more communication between the two parties is necessary, they can follow the model indefinitely.

Check your Progress

- 5. Write a note on Shannon and Weaver.

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2.7. Osgood & Schramm Model

Wilbur L. Schramm was a forefather in the development of a basic model of communication. His model is a derivation of the Shannon-Weaver transmission model of communication. The Shannon-Weaver model proposed six elements of communication:

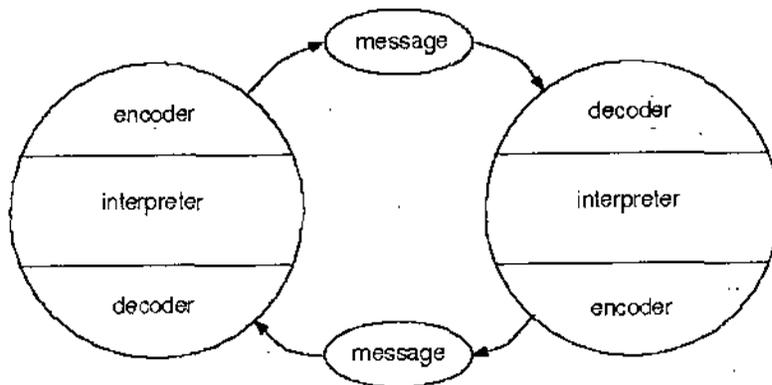
- ◆ source
- ◆ encoder
- ◆ message
- ◆ channel
- ◆ decoder
- ◆ receiver

Wilbur Schramm's 1954 model expands on this thinking by emphasizing the process of encoding and decoding the message. Schramm envisioned this process as a two-way circular communication between the sender and receiver. Where the Shannon-Weaver model is a more mathematical and technological one, Schramm incorporates the study of human behavior in the communication process.

In addition to the six elements above, Schramm has included these concepts:

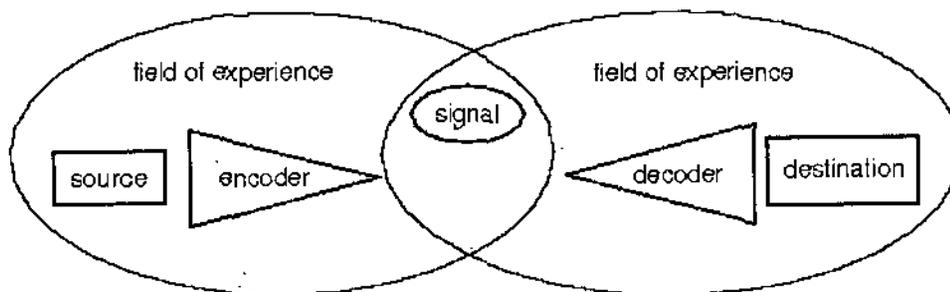
- ◆ Feedback - information that comes back from the receiver to the sender and tells him how well he is doing.

Diagram of Schramm's feedback loop



- ◆ Field of Experience - an individual's beliefs, values, experiences and learned meanings both as an individual or part of a group.

Diagram of Schramm's field of experience



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Dr. Schramm suggests that the message can be complicated by different meanings learned by different people. Meanings can be denotative or connotative. Denotative meanings are common or dictionary meanings and can be roughly the same for most people. Connotative meanings are emotional or evaluative and based on personal experience. A message can also have surface and latent meanings. Other characteristics of messages that impact communication between two individuals are: intonations and pitch patterns, accents, facial expressions, quality of voice, and gestures. The successful transmission of a message depends on whether this message will be accepted over all the competing messages.

Schramm's model of communication also allows for the process of interpreting the message. This process is influenced by the presence of both physical (phone, tv, sirens, etc.) and semantic (distractions, age, attitudes, etc.) noise.

Dr. Schramm believed that all of these elements were important functions of communication in society. He felt that people in a society need information on their environment and methods of communicating in order to make decisions. Most importantly we need "places to store the accumulated knowledge and wisdom of a society and this are why we have libraries".

Background

Wilbur Schramm (1954) was one of the first to alter the mathematical model of Shannon and Weaver. He conceived of decoding and encoding as activities maintained simultaneously by sender and receiver; he also made provisions for a two-way interchange of messages. Notice also the inclusion of an "interpreter" as an abstract representation of the problem of meaning.

Strengths

Schramm provided the additional notion of a "field of experience," or the psychological frame of reference; this refers to the type of orientation or attitudes which interactants maintain toward each other.

Included Feedback

Communication is reciprocal, two-way, even though the feedback may be delayed.

Some of these methods of communication are very direct, as when we talk in direct response to someone.

- ◆ Others are only moderately direct; we might squirm when a speaker drones on and on, wrinkle our nose and scratch our head when a message is too abstract, or shift our body position when our think it's our turn to talk.
- ◆ Still other kinds of feedback are completely indirect.

For example

- ◆ Politicians discover if they're getting their message across by the number of votes cast on the first Tuesday in November;
- ◆ Commercial sponsors examine sales figures to gauge their communicative effectiveness in ads;
- ◆ Teachers measure their abilities to get the material across in a particular course by seeing how many students sign up for it the next term.

Included Context

- ◆ A message may have different meanings, depending upon the specific context or setting.
- ◆ Shouting "Fire!" on a rifle range produces one set of reactions-reactions quite different from those produced in a crowded theater.

Included Culture

- ◆ A message may have different meanings associated with it depending upon the culture or society. Communication systems, thus, operate within the confines of cultural rules and expectations to which we all have been educated.

- ◆ Other model designers abstracted the dualistic aspects of communication as a series of "loops," (Mysak, 1970), "speech cycles" (Johnson, 1953), "co-orientation" (Newcomb, 1953), and overlapping "psychological fields" (Fearing, 1953).

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Weaknesses

Schramm's model, while less linear, still accounts for only bilateral communication between two parties, the complex, multiple levels of communication between several sources is beyond this model.

Communication is usually described along a few major dimensions: Message (what type of things are communicated), source / emisor / sender / encoder (by whom), form (in which form), channel (through which medium), destination / receiver / target / decoder (to whom), and Receiver. Wilbur Schramm (1954) also indicated that we should also examine the impact that a message has (both desired and undesired) on the target of the message.^[5] Between parties, communication includes acts that confer knowledge and experiences, give advice and commands, and ask questions. These acts may take many forms, in one of the various manners of communication. The form depends on the abilities of the group communicating. *Together, communication content and form make messages that are sent towards a destination. The target can be oneself, another person or being, another entity (such as a corporation or group of beings).*

Communication can be seen as processes of information transmission governed by three levels of semiotic rules:

1. Syntactic (formal properties of signs and symbols),
2. Pragmatic (concerned with the relations between signs/expressions and their users) and
3. Semantic (study of relationships between signs and symbols and what they represent).

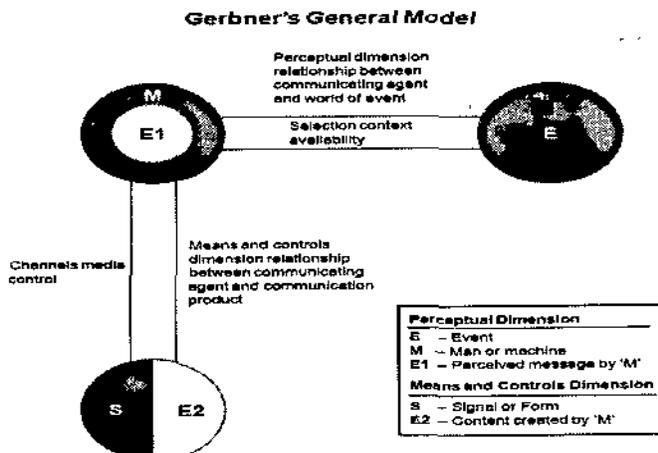
Therefore, communication is social interaction where at least two interacting agents share a common set of signs and a common set of semiotic rules. This commonly held rule in some sense ignore auto communication, including intrapersonal communication via diaries or self-talk, both secondary phenomena that followed the primary acquisition of communicative competences within social interactions.

2.8. Gerbner Model

Mr. George Gerbner is one of the pioneers in the field of communication research. His works are descriptive as well as very easy to understand any other before. He is working as a professor and head of the Annenberg School of Communications in the University of Pennsylvania. In 1956, Gerbner attempted the general purpose of communication models. He stressed the dynamic nature of communication in his work and also the factor which affecting the reliability of communication.

Gerbner's General Model emphasizes the dynamic nature of human communication. It also gives prominence to the factors which may affect fidelity.

The model shown diagrammatically is to be read from left to right, beginning at E - Event.



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- ◆ The event (E) is perceived by M (the man (sic) or machine).
- ◆ The process of perception is not simply a matter of 'taking a picture' of event E. It is a process of active interpretation.
- ◆ The way that the E is perceived will be determined by a variety of factors, such as the assumptions, attitudes, point of view, and experience of M.
- ◆ E can be a person talking, sending a letter, telephoning, or otherwise communicating with M. In other words, E could be what we conventionally call the Source or Transmitter.
- ◆ Equally, E can be an event - a car crash, rain, waves crashing on a beach, a natural disaster etc. In this case, we could be applying the model to mass media communication, say the reporting of news.

(i) Perceptual Dimension:

An 'E' is an event happens in the real life and the event content or message is perceived by 'M' (Man or a Machine). After Perceives the message from "E" by "M" is known as "E1". E1 is not same as like 'E'. Because any man or machine can't perceives the whole event and they perceives only the part of the event (E1). This is known as "Perceptual Dimension".

These 3 factors are involves between 'E' and 'M'

- ◆ Selection
- ◆ Context
- ◆ Availability

M (man or machine) cannot perceive the entire content of the event "E". So M selects the interesting or needed content from the entire event and filtering the others. The context occurs in the event and Availability is based on 'M's attitude, mood, culture and personality. (For eg. How a journalist perceives the messages from the event and also can't focus the whole event so they filter the unwanted or unrelated content from the event. This filtered content is not same as like the actual event content because the journalist edits the content based on his attitude, mood and cultural background or press policies).

(ii) Means and Controls dimension:

E2 is the event content which is drawn or artified by M. Here M becomes the source of a message about E to send someone else. M creates a statement or signals about the message and Gerbner termed its Form and content as "SE2". S (Signal or Form) it takes and E2 (Man's content). Here Content (E2) is structured or formed (S) by 'M' and it can communicate in a different ways or based on the structured ways.

M has to use channels (or media) over to send the message which he has a greater or lesser degree of control. The question of 'control' relates to M's degree of skill in using communication channels. If using a verbal channel, how good is he using words? If using the Internet, how good is he at using new technology and words?

This process can be extended to infinitum by adding on other receivers (M2, M3etc.) who have further perceptions (SE3, SE4 etc.) of the statements about perceived events.

The model is a useful starting-point for the analysis of wide variety of communication acts. Note that the model, besides drawing our attention to those factors within E which will determine perception or interpretation of E, also draws our attention to three important factors:

- ◆ Selection: M, the perceiver of the event E (or receiver of the message, if you prefer) selects from the event, paying more attention to this aspect and less to that. This process of selecting, filtering is commonly known as gatekeeping, particularly in discussion of the media's selection and discarding of events or aspects of them.
- ◆ Context: a factor often omitted from communication models, but a vitally important factor. The sound represented by the spelling 'hair' means an animal in one context, something that's not

supposed to be in your soup in another. Shouting, ranting and raving means this man's very angry in one context, raving loony in another.

- ◆ Availability: how many Es are there around? What difference does availability make? If there are fewer Es around, we are likely to pay more attention to the ones there are. They are likely to be perceived by us as more 'meaningful'. What sort of Es are there - for example, in the UK's mainly Conservative press, how many non-Conservative messages are available to us?

Gerbner: E1 and M

E1 is the event-as-perceived (E) by the man (sic) or machine M. In terms of human communication, a person perceives an event. The perception (E1) they have of that event is more or less close to the 'real' event. The degree of correspondence between M's perception of event E (E1) will be a function of M's assumptions, point of view, experiences, social factors etc.

Gerbner: Means and Controls

In the next stage of the model, M becomes the Source of a message about E to someone else. M produces a statement about the event (SE). To send that message, M has to use channels (or media) over which he has a greater or lesser degree of control. The question of 'control' relates to M's degree of skill in using communication channels. If using a verbal channel, how good is he at using words? If using the Internet, how good is he at using new technology and words? And so on? 'Control' may also be a matter of access - does he own this medium? can he get to use this medium? Think of teachers in classrooms controlling the access to communication channels, parents at home, owners of newspapers, editors of letters pages etc.

Gerbner: SE

SE (statement about event) is what we would more normally call the 'message'. S stands for Signal in fact, so in principle an S can be present without an E, but in that case it would be noise only. The process can be extended ad infinitum by adding on other receivers (M2, M3etc.) who have further perceptions (SE1, SE2 etc.) of the statements about perceived events.

2.9. Gatekeeping Model

Kurt Lewin coins the word called "Gate keeping". It's nothing but to block unwanted or useless things by using a gate. Here the person who makes a decision is called "Gatekeeper". At first it is widely used in the field of psychology and later it occupies the field of communication. Now it's one of the essential theories in communication studies.

Concept:

The Gatekeeper decides what information should move to group or individual and what information should not. Here, the gatekeeper are the decision makers who letting the whole social system. The gatekeeper is having its own influence like social, cultural, ethical and political. Based on personal or social influences they let the information to the group. Through this process the unwanted, sensible and controversial information's are removed by the gate keeper which helps to control the society or a group and letting them in a right path. In home mother plays the vital role and she has to decide what their kid's needs and what should avoid.

In news medium editor play vital role. He has to decide what kind of news items will publish and what should not. Every day the news channel receives various news items from all over the world. The channel have its own ethics and policies through this the editor decide the news items for publish or aired. In some cases few news items are rejected by the editor due the organizations policy or the news items which are not suitable for publish.

Gatekeeping theory was first instituted by Social Psychologist Kurt Lewin in 1943. Gatekeeping is the process through which information is filtered for distribution, whether for publication, broadcasting,

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2.13. Terminal Questions

1. State the Aristotle's model of communication
2. Discuss SMCR model of communication
3. Explain Lass well model of communication
4. Enumerate Shannon-weaver model of communication
5. State the Osgood & Schramm model of communication
6. Describe Gerbner model of communication
7. Explain the Gatekeeping model of communication

2.14. Further Readings

1. Mass Communication - Keval J.Kumar
2. The News Paper - An international history - Anthony smith
3. Mass communication and journalism - D.S.Mehta in India.
4. Communication Theories: Perspectives, Processes And Contexts - Katherine Miller
5. Introduction to Communication Studies - John Fiske
6. Communication Models - Uma Narula

UNIT - III

THEORIES OF COMMUNICATION

Unit - III : Theories of Communication

STRUCTURE

- 3.0. Learning Objectives
- 3.1. Introduction
- 3.2. Theories of Communication
- 3.3. Impact of Mass Communication
- 3.4. Limitations of Mass Communication
- 3.5. Future Trends in Mass Communication
- 3.6. Summary
- 3.7. Key Words
- 3.8. Answers to Check Your Progress
- 3.9. Terminal Questions
- 3.10. Further Readings

3.0. Learning Objectives

After reading this unit, you will be able to

- ◆ Describe the different theories of communication
- ◆ Examine the impact of mass communication
- ◆ Describe the features of mass communication
- ◆ Discuss the limitations of mass communication
- ◆ State the future trends in mass communication

3.1. Introduction

Theories of mass communication have changed dramatically since the early 1900s, largely as a result of quickly changing technology and more sophisticated academic theories and research methods. A quick overview of the state of the media in the early 1900s and in the early 2000s provides some context for how views of the media changed. In the early 1900s, views of mass communication were formed based on people's observation of the popularity of media and assumptions that something that grew that quickly and was adopted so readily must be good. Many people were optimistic about the mass media's potential to be a business opportunity, an educator, a watchdog, and an entertainer. For example, businesses and advertisers saw media as a good way to make money, and the educator class saw the media as a way to inform citizens who could then be more active in a democratic society. As World War I and the Depression came around, many saw the media as a way to unite the country in times of hardship. Early scholarship on mass media focused on proving these views through observational and anecdotal evidence rather than scientific inquiry.

3.2. Theories of Communication

According to the modern dictionary of sociology, a theory is a set of interrelated principles and definitions that serves conceptually to organize selected aspects of the empirical world in a systematic way. The theories profounder in the field of communication also enable the readers to gain knowledge about selected aspects of the empirical world. In the field of communication the term theory refers to different kinds of thought structures. Bormann contends that the communication experts often use the term theory in an indiscriminate way sometimes in its scientific sense and sometimes in its artistic sense. Communi-

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communication theory refers to the accumulated body of writings by experts studying from social scientific perspectives. Communication theorists, according to him, borrowed explanatory accounts from social psychology and adopted them to the communication contexts. Communication theory also enables one to evaluate the communication, whether it is good or bad, effective or ineffective, ethical or unethical.

Authoritarian Theory

The origin of the authoritarian theory can be traced to the very beginning of printing. It was believed once that only those who were in power were the protectors or guardians of truth. The rulers had exercised strict control over the press. Even in the matter of issuing license, the Government exercised great caution: Censorship was implemented if the government thought that the information should be withheld from the masses. Although the press was not necessarily owned by the government. It was looked upon as an advocate of the state. According to Mary B Casata and Molefik Asance, many nations today will not admit that their countries are governed by authoritarian principles: though they publicly supported libertarian concepts, behind the certain authoritarian practices were carried out.

The Authoritarian theory was developed by Siebert Peterson and Schuman during the 16th century. The freedom of thoughts was ruled by the ruling class. The ruling class did not want their thoughts and ideas to be printed on to the media and so, they adopted few rules to the press. If anyone tries to disobey the rules, the government would punish them severely. The theory follows few rules such as 1. The government should take control over the mass media, 2. The media should not broadcast or print any issues related to the authority, 3. Media should avoid complete offence over political values.

This theory is not only integrated to society or government, but is also included in history and geography. Even the places that abandoned the progress of this theory continue to follow it. The press is controlled in its function and organization by an organized society through another organization called the government. The introduction of this theory brought many changes in the society and man. Some of the basic assumptions are 1. nature of the man, 2. The nature of society, 3. The relation of man to the state and 4. The nature of knowledge and truth. Under this assumption, as an individual, man's rights were restricted, but as a member of the society, he had full rights to fulfill his purpose. Later, the state took over and favored in the development of an individual. The nature of state became an important factor for the assumption.

Machiavelli, a politician gave no importance to the state; his aim of attaining political power was more concerned. He never gave importance to the public welfare and individual rights; all he did was to take it for granted to fulfill his purpose. His concern about the government was less.

Thomas Hobbes, a well known English philosopher, formed a system of philosophy under two bases, freedom from pain and will to power. His aim was to check the individual's interest in all categories and to ensure power, and peace in sovereign. Nature of the state and man's relation to the state was his theories. His theory created changes over the seventeenth century authoritarian policies.

Many philosophers have contributed to this theory of individual's freedom and rights over their relation to the state. The philosophies have changed many principles of other theories and considered that every individual has a power over his state. Today, this theory is continued to practice all over the world in different forms. The expression of one's ideas is controlled over any group of the society. In some countries, this theory is followed either by threatening by means of financial act or by "Official Secret Act" or "National Secret Act".

Authoritarian theory describe that all forms of communications are under the control of the governing elite or authorities or influential bureaucrats. Authoritarians are necessary to control the media to protect and prevent the people from the national threats through any form communication (information or news). The press is an instrument to enhance the ruler's power in the country rather than any threats. The authorities have all rights to permit any media and control it by providing license to the media and make certain censorship.

If any media violate the government policies against license, then the authority has all right to cancel the license and revoke it. The government has all right to restrict any sensitive issues from press to maintain peace and security in the nation.

Censorship:

Censorship is a suppression of any communication which may consider as harmful to the people, King, government and its nation. Especially these censorship methods are much familiar in press which against the freedom of speech and freedom of expression. In some other cases, the censorship helps to protect the rulers and authorities from sensitive issues.

There are different types of censors :

- ◆ Political censor
- ◆ Moral censor
- ◆ Religious censor
- ◆ Military censor
- ◆ Corporate censor

Libertarian Theory

The exponents of this theory include John Milton, J.S. Mill, Thomas Paine, John Erskine, and Thomas Jefferson. They believed in freedom of expression, rationalism, and natural rights. The protagonists of the libertarian theory wanted the press to inform, sell, entertain, uphold the truth, and keep check on the government. The press is privately owned in countries giving importance to libertarianism. In united states, Great Britain, and in many Western European nations the libertarian philosophy is practiced.

In rebelling against authoritarian theory early libertarians argued that there should be no laws governing media operations. Free press means that all forms of media must be totally unregulated. Early Libertarian argued that if individuals could be freed from arbitrary limits on communication imposed by church and state, they would "naturally" follow the dictates of their conscience, seek truth, engage in public debate, and ultimately create a better life for themselves and others. They believed strongly in the power of unrestricted public debate and discussion to create more natural way of structuring society. In *Aeropagetica*, a powerful libertarian published in 1644 by John Milton asserted that:

"In a fair debate good and truthful arguments will always win out over lies and deceit. If this is true it followed, then a new and better social order could be forged using public debate."

This idea came to be referred to as MILTON'S SELF-RIGHTING PRINCIPLE, and is still cited by contemporary media professionals. However, the author of Declaration of Independence, Thomas Jefferson believed in the Self-righting principle so strongly that he once said:

"Were it left to me to decide whether we should have a government without newspapers or newspapers without government, I should not hesitate to prefer the latter."

The writing of Milton was developed in the North American colonies the support was found in writings of John Stuart Mill who argued in *ON LIBERTY*, that "The peculiar evil of silencing the expression of an opinion is, that it is robbing the human race, posterity as well as the existing generation, those who dissent from the opinion, even more than who hold it. If the opinion is right, they are deprived of the opportunity of exchanging error for truth; if wrong, they lose what is almost as great a benefit, the clearer perception and livelier impression of truth produced by its collision with error."

These libertarian ideals are also seen as the heart of the United States long-term experiment with democratic self-government. The American Revolution against Britain was legitimized by libertarian ideals. Patrick Henry's famous comment

"Give me liberty or Give me Death." These libertarian principles were also adopted in the "Bill of Rights". It asserted that all individuals have natural rights no government, community, or group can unduly infringe upon or take away. The ability to exercise dissent, to band together with others to resist laws that people find to be wrong, to print or broadcast ideas, opinions and beliefs- all of these rights are proclaimed as central to democratic self government.

Unfortunately, most early libertarians had a unrealistic view of how long it would take to find the "Truth" and establish an ideal social order. In the 18th century it became clear that "truth" couldn't be

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quickly or easily established, some libertarians became discouraged. They drifted between libertarian and authoritarian views. But despite the priority given to communication freedom, one sees number of restrictions on communication, accepted by media practitioners and media consumers. Examples, Libel laws to check the publication of information that will damage reputations. Laws against offensive language, pornography, information that would interfere with a defendant's right to a fair trial.

Whenever new media technologies are invented, it is necessary to decide how they should be regulated. The debate over communication freedom never ends, sometimes the balance shifts toward expanding freedom and other times, freedom is curtailed.

The question is why it is necessary to place limits on communication freedom. The common reason could be, where do the rights guaranteed to you by the constitution end and those of another begins? What happens when groups attempt to stir up hatred and resentment against racial or ethnic minorities? Should media practitioners be allowed to invade our homes, publish erroneous information about us, or deceive us with false advertising? Do media professionals have the right to produce and distribute anything that will earn profits, or should some limits be placed on them? If so, who should place and enforce those limits? If laws are written to protect individuals from irresponsible media, can these laws become a means of censoring the media?

These feelings were particularly developed in the United States in the 1800s, during the penny press and yellow journalism eras. Public confidence in both business and government was shaken by recurring depressions, widespread corruption and injustice. Public respect for newspapers also receded as publishers pursued profits and created news to sell papers. Social movement sprang up to call for new laws and greater government regulation, a group who believed in direct regulation of media, most often by a government agency or commission. These include advocates of TECHNORATIC CONTROL, people like Harold Lasswell and Walter Lippmann.

They argued that media practitioners can't be trusted to communicate responsibly or to use media to serve vital public needs. Some sought of oversight or control is necessary to ensure that important needs are satisfied. The views of these advocates were considered most seriously during times of crisis when we need media to serve specific need Anti-trust legislation was enacted. Libertarians feared that these laws and regulations would go too far, they sought to rekindle public support for liberation ideals. So they developed an idea of self regulating marketplace of ideas and hence, formed a new form of radical libertarianism.

Self-regulating marketplace of ideas

In libertarianism, the notion that ideas should be put before the public, and from that "marketplace" the public will choose the best. This idea is a variation of a fundamental principle of capitalism- the notion of self-regulating market. In classical capitalist theory as formulated by Adam Smith, there is little need for the government to regulate markets. An open and competitive marketplace should regulate itself. If a product is in high demand, prices will "naturally" rise as consumers compete to buy it. This encourages other manufacturers to produce the product. Once demand is met by increased manufacturing, the price falls. If one manufacturer charges too much for a product, then competitors will cut their prices to attract buyers. No government interference is necessary to protect consumers or to force manufacturers to meet consumer needs. Another term used to refer to these ideas is the Laissez-faire doctrine.

Laissez-faire doctrine

The idea that government shall allow business to operate freely and without official intrusion. The same idea of 'free marketplace of ideas' when applied to mass media it meant that if ideas are 'traded' freely among people, the correct or best ideas will prevail. The ideas compete and the best will be 'bought'. So in the media system the marketplace of ideas meant that if someone comes up with a good idea and then transmits it through some form of mass communication. And people like the message. Then people buy the message, pay for its production and distribution costs. Once these costs are covered, the message producer earns a profit. If people are wise message consumers, then the producers of the best and most useful messages will become rich and develop large media enterprises while the producers of bad messages will fail. If good ideas succeed these ideas should become more easily available at lower cost.

Similarly bad ideas cost should rise and access to them should lessen. And eventually truth should triumph as envisioned by the early libertarians.

Limitations

But there are some difficulties in applying logic. As media content is far less tangible than other consumer products. The meaning of individual messages can vary tremendously from one person to the text. Just what is being traded when news stories or television dramas are bought and sold? When we buy newspapers we don't buy individual stories we also buy other features which we might find offensive but others might not. Advertisers buy time on the TV shows; they do not necessarily buy the rightness or correctness of the program's ideas. Sponsors pay more to advertise on programs with large audiences. If the advertiser support permits bad messages to be distributed for free-maybe people are less discriminating if they don't have to directly pay to receive these messages? So the media market place is a bit more complicated than the marketplace for toothpaste, and shampoos.

Social Responsibility Theory

The social responsibility theory is an extension of the libertarian theory. The press recognizes that it has a responsibility to society. The social responsibility theory ascribes basically six functions to the press (1) providing information, discussion and debate on men and matters (2) Informing and Instructing public to be aware and capable of self government (3) Protecting or guarding the rights of the individual against the government through its watch dog function (4) maintaining the dynamic equilibrium of the system by bringing together the prospective buyer, seller and advertiser in the area of economy. (5) Providing entertainment and (6) remaining independent of outside pressures. According to Casata and Asante the social responsibility theory upholds conflict - resolution through discussion and it has a high regard for public opinion, Consumer action, and professional ethics. This theory has emerged in the United States in the twentieth Century.

This theory keeps certain areas free for the Press but at the same time puts lot of responsibility on media. As discussed in the beginning that the media is not just seen as an enterprise like others in the business sector of any society, but due to its unique nature, society expects a particular role which media must play in getting rid of social evils, educating people, criticizing government policies and exposing other wrong doings in a society. The sense of responsibility has been emphasized more in this theory as compared to any other.

This concept, a product of mid-twentieth century America, is said by its proponents to have its roots in libertarian theory. But it goes beyond the libertarian theory, in that it places more emphasis on the press's responsibility to society than on the press's freedom. It is seen as a higher level, theoretically, than libertarianism—a kind of moral and intellectual evolutionary trip from discredited old, libertarianism to a new or perfected libertarianism where things are forced to work as they really should have worked under libertarian theory.

The explainers and defenders of this theory maintain that they are libertarians, but socially responsible libertarians, contrasted presumably with other libertarians who (if their views and actions do not agree with those of the new libertarians) are not socially responsible.

This fourth theory of the press has been drawn largely from a report published in 1947 by the Hutchins Commission. Emerging from the Commission's publications and solidified in the literature of journalism by *Four Theories of the Press*, this new theory maintains that the importance of the press in modern society makes it absolutely necessary that an obligation of social responsibility be imposed on the media of mass communication.

Media has certain obligations to society:

- ◆ It must show truth, accuracy, objectivity, and balance
- ◆ The media should be free but self-regulated (codes of conduct, and ethics)
- ◆ *The media is pluralistic: diversity of society, various points of view, forum for ideas*
- ◆ The media ownership is a public trust. The journalist is accountable to his audience / readers

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Soviet Communist Theory

Just as the social responsibility theory is an extension of the libertarian theory, the soviet communist theory is an outgrowth of the authoritarian theory. But there is a difference between the authoritarian theory and the Soviet communist theory. In countries where authoritarianism prevails, the press is owned by private parties, i.e., outside the government. According to the Soviet communist theory the press and the state are held to be one i.e., the press and the state are inseparable. The main purpose of the Soviet Communist theory is to ensure the success and continuance of the Soviet socialist system and to promote the objectives of the Soviet Socialist Party, according to Cassatta and Asante. This theory is adopted by Soviet Union and other communist countries. In addition to the Authoritarian theory, the Soviet communist theory is conceptually related to the power of the press, information control, and agenda setting theories.

It promotes communism and strives to achieve goals set by the communist party. Media is owned by the representatives of the communist state. It works best in a closed society where information is tightly controlled by the government.

The communist theory of the press arose, along with the theory of communism itself, in the first quarter of the present century. Karl Marx was its father, drawing heavily on the ideas of his fellow German, George W. F. Hegel. The mass media in a communist society, said Marx, were to function basically to perpetuate and expand the socialist system. Transmission of social policy, not searching for the truth, was to be the main rationale for existence of a communist media system.

Mass media, under this theory, are instruments of government and integral parts of the State. They are owned and operated by the State and directed by the Communist Party or its agencies. Criticism is permitted in the media (i. e. criticism of failure to achieve goals), but criticism of basic ideology is forbidden. Communist theory, like that of authoritarianism, is based on the premise that the masses are too fickle and too ignorant and unconcerned with government to be entrusted with governmental responsibilities.

Thus, the media have no real concern with giving them much information about governmental activities or of its leaders. Mass media are to do what is best for the state and party; and what is best determined by the elite leadership of State and Party. Whatever the media do to contribute to communism and the Socialist State is moral; whatever is done to harm or hinder the growth of communism is immoral.

Power of the Press theory or Bullet Theory

Mass means, a group of people and communication means, a process by which we can share our ideas, Our thoughts, our views and our knowledge so, mass communication means, "A process, by which we can share our ideas, our views, our knowledge and our thoughts in a heterogeneous, anonymous masses of receives.

There are many theories of mass communication by which we can develop our communication skills. Bullet theory is one of them. According to this theory, communication plays a very important role in the process of communication.

Mainly, the communication decides, the size, the form, the necessity and the medium or a message or a information. Receives do not play any role in communication process.

For example:

In an advertising agency, these are three main people.

1. Produces
2. Consumer
3. Marketing Agent

According to this theory the marketing agent, generally, do not advertise according to the necessity of consumer, but they try to generate, the necessity of consumers, with the help of producer.

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In other words, we can say, mass communication tries to move the interest of receiver according to their message. We all are familiar, with the example of 'close up' in which they said, "Kya apke toothpaste me namak hai"

Before this advertisement, we were not thinking that the salt is important for our teeth but after this, we are aware about this that salt is very important so we have to use the close-up.

Bullet means, message direct attracts on receives like a bullet. The Hypothesis of this theory is that receive is inactive, and he accept all the things or all the information which we give to him. He is new and he has no his personal thought limitations of this theory.

According to this theory receivers do not play any important role in communication process, he is inactive but receives is a human being and he has his own ideas, his views, and he gives a special meaning to all the information which he received.

There are certain situations in which the audience is treated as a target to be shot at. The audience has a complete belief in the press, and the press is considered an authority. The Nazis and communists gained control over the people, through gloom, pessimism, and bad news. Therefore this theory, of mass communication has been called the power of the press theory, the bullet theory or the hypodermic needle theory. Similar to a bullet or an injection the ideas or feelings were transferred from are mind to another through the press.

The transportation theory and conveyor belt theory are another appellations of the power of the press of the press theory. It is interesting to note that there is a striking similarity between the power of the press theory and the hypodermic needle model discussed earlier.

Mc Luhan's Theories

Marshall McLuhan's theory has created a great deal of controversy in the early 1960s. He declared that a medium is "hot" or "cool".

There are certain media which do not require any involvement on the part of the participant because they are highly defined. These media are called the hot media. E.g; Radio, photography, and motion picture.

On the country there are some media which require active involvement of the participants, Interpersonal, conversational exchanges, the telephone, and cartoons are low in definition and therefore require much involvement of the participants. These are referred to as the cool media.

Social Categories and Social Relationship Theories

According to these theories it is assumed that people belonging to any of the following group / groups will select roughly identical mass communication content and react to it in a fairly uniform manner. The idea behind these theories is that demographic variables such as age, race, sex, income education, occupation and place of residence singly or in combination, May well determine message saliency for any group. For example advertising message on sun tan oil have a greater appeal for whites than for blacks: a high priced motor car is intended for the higher income brackets than the lower. They social categories theory besides its obvious linkages with the individual difference theory and social relationship theory is closely related to the entire area of information diffusion.

One, Two and Multi-Step Flow Theory

The step flow model

In the hypodermic needle model there is a direct flow of information from the media to the audience. But in the two step flow model, the ideas often flow from radio, print or any other medium to opinion leaders and from them to the less active sections of the population. The first step, from sources to opinion leaders is mainly a transfer of information whereas the second step from opinion leaders to their followers involves besides the spread of information, the spread of influence also. The two step flow model views the masses as interacting individuals. This model further states that there is likely to be a flow of messages from a source (Example: mass media channels) to a receiver who in turn reacts to the

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message and / or passes it on to those individuals with whom he interacts. The opinion leaders are found in all the strata of the society and accordingly they cater to the respective masses that turn to them for message. The opinion leaders while passing on the message seem to influence the listeners with their views on men and matters.

The major criticism that can be leveled against this model is that the opinion leaders do not emerge on all occasions and even if they emerge cannot influence the decision of others simply because they turn to them for news.

One step flow model

The one step flow model illustrates that the mass media channels communicate directly to the audience without message passing through the intermediaries namely the opinion leaders. This crux of this model is that the message does not equally reach all receivers and it does not have the same effect on each. But the one step flow model recognizes: 1) the media are not all powerful 2) the screening aspects of selective exposure, perception and retention affect message impact and 3) differing effects occur for various members of the receiving audience. It is contended that this model most accurately describes the flow of message to mass audience when the saliency of the message is extremely high or perhaps very low.

This model seems to be very sound as it brings to light an important point that the message of the media does not have the same effect on all the receiving audience.

The differential exposure and impact are due to the blat and diversity among the audience. The diversity is seen in terms of the audiences' age, sex, income, education, occupation, religion, race etc; another reasonable argument that this model puts forth is the audience's selective exposure, perception and retention. More over this Model States that the media are not all powerful an opposite view held by the hypodermic needle model.

Two Step flow Model

The mass media play an important role in the formation of public opinion on various issues. However, the messages conveyed by the media are invariably mediated by the opinion leaders of groups. As Katz and Lazarsfeld put it, 'ideas seem to flow from radio and print to opinion leaders and from them to the less active sections of the population'. Village level workers or the Panchayat leaders are, for instance, opinion leaders in rural areas, and heads of committees and associations, the opinion leaders in the urban areas. It is they who interpret the messages of the media for their groups. But opinion leaders are usually leaders in one content area, and not in another. For example, in the matter of adopting new agricultural techniques the village level worker (VLW) may be the leader, while in political affairs. The Panchayat head may be the opinion leader. It needs to be noted, however, that the 'two-step flow' of information does not ensure that the required information reaches the people most in need. Opinion leaders are very selective in the kind of information they pass down to peasants and workers. Indeed, mass media use is a group activity involving family, friends and the local community - not an isolated, individual activity.

Multi Step flow Model

The multi step flow model incorporates all the other models previously discussed. This Model is based on a sequential relaying function that occurs in many communication situations. Multi step flow model does not stipulate any particular number of steps; it also does not specify that the message must emanate from a source by mass media channels from sources, the others may be removed from the origin of message. The exact number of steps in this process depends on the intent of the source, the availability of mass media and the salience of message to the receiving audience." It is said that this model allows the researcher to account for different variables in different communication situations. This particular model is the least specific or restrictive of the models discussed earlier.

Agenda Setting Theory

Agenda-setting theory describes the "ability of the news media to influence the salience of topics on the public agenda." That is, if a news item is covered frequently and prominently the audience will regard the issue as more important. Agenda-setting theory was formally developed by Dr. Max McCombs and Dr. Donald Shaw in a study on the 1968 presidential election. In the 1968 "Chapel Hill study," McCombs and Shaw demonstrated a strong correlation ($r > .9$) between what 100 residents of Chapel Hill, North

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Carolina thought was the most important election issue and what the local and national news media reported was the most important issue. By comparing the salience of issues in news content with the public's perceptions of the most important election issue, McCombs and Shaw were able to determine the degree to which the media determines public opinion. Since the 1968 study, published in a 1972 edition of *Public Opinion Quarterly*, more than 400 studies have been published on the agenda-setting function of the mass media, and the theory continues to be regarded as relevant.

History and Orientation

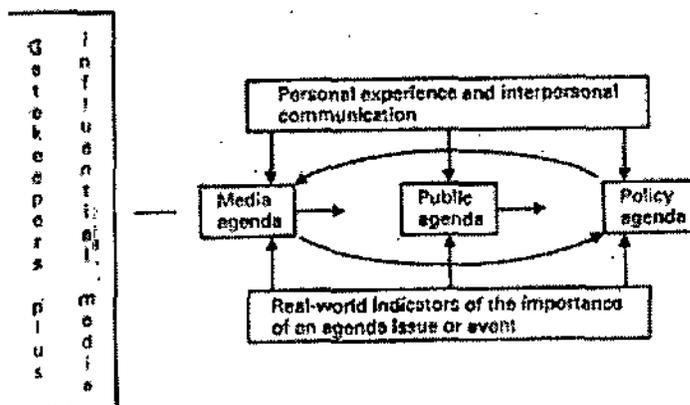
Agenda setting describes a very powerful influence of the media - the ability to tell us what issues are important. As far back as 1922, the newspaper columnist Walter Lippman was concerned that the media had the power to present images to the public. McCombs and Shaw investigated presidential campaigns in 1968, 1972 and 1976. In the research done in 1968 they focused on two elements: awareness and information. Investigating the agenda-setting function of the mass media, they attempted to assess the relationship between what voters in one community said were important issues and the actual content of the media messages used during the campaign. McCombs and Shaw concluded that the mass media exerted a significant influence on what voters considered to be the major issues of the campaign.

Core Assumptions and Statements

Core: Agenda-setting is the creation of public awareness and concern of salient issues by the news media. Two basic assumptions underlie most research on agenda-setting: (1) the press and the media do not reflect reality; they filter and shape it; (2) media concentration on a few issues and subjects leads the public to perceive those issues as more important than other issues. One of the most critical aspects in the concept of an agenda-setting role of mass communication is the time frame for this phenomenon. In addition, different media have different agenda-setting potential. Agenda-setting theory seems quite appropriate to help us understand the pervasive role of the media (for example on political communication systems).

Statement: Bernard Cohen (1963) stated: "The press may not be successful much of the time in telling people what to think, but it is stunningly successful in telling its readers what to think about."

Conceptual Model



Agenda-setting

Favorite Methods

Content-analysis of media, interviews of audiences.

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Scope and Application

Just as McCombs and Shaw expanded their focus, other researchers have extended investigations of agenda setting to issues including history, advertising, foreign, and medical news.

Example

McCombs and Shaw focused on the two elements: awareness and information. Investigating the agenda-setting function of the mass media in the 1968 presidential campaign, they attempted to assess the relationship between what voters in one community said were important issues and the actual content of media messages used during the campaign. McCombs and Shaw concluded that the mass media exerted a significant influence on what voters considered to be the major issues of the campaign.

Cultivation Theory

Cultivation theory is a media effects theory created by George Gerbner that states that media exposure, specifically to television, shapes our social reality by giving us a distorted view on the amount of violence and risk in the world. The theory also states that viewers identify with certain values and identities that are presented as mainstream on television even though they do not actually share those values or identities in their real lives. Em Griffin, "A First Look at Communication Theory". Drawing on cultivation as it is practiced in farming, Gerbner turned this notion into a powerful metaphor to explain how the media, and television in particular, shapes our social realities. Just as a farmer plants seeds that he or she then cultivates over time to produce a crop, the media plants seeds in our minds and then cultivates them until they grow into our shared social reality.

Over decades of exploring cultivation theory, Gerbner made several well-supported conclusions that are summarized as follows:

- ◆ Prime-time television shows and weekend morning children's programming have been found to contain consistently high amounts of violence over the past thirty years.
- ◆ Older people, children, African Americans, and Latino/as are more likely to be shown as victims of violence than are their young-adult, middle-aged, and/or white counterparts. This disparity is more meaningful when we realize that these groups are also underrepresented (relative to their percentage in the general population) on these shows while their vulnerability to violence is overstated.
- ◆ The effects of television viewing on our worldview build up over years, but in general, people who are more heavy viewers perceive the world as more dangerous than do light viewers. Gerbner coined the phrase "mean world syndrome," which refers to the distorted view of the world as more violent and people as more dangerous than they actually are.
- ◆ Heavy viewers predict that their odds of being a victim of violence within the next week are 1 in 10, while light viewers predicted 1 in 100. Real crime statistics give a more reliable estimate of 1 in 10,000.
- ◆ Heavy viewers fear walking alone on the street more than do light viewers, believing that criminal activity is actually ten times more prevalent than it actually is.
- ◆ Heavy viewers believe that more people are involved in law enforcement and that officer's draw and use their weapons much more than is actually the case.
- ◆ Heavy viewers are generally more suspicious of others and question their motives more than do light viewers (the basis of the mean world syndrome).

Given that most people on television are portrayed as politically moderate and middle class, heavy viewers are more likely to assume those labels even though heavy users tend to be more working class or poor and more politically conservative than moderate. In short, they begin to view themselves as similar to those they watch on television and consider themselves a part of the mainstream of society even though they are not.

Uses and Gratification Theory

Uses and gratifications theory (UGT) is an approach to understanding why and how people actively seek out specific media to satisfy specific needs. UGT is an audience-centered approach to understanding mass communication. Diverging from other media effect theories that question "what do media do to people?" UGT focuses on "what do people do with media?"

This Communication theory is positivistic in its approach, based in the socio-psychological communication tradition, and focuses on communication at the mass media scale. The driving question of UGT is: Why do people use media and what do they use them for? UGT discusses how users deliberately choose media that will satisfy given needs and allow one to enhance knowledge, relaxation, social interactions/companionship, diversion, or escape.

It assumes that audience members are not passive consumers of media. Rather, the audience has power over their media consumption and assumes an active role in interpreting and integrating media into their own lives. Unlike other theoretical perspectives, UGT holds that audiences are responsible for choosing media to meet their desires and needs to achieve gratification. This theory would then imply that the media compete against other information sources for viewers' gratification.

UGT has a heuristic value today because it gives communication scholars a "perspective through which a number of ideas and theories about media choice, consumption, and even impact can be viewed."

Mark Levy and Sven Windahl provide a good description of what it means to be an "active consumer" of media:

"As commonly understood by gratifications researchers, the term "audience activity" postulates a volun-taristic and selective orientation by audiences toward the communication process. In brief, it suggests that media use is motivated by needs and goals that are defined by audience members themselves, and that active participation in the communication process may facilitate, limit, or otherwise influence the gratifications and effects associated with exposure. Current thinking also suggests that audience activity is best conceptualized as a variable construct, with audiences exhibiting varying kinds and degrees of activity."

Assumptions of the Theory

Unlike other theories concerning media consumption, UGT gives the consumer power to discern what media they consume, with the assumption that the consumer has a clear intent and use. This contradicts previous theories such as Mass Society Theory, that states that people are helpless victims of mass media produced by large companies; and Individual Differences Perspective, which states that intelligence and self-esteem largely drive an individual's media choice.

Given these differing theories, UGT is unique in its assumptions:

- ◆ The audience is active and its media use is goal oriented
- ◆ The initiative in linking need gratification to a specific medium choice rests with the audience member
- ◆ The media compete with other resources for need satisfaction
- ◆ People have enough self-awareness of their media use, interests, and motives to be able to provide researchers with an accurate picture of that use.
- ◆ Value judgments of media content can only be assessed by the audience.

Heuristic Approach of UGT

Katz, Blumler, and Gurevitch synthesized that UGT's approach was focused on "the social and psychological origins of needs, which generate expectations of the mass media or other sources, which lead to differential patterns of media exposure (or engagement in other activities), resulting in need gratifications and other consequences, perhaps mostly unintended ones."

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According to Katz, Blumler and Gurevitch's research there were five components comprising the Uses and Gratifications Approach. The components are:

1. The audience is conceived as active.
2. In the mass communication process, much initiative in linking gratification and media choice lies with the audience member.
3. The media compete with other sources of satisfaction.
4. Methodologically speaking, many of the goals of mass media use can be derived from data supplied by individual audience members themselves.
5. Value judgments about the cultural significance of mass communication should be suspended while audience orientations are explored on their own terms.

According to the research, goals for media use can be grouped into five uses. The audience wants to:

1. be informed or educated
2. identify with characters of the situation in the media environment
3. simple entertainment
4. enhance social interaction
5. escape from the stresses of daily life

Gratifications Sought (GS) Vs Gratifications Obtained (GO)

Recently, UGT has been updated to include gratifications sought (GS) versus gratifications obtained (GO). The GS that audiences seek do not always result in GO. This discrepancy leads GO to outweigh GS is important.

Beginning in the 1940s, researchers began seeing patterns under the perspective of the uses and gratifications theory in radio listeners. Early research was concerned with topics such as children's use of comics and the absence of newspapers during a newspaper strike. An interest in more psychological interpretations emerged during this time period.

In 1948, Lasswell introduced a four-functional interpretation of the media on a macro-sociological level. Media served the functions of surveillance, correlation, entertainment and cultural transmission for both society and individuals

Stages of the Theory

Uses and gratifications theory was developed from a number of prior communication theories and research conducted by fellow theorists.

Stage 1

- ◆ In 1944 Herta Herzog began to look at the earliest forms of uses and gratifications with her work classifying the reasons why people chose specific types of media. For her study, Herzog interviewed soap opera fans and was able to identify three types of gratifications. The three gratifications categories, based on why people listened to soap operas, were emotional, wishful thinking, and learning.
- ◆ In 1970 Abraham Maslow suggested that uses and gratifications theory was an extension of the Needs and Motivation Theory. The basis for his argument was that people actively looked to satisfy their needs based on a hierarchy. These needs are organized as Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs in the form of a pyramid with the largest, most fundamental needs at the base and the need for self-actualization at the tip. From the bottom-up the pyramid contains Biological/Physical, Security/Safety, Social/Belonging, Ego/Self-Respect and Self-actualization at the top.
- ◆ In 1954 Wilbur Schramm developed the fraction of selection, a formula for determining which form of mass media an individual would select. The formula helped to decide the amount of

gratification an individual would expect to gain from the medium over how much effort they had to make to achieve gratification.

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Stage 2

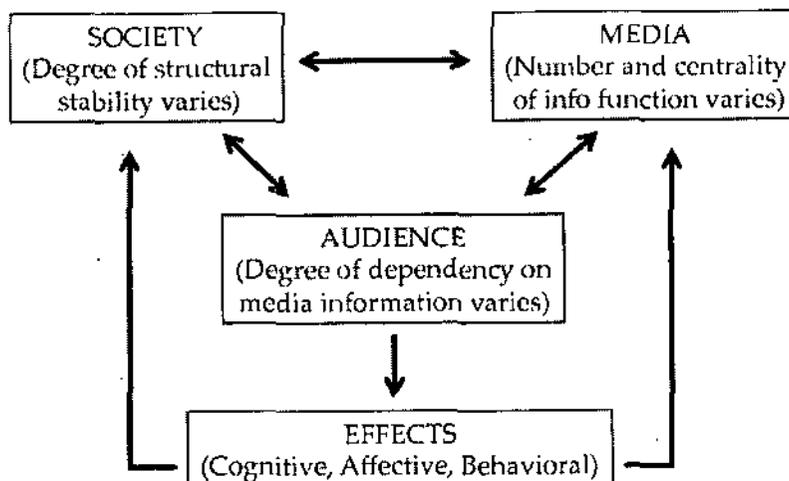
- ◆ In 1969 Jay Blumler and Denis McQuail studied the 1964 election in the United Kingdom by examining people's motives for watching certain political programs on television. By categorizing the audience's motives for viewing a certain program, they aimed to classify viewers according to their needs in order to understand any potential mass-media effects.¹⁴ The audience motivations they were able to identify helped lay the groundwork for their research in 1972 and eventually uses and gratifications theory.
- ◆ In 1972 Denis McQuail, Jay Blumler and Joseph Brown suggested that the uses of different types of media could be grouped into 4 categories. The four categories were: diversion, personal relationships, personal identity and surveillance.
- ◆ In 1973-74 McQuail, Blumler and Brown were joined by Elihu Katz, Michael Gurevitch and Hadassah Haas, in their media exploration. The collaborative research began to indicate how people saw the mass media.

Stage 3

- ◆ The most recent interest surrounding Uses and Gratifications Theory is the link between the reason why media is used and the achieved gratification.
- ◆ UGT researchers are developing the theory to be more predictive and explanatory by connecting the needs, goals, benefits, and consequences of media consumption and use along with individual factors.
- ◆ Work in UGT was trailblazing because the research of Katz, Blumler, and Gurevitch built on Herzog's research and caused a paradigm shift from how media influences people to how audiences use media, diminishing the dominance of the limited effects approach to mass media studies.

Dependence Theory

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



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The relationships between components

Dependency on media emerges from three relationships.

1) The relationship between the society and the media. Within this relationship, media access and availability are regarded as important antecedents to an individual's experience with the media. The nature of media dependence on societal systems varies across political, economic, and cultural system.

2) The relationship between the media and the audience. This relationship is the key variable in this theory because it affects how people might use a mass medium. This relationship also varies across media systems. The more salient the information needs, the stronger are the motivation to seek mediated information and the dependency on the medium. In result, the likelihood for the media to affect audiences becomes greater.

3) The relationship between the society and the audience. The societies influence consumers' needs and motives for media use, and provide norms, values, knowledge, and laws for their members. Social system can function alternatives to the media by offering similar services of the media.

The levels of media dependency

In the MSD view, the media system has two-way resource-dependency relations with individuals (micro-level), groups and organizations (meso-level), and other social systems (macro-level).

The micro level (individual level) of dependency

Micro level or individual level application focus on the relationship between individuals and media. The micro level dependency, better known as individual level media system dependency(IMD)begins with an assessment of the types of motivation that bring individuals to use the media. In the perspective of IMD, goals are preferred to needs to conceptualize the motivations that affect media behavior. According to Ball-Rokeach and DeFleur, goals are the key dimension of individual motivation. While needs imply both rational and irrational motives, goals imply a problem-solving motivation more appropriate to a theory of media behavior based upon the dependency relation.

Three types of motivational goals

The IMD approach provides a comprehensive conceptualization of three motivational goals: understanding, orientation, and play.

1) Understanding- needs for individuals to have a basic understanding of themselves and the world around them.

2) Orientation- needs for individuals to direct personal actions effectively and interact successfully with others.

3) Play (or recreation)- a way through which one learns roles, norms, and values and its reflected in such activities as sport, dance, and celebration.

The macro level of dependency

Every country's media system is interdependent on the country's other social systems (e.g., its economy, its government) for resources, and vice-versa. At the macrolevel, dependency theory states these interrelationships influence what kinds of media products are disseminated to the public for consumption, and the range of possible uses people have for media.

Media and Economic System

The media depend on a society's economic system for 1) inculcation and reinforcement of free enterprise values, 2) establishing and maintaining linkages between producers and sellers, and 3) controlling and winning internal conflicts, such as between management and unions. In turn, the media is dependent on a society's economic system for 1) profit from advertising revenue, 2) technological develop-

ments that reduce costs and compete effectively with other media outlets, and 3) expansion via access to banking and finance services, as well as international trade.

Media and Political System

A society's media and political system are also heavily interdependent. Political system rely on the media to 1) inculcate and reinforce political values and norm such as freedom, voting, or obedience to the law, 2) maintain order and social integration, 3) organize and mobilize the citizenry to carry out essential activities like waging war, and 4) controlling and winning conflicts that develop within political domains (e.g., Watergate). Conversely, the media rely on a country's political system for judicial, executive, and legislative protection, formal and informal resources required covering the news, and revenue that comes from political advertising and subsidies.

Media and Secondary Systems

To a lesser extent, media has established interdependencies with several other social systems. The family is dependent on media for inculcation and reinforcement of family values, recreation and leisure, coping with everyday problems of child rearing, marriage, and financial crises. On the other hand, the media is dependent on the family for consuming their media products.

The same is true of media and religious systems. Religious systems rely on media for inculcation and reinforcement of religious values, transmitting religious messages to the masses, and successfully competing with other religious or nonreligious philosophies. In turn, the media relies on the religious system to attain profits from religious organizations who purchase space or air time.

The educational system in a society relies on media for value inculcation and reinforcement, waging successful conflicts or struggles for scarce resources, and knowledge transmission such as in educational media programming. Media depends on the educational system for access to expert information and being able to hire personnel trained in the educational system.

Finally, the military system depends on the media for value inculcation and reinforcement, waging and winning conflicts, and specific organizational goals such as recruitment and mobilization. The media, in turn, depends on the military for access to insider or expert information.

The consequences of all of these interdependencies, again, are alterations in media products that audiences consume. In this way, the system-level interdependencies control media products, the range of possible social uses for media, the extent to which audiences depend on the media to fulfill needs, and ultimately media effects on audiences. Individual differences due to demographics or personality traits might change what people actually do with media messages or how they interpret media messages, but the messages always begin as the result of interdependent social systems.

Check your Progress

1. Define the term "Theory".

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2. Write a note on Authoritarian Theory.

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3. What are the six functions of Social responsibility theory?

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4. State the views of two-step model theory.

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3.3. Impact of Mass Communication

Mass communication is a vast field covering many areas under it. Some of these are discussed under the following headings.

Mass Communication through Printing

In short, journalism is collecting and editing of news for presentation through media. Print journalism has been one of the oldest forms of journalism. Newspapers and magazines, big or small have always been major source of news and information throughout the world and millions of readers go through them daily. Over the years, print journalism has witnessed major transformation; the simple reporting of yesteryears has taken a shape of highly specialized and professional field owing to competition and other factors. The newspapers and magazines today cover a wide range of specialized sections like political events, business news, leisure, cinema, sports, career, health and so many other subjects, which demands for professionally qualified journalists. Given the variety of subjects to choose from, one can look forward to a field of his interest and pursue several available courses in that direction.

Electronic Mass Communication

Introduction of electronic communication especially through broadcasting has affected the lifestyles and thoughts of masses. Communication mediums like television, radio, audio, video etc. has made possible news, entertainment, information, education related subjects reach the very far and wide places. It has to an extent sidelined other forms of communication. With the growing network of TV, satellite communication, cable services, radio stations, etc., the future of this industry seems bright. Electronic journalism offers to professionally qualified aspirants opportunities in a number of fields. Some of these are direction, production, camera, graphics, editing, sound, programme research, script writing etc.

Mass Communication through Films

When we talk of films today, there is no dearth of available professional career options. Although, it is not all that easy to taste success in one of the most competitive and sought after fields, but definitely for someone sanguine and determined, it can be quite rewarding. Films have always earned recognition and fascination of masses. There are so many different groups of people associated with the so-called big screen and one has a variety to choose from the available options from technical professions like directors, producers, soundmen, light men, cameramen, editors etc. to artists like actors, dancers, musicians, stuntmen etc.

The rapidly growing film industry and its certain future have led to various institutes offering highly professional courses. One definitely finds it useful to pursue these courses in order to hone their skills and make themselves better to compete with the best in the industry.

Mass Communication through Advertising

Advertising is brand building process of a product, idea, thought or a even a service, through effective mediums of communication. From newspapers, magazines, posters, signboards, bills to the commercials on radio, television and even Internet, advertising has come a long way. Business organizations, political organizations, social organizations, all find it important to advertise in order to influence public opinion.

Since advertising is a service industry, the reputation of the ad agency depends on the effective work being done and campaign released from time to time. This makes the job even more challenging. With the advent of the multinational companies, more and more Indian agencies are tying up with the foreign agencies to pitch for international clients which is clearly indicative of high growth in coming years in this industry.

Mass Communication through Public Relations

Once, the simple operation of publicity today has emerged as an important management function. Public Relations, as the name suggests, is used to generate and portray, positive image of an organization by various means. Business houses, schools, universities, hospitals, government institutions, etc. engage public relations personnel and agencies to cast and present their image, objectives and policies in the best possible light.

Mass Communication and Culture

Does Mass Communication result in a homogeneous 'mass culture'? For instance, has the Hindi cinema — which is in every sense the most popular form of mass entertainment in our country - made any dent in our centuries-old cultural values and behavior? Or, has television in any way affected the culture of our city folk in any significant manner?

The reach of mass communication through the electronic media is mostly limited to the urban areas. It would, therefore, be ridiculous to suggest that the modern mass media have in any tangible way influenced Indian culture which itself is an extremely composite phenomenon, and impossible to define precisely. Indeed, the word 'culture' too is so comprehensive that it encompasses every facet of our lives from the most superficial to the most profound and intimate.

Mass Communication may influence (and often reflect) depending on how forceful it is the superficial aspects of our culture and behavior. Thus, Hindi films may start new fashions for men and women in the areas of clothes, hairstyles, manner of speech (the use of 'yaar' for example, or the sprinkling of conversation with English expressions), manner of greeting, or ways of socializing or of making love or even on our life-style and outward behavior. We may even go to the extreme of acting out what we see or hear in the mass media, say a violent gesture or a protest, but it takes a lot more than film or TV to change our social and cultural values.

The phenomenon of mass culture: The understanding of 'mass culture' depends on our point of view and on what 'culture' means to us. Thus 'mass culture' can be used pejoratively or positively. The concept of mass culture refers to a whole range of popular activities and artifacts - to entertainments, spectacles, music books, films - but has become identified with the typical content of the mass media, and especially with the fictional, dramatic and entertainment material which they provide.

The reach of the mass media is so limited in India that one wonders what relevance Denis McQuail's description of mass culture has to our society. 'Mass culture in our country is still by and large the one that prevails in our villages where over 77% of our people live, and where Indian culture (or Hindu culture if you like) is untouched by the mass media. Folk media continue to provide the main source of entertainment, and also of instruction and education in religious, social, economic and political matters. While there are a great variety of folk forms in every region, and numerous languages and dialects in which they are presented, the themes have their source in the two epics, the Ramayana and the Mahabharata. The Muslims who make up the second largest religious community in the country have preserved their own traditional folk forms like the ghazal, the Quawali and the mushaira. The tribal too continue to entertain themselves with age-old folk songs and folk dances. The mass media have, however, entered into the lives of the upper and middle classes in cities and towns. The cinema is the most popular entertainment, as is evident from the production of nearly 800 films a year, and the screening of them in over 12,500 theatres. This popularity is also seen in the number of film-oriented programmes on Vividh Bharati and on television. The Indian cinema has the qualities of a mass culture product, but it is doubtful if it has given rise to a 'mass culture.'

The mass media exist because they fill a need or needs felt by the society and by individuals. In any discussion on mass media effects, a prelude on the functions they perform would put things in proper perspective.

It is usually assumed that the primary function of mass media from the stand point of the welfare of both the society and the individual is to fill the need for information. Even though a substantial portion of the audience seems to place low value on at least certain phases of information. Nearly everybody needs often urgently, at least some types of information. Modern societies live and survive on information. This, in essence means knowing what happening - a term first used by Lass well is 'surveillance of the environment'.

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The instrumental news which is of direct help to the reader in the day's operation including working knowledge of the immediate community (when taxes are due railway and television time tables and schedules and so on)

Material for the continuing updating of the citizen on major developments changes etc and finally warnings about entertainment threats and dangers such as in weather or transportation changes in government policy etc.

Personal esteem is built through the prestige which comes from knowing the news. An individual needs a social base for interpersonal exchange-surveillance of the media provides it. For some individuals there is a gain also merely having a feeling of knowledge, of satisfying curiosity. Being a subject of Media coverage confers status builds prestige some dysfunctional facets of the media effects include news from outside being considered a potential threat to the social structure actions of other nations as harmful. On interpreted and misinterpreted warnings may cause panic. There are comparable impacts on the individual in the form of heightening anxieties like the "Skylab Issue some years ago". The tendency here is to blame the media rather than the news.

Another effect of mass media can be that of privatization: when the individual is overloaded or overwhelmed by the flow of information turns aside from flood of public life and retreats to private life where he has more control. A less extreme reaction is found when citizens become apathetic a condition to by Lazars field as "narcotic dysfunction".

Correlation - Interpretation

This function of the mass media is seen as the interpretation 'offered for the information provided in the form of news. Positively viewed the purpose behind this function is to improve the quality and usefulness of the information for the citizen. On the contrary if taken negatively. The purpose to prevent some of the under ruble consequences of communication like over-stimulation and over-mobilization in case news being seen as threatening.

Correlation is also seen as "Prescription" in which, the medium sells the citizen what to think and to what line of action to take. Usually editorials advice appears to do this. Sometimes hidden in the news itself interpretation may be found.

Entertainment

The line demarcating information and entertainment is often blurred: all information have entertainment value and much of the entertainment also perform information function or contribute to the value system of the individual.

Entertainment engages your time. Often enlarges it and even more releases the modern mankind's tension. Stress present and future shock and other real or imagined difficulties.

Entertainment is a major factor in the play theory of mass communication as advanced by Stephenson. The individual plays with the product of mass communication in much the same way a child plays with toys. Though often the mass

Media are attended to with seriousness, it is not really important since it falls outside and individuals world of duty and responsibility. Such communication pleasure does however contribute to both individual and cultural development.

Socialization

This function of the mass media is seen as the part by them in assisting in the process of socialization. The media, in this context tell the citizen about the expected common elements of the society the way things are done.

Media performers may not often think consolably of the fact that they fulfill this function but none the less this non-awareness does not reduce the impact of the processes of the socialization and may in fact enhance it.

Marketing

Another function of mass communication is that of marketing in the sense that the mass media are currently an irreplaceable element in the process of marketing. We are a market society and the stability and maintenance of a smoothly operating market is important to all of us.

As a result, mass media carry advertising messages, which in fluencies consumers and to a considerable extent informs them.

The news section of the media also carry product information which useful to the citizen to choose the product and service the maker of the product due to its publicity value.

Some feel that mass media exist primarily to deliver commercial messages while other aspects are secondary.

Initiating Social Change

Another function is leadership is social change though some that it should play a passive role and feel that it should transmit socially relevant information without a leading role or attempting to direct change.

To carry out this function, media should carryout a continuing survey of the needs of the society and transmit an accurate and complete picture promptly to the society. The media should also encourage the process of formal social planning.

The media should list the agenda for the society to act upon and provide priority order to implement them. Here media are early warning system of the society , a conscience urging attention to the problems which promise to be major.

An intermediary of the leadership - In social change function is the developing and recognizing of new leaders for the society. The media expose potential leaders to the public and help them face public testing grounds.

The media also serve as a communication belt between actual and potential leader on current developments.

Creating Social Style

This function is important in setting a style for society of providing an example of the general approach to public affairs literature culture and the life - style In general. The media should carryon discussion in a rational rather than emotional manner.

Watch Dogging

Perhaps dissolved in the news - surveillance but deserving special mention is the function of watch dogging the society? Of constantly being on the look out malfunctions of importance which should be brought to the attention of the society.

Education

Another function related to socialization is that of contusing the educational process in organized fashion Mass media help disseminating educational information for open university and correspondence - course students , They also help the regular curricula by publishing educational news and information during public examination?

The media safeguard civil liberties: often the most consistent and vigorous of the fighters. They provide routine or a ritual for the day ("you do every morning after or before breakfast - read newspaper ")

Mass media structure the time (people don't know what else to do and so they attend to mass media) and introduce varlet or novelty (media provide the break)

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3.4. Limitations of Mass Communication

The disadvantages of mass communication are due to such a large population receiving a message. Not everyone will interpret a message the same. Without the interpersonal communication, we cannot consider what people actually feel or think. A face to face conversation has the advantage of facial expressions, body language, and tone of voice, which cannot be conveyed on a large scale.

- ◆ The relationship between source and receiver is usually unambiguous. The public is under the direct control of the communicator
- ◆ The contents of the communication needs arise from the public, information will be processed so as to meet those needs
- ◆ Professionalization substantial media specialists have a negative effect because messages are institutions providing guided by criteria efficient.
- ◆ Turn the sensational newspaper
- ◆ Distorted perceptions of real world
- ◆ Create (sometimes unintended) models false, "bad", the public is exposed, but not able to select and process information (children, sick, etc.)
- ◆ The message, however objective he is distorted since the source (bias creator)
- ◆ Post effects depending on the nature of cognitive, affective and behavioral
- ◆ Can easily induce certain types of public misinformation .
- ◆ Produces changes, facilitate or strengthen the opinions or beliefs that may be wrong, dangerous social, etc.
- ◆ Handles audiences by changing, changing contextualization an event, news, etc.

The role of mass media in society is limited; media primarily reinforce existing social trends and only initiate social change. The media will cause change only if the many barriers to their influence are broken down by highly unusual circumstances such as a terrorist attack or war. Evidence of reinforcement was often lacking.

Mass media's role in the lives of individual's is limited and although this role tends to be positive, it can occasionally be dysfunctional for some types of people. Media provide a convenient and inexpensive source of entertainment and information. But neither use has much long-term or important impact on the daily life of most people. Almost all information is either ignored or quickly forgotten. Entertainment mainly provides a temporary distraction from work, allowin people to relax and enjoy themselves so that they can go back to work refreshed. People who are adversely affected by media tend to have severe personality or social adjustment problems, they would be deeply troubled even if media weren't available.

The role of mass media in the U.S political and social system is overwhelmingly positive. Although not democratic in the classic sense, the U.S system is nevertheless a viable and humane system that respects and nurtures cultural pluralism while preserving social order media play an important though somewhat minor role in supporting this system through their reinforcement of the status quo.

Check your Progress

5. What are the disadvantages of mass communication?

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3.5. Future Trends in Mass Communication

Today, creative minds are looking for such career options that make their life entertaining and bring fun as well as excitement even at work. This is the reason more and more students are attracting towards

mass media and related courses. Journalism has been such option that has provided many people a platform to earn name and form.

The field is full of excitement where a journalist has to visit different places and covering adventurous stories. Appearing on news channels and in number of newspaper is a proud in itself. Observing the craze among students innumerable mass communication colleges have been set up in all the cities. These colleges or institutes include professionals and industry experts as their faculty to provide the quality education to the students.

Not just in journalism but also in advertising, modeling, acting, and jockeying etc. Keeping the interest in mind these colleges and institutes also train the students practically. The education source is bright so these colleges also offer part time and weekend course. It is also true that just like Vocal Music Classes; the trends in this field have also been changed in past few years.

Modern Media and Communication Research has its roots in a variety of disciplines: Political Science, Economics, Sociology, Psychology, History, Literature and Linguistics. Within these fields, questions relating to mass media had tended to be marginalized. Serious gaps in knowledge had opened concerning how the external manifestations of media and communication related to their inner life, and to the place the institutions occupy in our societies and cultures. This, just as television was becoming an ubiquitous household fixture and computers had started their conquest. The frustration relating to these 'white spots on the map' spurred the creation of the discipline of Media and Communication Research on eminently interdisciplinary foundations. Behind the urge to create a specialised discipline was the desire to strengthen the field through the elaboration of shared concepts, theoretical starting points and methods.

Some of the scholars who were active in the 1970s and 1980s - today we call them pioneers - worked hard to establish Media and Communication as a discipline in its own right. Among the pioneer generation were researchers like Svennik Høijer and Helge Ostbye in Norway; Karl-Erik Rosengren, Kjell Nowak, Olof Hultén, Stig Hadenius and Lennart Weibull in Sweden; and Frands Mortensen, Erik Nordahl Svendsen and Karen Siune in Denmark. All were aided and abetted from time to time by Kaarle Nordenstreng in Finland, where Journalism and Mass Communication had been an academic discipline since the 1940s.

Many of these researchers also founded training programmes for journalists and information officers in an era when demand for professionals in these areas skyrocketed. Other main actors were the national associations of media researchers, all of which were formed toward the end of the 1970s. These may be seen as an outgrowth of Nordic collaboration, which has a history of some 30-40 years, having first been manifested in a pan-Nordic conference for media and communication research held in 1973 at the Voksenasen outside Oslo. That same year saw the decision to establish a Nordic documentation center for media and communication research, NORDICOM. Clearly, Nordic collaboration in the area was a chief prerequisite to the development of the discipline in the Nordic countries. This Nordic base provided, and continues to provide, a much more conducive platform for research than any of the five countries alone can offer.

Nordic research collaboration also benefited from Nordic researchers' active involvement in the IAMCR/AIERI (International Association for Mass Communication Research) and its regularly recurring conferences in the 1970s. Nearly all the so-called pioneers were present in Leipzig in 1974, which marked a definite step in the history of the Association. And then there was Leicester 1976, Warsaw 1978. It is no mere coincidence that the Swedish association was formed on the way home from Leicester, and the Norwegian association at the conference in Warsaw. In retrospect it is interesting to see how several different factors, especially regional and international processes, coalesced to make an extraordinary national expansion possible. Still, without the entrepreneurial efforts of individual researchers it would not have happened.

New disciplines like Media and Communication Research find themselves in something of a dilemma. On the one hand, they seek to develop a discipline that merits national and international recognition; on the other, they want to remain open and non-doctrinaire in their relations with neighboring disciplines. Often, however, the institutionalization of a research field, particularly in its early phases, implies a risk of a block in communication with other disciplines - which occurred in the case of Media and Communication Research. The developmental phase coincided, what is more, with a new direction in work in the Humanities known as 'the cultural turn'.

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The 'cultural turn' represented a development that brought social scientists and their colleagues in the Humanities closer. Scholars in the field increasingly trained their focus on the roles media play in cultural processes, on the media's potential to create meaning in a broader sense, and on the adaptation of media messages to modes of understanding commonly applied to cultural phenomena. Nowadays it is no longer always easy to tell the difference between work in the two traditions. The concept of text became central in almost every sense of the word. We may speak of a process of hybridisation in some regions of the field. The 'cultural turn' has had a far stronger impact on media studies than on many other fields. The outcome, however, has not been greater unity of focus, but rather the opposite, and in retrospect we may ask: In an era when issues relating to the power and morality of media institutions were more urgently important than ever before, where were the social scientists - why were they so quiet? Was it because they were busy pursuing consensus in the field, or was it because of 'marketisation'? Or, were they simply totally absorbed in the Zeitgeist?

For a young discipline in which most researchers nowadays have their background solely in Media and Communication Research and where contacts with early media research and work in neighbouring disciplines are few, "trends" can have an exceedingly strong impact and may lead to widespread conformism. Some critics have lamented the lack of historical perspectives in much of contemporary Media and Communication Research. The wheel has been re-invented, time and again. Researchers tend to develop a nose for trends and for what is politically correct. In this way it is entirely possible for a field of research to be characterised at once by conformism and multidisciplinary or, perhaps more aptly, eclecticism.

Media and communication researchers borrow theories, perspectives and methods from other disciplines. Many doctoral dissertations of recent vintage refer - often without much reflection - to a handful of theories garnered from more general cultural and social theory. The works take their inspiration from one, often even several methodologies, without pausing to consider that methods, too, are founded on basic assumptions about the nature of the object to be explored. (Höijer 2006) Scholars in our field have always borrowed and will surely continue to borrow, due to the nature of the phenomena they concern themselves with. Borrowing in itself should not disqualify us from making the occasional contribution to the development of theory and methodology in other disciplines, but the record to date shows remarkably few such contributions. What is more, we find that issues relating to the media are today being studied in many different disciplines, independent of what has been done, or is being done by researchers in Media and Communication.

Media and Communication is variegated in the extreme, and few syntheses embrace the field as a whole. The field is broad, specialties are many, with new ones appearing from time to time. Indeed, the field can give the impression of incoherence. Specialisation, which is not always solidly founded in theory or methodology, may cause the field to disintegrate into small groups, each a discursive community unto itself. Members' credibility within the community increases, all the while their work is marginalized in relation to the research community at large.

The burgeoning flora of journals these days mirrors the situation. Commercial publishing houses have caught the scent and flocked to the arena. New research specialties are carved out and new journal titles started up all the time. As a consequence, there is a risk that our field may become 'balkanized' to an even greater extent. Furthermore, the rapid increase in seeming diversity may well - as in many other cases of rapid expansion - result in redundant and repetitive publication. Which, in turn, implies a risk that perceptions of academic standards will continue to vary, and with them the quality of published work.

Variation in standards is not to be confused with a healthy variety of interests, points of departure, concepts and methods, without which the discipline cannot thrive. Theoretical and methodological pluralism needs to be deliberately cultivated, and this requires competitive interaction between qualitative research environments. The frantic hunt for research funding, increasing pressures to publish in international journals, and far-reaching specialisation - on a market that has become increasingly trend-sensitive - are not unrelated. Thought, reconsideration, and reflection are scarce in day-to-day academic life. Monographs, as demanding of the scholar's time and effort as they are important to our science, are not profitable ventures.

3.6. Summary

Theories of mass communication have changed dramatically since the early 1900s, largely as a result of quickly changing technology and more sophisticated academic theories and research methods. A quick overview of the state of the media in the early 1900s and in the early 2000s provides some context for how views of the media changed. In the early 1900s, views of mass communication were formed based on people's observation of the popularity of media and assumptions that something that grew that quickly and was adopted so readily must be good.

In short, journalism is collecting and editing of news for presentation through media. Print journalism has been one of the oldest forms of journalism. Newspapers and magazines, big or small have always been major source of news and information throughout the world and millions of readers go through them daily. Over the years, print journalism has witnessed major transformation; the simple reporting of yesteryears has taken a shape of highly specialized and professional field owing to competition and other factors. The newspapers and magazines today cover a wide range of specialized sections like political events, business news, leisure, cinema, sports, career, health and so many other subjects, which demands for professionally qualified journalists. Given the variety of subjects to choose from, one can look forward to a field of his interest and pursue several available courses in that direction.

3.7. Key Words

1. **Authoritarian Theory** : Authoritarian theory describe that all forms of communications are under the control of the governing elite or authorities or influential bureaucrats.
2. **Libertarian Theory** : The protagonists of the libertarian theory wanted the press to inform, sell, entertain, uphold the truth, and keep check on the government.
3. **Soviet Communist Theory** : Soviet communist theory the press and the state are held to be one i.e., the press and the state are inseparable.
4. **Dependence Theory** : The theory is grounded in classical sociological literature positing that media and their audiences should be studied in the context of larger social systems.
5. **Cultivation Theory** : Cultivation theory is a media effects theory created by George Gerbner that states that media exposure, specifically to television, shapes our social reality by giving us a distorted view on the amount of violence and risk in the world.

3.8. Answers to Check Your Progress

1. A theory is a set of interrelated principles and definitions that serves conceptually to organize selected aspects of the empirical world in a systematic way.
2. The Authoritarian theory was developed by Siebert Peterson and Schuman during the 16th century. The freedom of thoughts was ruled by the ruling class. The ruling class did not want their thoughts and ideas to be printed on to the media and so, they adopted few rules to the press.
3. The social responsibility theory ascribes basically six functions to the press (1) providing information, discussion and debate on men and matters (2) Informing and Instructing public to be aware and capable of self government (3) Protecting or guarding the rights of the individual against the government through its watch dog function (4) maintaining the dynamic equilibrium of the system by bringing together the prospective buyer, seller and advertiser in the area of economy. (5) Providing entertainment and (6) remaining independent of outside pressures.
4. The two step flow model views the masses as interacting individuals. This model further states that there is likely to be a flow of messages from a source (Example: mass media channels) to a receiver who in turn reacts to the message and / or passes it on to those individuals with whom he interacts.
5. The disadvantages of mass communication are due to such a large population receiving a message. Not everyone will interpret a message the same. Without the interpersonal communication, we cannot consider what people actually feel or think. A face to face conversation has the advan-

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tage of facial expressions, body language, and tone of voice, which cannot be conveyed on a large scale.

3.9. Terminal Questions

1. Describe the different theories of communication.
2. Examine the impact of mass communication.
3. Describe the features of mass communication.
4. Discuss the limitations of mass communication.
5. State the future trends in mass communication.

3.10. Further Readings

1. Mass Communication; Keval J.Kumar
2. The News Paper - An international history; Anthony smith
3. Mass communication and journalism; D.S.Mehta in India.
4. Communication Theories: Perspectives, Processes And Contexts; Katherine Miller
5. Introduction to Communication Studies; John Fiske
6. Communication Models; Uma Narula

UNIT - IV

BARRIERS TO COMMUNICATION

Unit - IV : Barriers to Communication

STRUCTURE

- 4.0. Learning Objectives.
- 4.1. Introduction
- 4.2. Barriers to Communication
- 4.3. Concept of Selective Perception, Exposure, Retention
- 4.4. Summary
- 4.5. Key Words
- 4.6. Answers to Check Your Progress
- 4.7. Terminal Questions.
- 4.8. Further Readings

4.0. Learning Objectives

After reading this unit, you will be able to :

- ◆ Understand the barriers to communication
- ◆ Explain different types of barriers which affect the communication process
- ◆ Describe the concept of selective perception
- ◆ Discuss the concept of selective exposure
- ◆ Examine the concept of selective retention

4.1. Introduction

Effective communication occurs when a desired effect is the result of intentional or unintentional information sharing, which is interpreted between multiple entities and acted on in a desired way. This effect also ensures the message is not distorted during the communication process. Effective communication should generate the desired effect and maintain the effect, with the potential to increase the effect of the message. Therefore, effective communication serves the purpose for which it was planned or designed. Possible purposes might be to elicit change, generate action, create understanding, inform or communicate a certain idea or point of view. When the desired effect is not achieved, factors such as barriers to communication are explored, with the intention being to discover how the communication has been *ineffective*.

4.2. Barriers to Communication

'Barriers' are any obstacles or difficulties that come in the way of communication. They may be physical, mechanical, psychological, cultural or linguistic in nature. In business communication, for instance, the major obstacles arise because of the set-up of an organisation - the organizational barriers. The size of an organisation, the specialisation of jobs and activities, and the power and status relationships, are the barriers, raised by interpersonal relationships between individual and groups. The prejudices of both individuals and groups and the channels they use to communicate.

In the 'jargon' of communication, all barriers whatever their nature are clubbed under a common label - 'noise'. A term from modern physics it denotes not only atmospheric or channel disturbance, but all barriers that distort communications in any manner.

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Is there such a thing then as 'perfect' communication free of all barriers? This is hardly ever true, except perhaps at higher spiritual or mystic levels where communication is transformed into a 'communion'. For us, mere mortals, the wrestling with imperfect communications and must continue.

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

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

Physical Barriers

Physical barriers are often due to the nature of the environment. An example of this is the natural barrier which exists if staff is located in different buildings or on different sites. Likewise, poor or outdated equipment, particularly the failure of management to introduce new technology, may also cause problems. Staff shortages are another factor which frequently causes communication difficulties for an organization. Whilst distractions like background noise, poor lighting or an environment which is too hot or cold can all affect people's morale and concentration, which in turn interfere with effective communication.

Four main kinds of distractions act as 'physical barriers' to the communication process. These are:-

1. The Competing Stimulus in the form of another conversation going within hearing distance, or loud music or traffic noise in the background. The cawing of crows or a plane passing overhead can, for example, drown out messages altogether.
2. Environmental Stress: A high temperature and humidity, poor ventilation, vibrations felt, a strong glare - all can contribute to distortions in the sending and receiving of messages.
3. Subjective Stress: Sleeplessness, ill health, the effects of drugs and mood variations give rise to forms of subjective stress that often lead to great difficulties in listening and interpretation.
4. Ignorance of the Medium: The various media for communication are: oral, written, audio, visual and audiovisual. The use of a medium with which the communicators are not familiar would turn the medium itself into a barrier. For instance, the use of visual media like maps and charts to instruct workers who have not been taught to read maps and charts would alienate the workers immediately; they would 'switch off' for lack of knowledge of the medium.

Psychological Barriers

Each of us has a certain 'frame of reference', a kind of window through which we look out at the world, at people, and events and situations. A frame of reference is a system of standards and values, usually implicit, underlying and to some extent controlling an action, or the expression of any belief, attitude or idea. No two individuals possess exactly similar frames of reference, even if they should be identical twins. To a large extent our frames of reference are influenced by our experiences, particularly our childhood experiences, and the cultural environment we have grown up in. heredity too has a great influence.

However, learning and deeper experiences modify these 'mental sets' as we grow and mature, and develop diverse frames of reference to meet different needs - our own and that of the group we identify ourselves with. This is the 'reference group', whose attitudes towards religion, politics, and education and so on we adopt at our own - without being fully aware that we are doing so.

Self Image: Tied up with the term 'frame of reference' is the term 'self-image' or 'self-concept' i.e., the way an individual looks at himself, or the picture he has of himself. It is this 'self-image' that makes us always defend our point of view, to interpret messages in the way we wish to interpret them, and to see 'reality' according to our own pre-conceived notions. That is why few people see things alike: Freud, Jung and Adler interpreted the same dream in three different ways; Indian historians differ on who was responsible for 'the partition', and people understand 'love', 'beauty', 'honour' and 'freedom' ac-

ording to what suits their 'self-image'. The American poet Wallace Stevens wrote that there were 13 ways of looking at a blackbird. He was mistaken, for there were as many ways as there were cultural contexts.

Thus, we tend to listen attentively to, and interpret favourably those messages which give a boost to our self-image, and reject or misinterpret messages which threaten that same image. The consequence is: communication selectivity. It is not only with regard to the sending and receiving of messages that we are selective, but also in the extent we remember them. For instance, we retain only that information that is pleasant to us or reinforces our ego, and very conveniently forget details that are unpleasant or humiliating.

Resistance to Change : "The risk of being changed is one of the most frightening prospects many of us can face". No wonder, we resist change in any form except where we are convinced it is to our benefit. So new ideas that do not support our own views are resisted outright. In fact, most of the time we do not actually hear views which conflict with our own. But we hear with rapt attention any communication that reinforces our beliefs, and our self image.

The effective communicator, therefore, does not wait till resistance builds up against an indented change or innovation, but takes the people into confidence even at the planning stage. Instead of springing a surprise on them, he listens to their point of view with respect, involves them in the change; talks to them about the benefits the change will bring; assures them their security will not be affected; and explains the reasons why the change is necessary.

Defensiveness and Fear : Closely related to the barrier raised by our 'resistance to change' is the barrier of defensiveness. One of man's most compelling needs is to justify himself. Even when we are convinced we are wrong, few of us admit it, as it means a loss of face. More often than not, therefore, we tend to 'rationalize' (explain away) the mistakes we make, the attitudes and opinions we hold so dear.

'Fear is an affect of great potency in determining what the individual will perceive, think and do'. Indeed, together with the allied emotions of nervousness, anxiety and tension, fear is the most constricting of all the affects, resulting often in 'tunnel vision'. It also gives rise to slow and narrow thinking which selects and distorts communication.

During an interview, a candidate's fear, tension and anxiety tells on his performance: he fumbles for words, misinterprets questions and in general gives a poor show of himself. During a written examination, nervous candidates misread the instructions, misunderstand the questions asked. Some psychologists, however, are of the view that a little anxiety is good, for it brings into use brain-cells otherwise inactive, and heightens attention, improves performance, releases certain hormones, and facilitates learning by a greater spread of nerve messages in the brain. In other words, fear anxiety can be turned into a source of energy and confidence.

System design : System design faults refer to problems with the structures or systems in place in an organization. Examples might include an organizational structure which is unclear and therefore makes it confusing to know who to communicate with. Other examples could be inefficient or inappropriate information systems, a lack of supervision or training, and a lack of clarity in roles and responsibilities which can lead to staff being uncertain about what is expected of them.

Attitudinal barriers : Attitudinal barriers come about as a result of problems with staff in an organization. These may be brought about, for example, by such factors as poor management, lack of consultation with employees, personality conflicts which can result in people delaying or refusing to communicate, the personal attitudes of individual employees which may be due to lack of motivation or dissatisfaction at work, brought about by insufficient training to enable them to carry out particular tasks, or just resistance to change due to entrenched attitudes and ideas.

Linguistic and Cultural Barriers : A language is the expression of the thoughts and experiences of a people in terms of their cultural environment. When the same language is made use of in a different culture, it takes on another colour, another meaning. When, for instance, English is employed in India, it comes under the influence not only of the accent of the local language, but also of the meanings and connotations of words, phrases, and idioms of that language, and of the culture that has given rise to it.

Each language shapes the reasoning of its speakers. Thus English enforces 'either/or' thinking and reasoning, which Chinese does not. Indeed, no human is free to describe nature with strict objectivity;

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he is a prisoner of his language and even the same language has to cross not only cultural and generation gaps, but political and social gaps as well.

What is more, in our own familiar environment we switch our type of language fairly frequently, probably quite unconsciously we modify it according to whom we are talking to, where we are and according to what we talk about, there is a different language for discussing profit margins and for talking about the merits of the domestic help... we aware of the situational differences. This is equally true of non-verbal language: a nod of the head does not mean assent in all cultures; the thumbs up' gesture has different associations for urban and rural groups in India; the touching of an elder's feet is a mark of respect in North India, but a mark of humiliation in other cultures.

Language and Meaning : Language facilitates understanding, but there are times when it can be a barrier to communication. In the first place, a language, whether verbal or nonverbal, is ambiguous by nature. The words of language are mere symbols, and by themselves rarely represent only one meaning. Further, these symbols are understood differently by participants in communication. And words are symbols possess objective and subjective meanings. While objective meaning points to objects, people and events, subjective meaning points to emotional and evolutionary responses. The favourable and unfavourable associations of a word depend upon the cultural context in which it is used. Take the word 'facist', 'capitalist' or 'communist', for example: they carry different associations in communist and non-communist states.

Meanings, therefore, exist not in words themselves but in the minds of people who use them. Even simple words like 'love', 'freedom', 'happiness' and 'tragedy' carry numerous associations depending upon the political and cultural situations people find themselves a part of.

Ambiguity of words/phrases : Words sounding the same but having different meaning can convey a different meaning altogether. Hence the communicator must ensure that the receiver receives the same meaning. It is better if such words are avoided by using alternatives whenever possible.

Individual linguistic ability : The use of jargon, difficult or inappropriate words in communication can prevent the recipients from understanding the message. Poorly explained or misunderstood messages can also result in confusion. However, research in communication has shown that confusion can lend legitimacy to research when persuasion fails.

Mechanical Barriers

Mechanical barriers are those raised by the channels employed for interpersonal, group or mass communication. Channels become barriers when the message is interfered with by some disturbance, which (1) increased the difficulty in reception or (2) prevented some elements of the message reaching its destination or both. The absence of communication facilities too would be a mechanical barrier. Technically, such barriers are clubbed together under one general term 'channel noise'.

This types of barrier includes any disturbance which interferes with the fidelity of the physical transmission of the message. A telephone that is in poor working order, making demands on the yelling ability of sender and receiver, is a mechanical barrier in interpersonal communication. So, also is 'cross talk' often heard over an 'intercom' link in an office or during long-distance calls. Thus, hearing is the physical act of receiving sound waves, a natural process. Listening, however, is a skill that has to be learned and developed, requiring hard work and practice.

In group communication, a rundown or 'whistling microphone' and the wrong placement of loudspeakers are disturbances which are mechanical in nature. In mass communication, mechanical barriers would include such disturbances as static on the Radio, smeared ink in a newspaper, a rolling screen on television, a barely readable point-size, or a film projector or video that does not function perfectly.

Physiological Barriers

These may result from individuals' personal discomfort, caused—for example—by ill health, poor eyesight or hearing difficulties.

Presentation of information

Presentation of information is important to aid understanding. Simply put, the communicator must consider the audience before making the presentation itself and in cases where it is not possible the presenter can at least try to simplify his/her vocabulary so that the majority can understand.

Check your Progress

1. How do the barriers affect the communication process?

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2. How the words act as barriers of communication?

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3. Why the presentation of information is important in communication?

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4.3. Concept of Selective Perception, Exposure, Retention

Selective Exposure Theory

Selective exposure theory is a theory of communication, positing that individuals prefer exposure to arguments supporting their position over those supporting other positions. As media consumers have more choices to expose themselves to selected medium and media contents with which they agree, they tend to select content that confirms their own ideas and avoid information that argues against their opinion. People don't want to be told that they are wrong and they do not want their ideas to be challenged either. Therefore, they select different media outlets that agree with their opinions so they do not come in contact with this form of dissonance.

Furthermore, these people will select the media sources that agree with their opinions and attitudes on different subjects and then only follow those programs. "It is crucial that communication scholars arrive at a more comprehensive and deeper understanding of consumer selectivity if we are to have any hope of mastering entertainment theory in the next iteration of the information age. Essentially, understanding selective-exposure theory is a prerequisite for constructing a useful psychology of entertainment."

Foundation of Theory

The Evasion of Propaganda

When prejudiced people confront anti-prejudice propaganda involuntarily, even though they might avoid the message from the first time, the process of evasion would occur in their mind. Cooper and Jahoda (1947) studied how the anti-prejudice propaganda can be misunderstood by prejudiced people. When the prejudiced reader confronted the Mr. Biggott cartoon, which contained anti-minority propaganda, their effort to evade their feelings and understand Mr. Biggott's identification with their own identity would bring about misunderstanding. This kind of evasion occurs because of what individuals often face to accomplish uniformity in everyday life. There is a fear to be isolated from what they belong and also threat for shivering their ego. Therefore, the concept of selective exposure was in the same thread with small effect studies in mass communication in 1940s.

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Cognitive Dissonance Theory

Before the selective exposure theory was put forward, Festinger (1957) published a book, *Theory of Cognitive Dissonance*, and explained the cognitive dissonance theory, which assumes that all human beings pursue consistency in their mind.

- ◆ Basic Hypotheses
- ◆ It is a state of mental unease and discomfort which helps explain selective perception. It is produced when new information contradicts existing beliefs, attitudes, social norms, or behaviors.
- ◆ Many times people favor consonance because their ideas flow freely into one another and do not create an unbalance.
- ◆ The existence of dissonance, being psychologically uncomfortable, will motivate the person to try to reduce the dissonance and achieve consonance.
- ◆ When dissonance is present, in addition to trying to reduce it, the person will actively avoid situations and information that would likely increase the dissonance.

Festinger's cognitive dissonance theory, which was one of the roots of selective exposure, explained people's effort to reduce their dissonance of something against their existing beliefs. Nonetheless, his theory was broad enough to be elucidated in general social behavior, not just for selecting medium and media contents. Festinger suggested situations that increase dissonance. Firstly, logical inconsistency brings about dissonance. If a person who believes it is not possible to build a device to leave Earth's atmosphere observes man reach the moon, their belief and experience are dissonant with each other. Secondly, cultural morals entail dissonance. A person picks up a chicken bone with their hands, and it is dissonant with what they believe is formal etiquette. At this point, culture defines what is consonant and what is dissonant. Thirdly, if specific opinion is included in a more general opinion, dissonance should be followed. A person, who has been Democrat, prefers Republican candidates for certain election. This situation creates dissonance, because "Being a Democrat" needs to be attributed to favoring Democratic candidates. Lastly, past experience causes dissonance. If a person is standing in the rain, but is not wet, these two cognitions would be dissonant, because they might know standing in the rain leads to getting wet through past experience. Festinger (1957) also suggests the ways of reducing dissonance. For reducing dissonance, one may change a behavioral cognitive element or change an environmental cognitive element. However, sometimes, behavior change and environmental change do not help reducing dissonance. Festinger, then, suggested adding new cognitive elements. If people cannot reduce dissonance, they might seek new information, which is consonant with their beliefs or attitude; therefore, people might actively seek new information that would decrease dissonance and avoid new information that would increase dissonance. This third explanation of reducing dissonance is similar with selective exposure, which mass communication reinforces the existing opinion.

- ◆ Another example of the Cognitive Dissonance Theory can be found in the article entitled, "Theories of Persuasion," by Daniel J. O'Keefe. It describes the different theories of persuasion and how media outlets use them to their advantage to influence their audience. The author's example is that people donate to the Red Cross because they believe in what it stands for which represents consonance. However, on the other hand, the author suggests that a person, who smokes and also believes it causes cancer, would be an example of dissonance and hypocrisy. Many times people try to sway against dissonance because it puts them in an uncomfortable position. Therefore, these feelings of consonance and dissonance lead to the "Selective Exposure Theory" because some believe that people will select the media sources that agree with their opinions and attitudes on different subjects and then only follow those programs.

Klapper's Selective Exposure

Joseph Klapper (1960) considered mass communication do not directly influence people, but just reinforce people's predisposition. Mass communications play a role as a mediator in persuasive communication.

Klapper's five mediating factors and conditions to affect people

- ◆ Predispositions and the related processes of selective exposure, selective perception, and selective retention.
- ◆ The groups and the norms of groups, to which the audience members belong.
- ◆ Interpersonal dissemination of the content of communication
- ◆ The exercise of opinion leadership
- ◆ The nature of mass media in a free enterprise society.

Three basic concepts

- ◆ Selective exposure - people keep away from communication of opposite hue.
- ◆ Selective Perception - If people are confronting unsympathetic material, they do not perceive it, or make it fit for their existing opinion.
- ◆ Selective retention - Furthermore, they just simply forget the unsympathetic material.

Groups and group norms work as a mediator. For example, one can be strongly disinclined to change to the Democratic Party if their family has voted for Republican for a long time. In this case, the person's predisposition to the political party is already set, so they don't perceive information about Democratic Party or change voting behavior because of mass communication. Klapper's third assumption is interpersonal dissemination of mass communication. If someone is already exposed by close friends, which creates predisposition toward something, it will lead increase of exposure to mass communication and eventually reinforce the existing opinion.

Opinion leader is also a crucial factor to form predisposition of someone, lead someone to be exposed by mass communication, and after all, existing opinion would be reinforced. Nature of commercial mass media also leads people to select certain type of media contents. Klapper (1960) claimed that people are selecting entertainment, such as family comedy, variety shows, quizzes, and Westerns, because of nature of mass media in a free enterprise society.

Selective Exposure in Entertainment Theory Perspective

Selective exposure is an instinctive activity of human beings. Early human beings needed to be sensitive to the sounds of animals. This kind of exposure was closely related with their survival from an external threat. Survival is still a very crucial matter for human beings; however, selective exposure is also important for human beings for other purposes, such as entertainment.

"Selective exposure designates behavior that is deliberately performed to attain and sustain perceptual control of particular stimulus events." Zillmann and Bryant, 1985

Affective-dependent Theory of Stimulus Arrangement

Zillmann and Bryant (1985) developed affective-dependent theory of stimulus arrangement in the chapter of their edited book, *Selective exposure to communication*.

Basic Assumptions

- ◆ People tend to minimize exposure to negative, aversive stimuli
- ◆ People tend to maximize exposure to pleasurable stimuli.

After all, people try to arrange the external stimuli to maintain their pleasure, which ultimately let people select certain affect-inducing program, such as music, movie, or other entertainment program. In other words, people manage their mood by selecting certain kind of entertainment to expose themselves; mood management theory was also rooted by this affective-dependent theory.

Furthermore, people will select media based on their moods. An example of this is if a person is happy they would probably select a comedic movie. If they are bored they might choose action and if they are sad they might select tragedy or a depressing romance. These attitudes and moods also convince people to watch different news outlets based on how they feel. People with conservative beliefs tend to watch Fox news and Democrats usually watch MSNBC.

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Examples:

- ◆ A person with liberal beliefs, who comes home from a hard day at work, will probably turn on MSNBC. They would not be in the mood to fight with a news station that has conservative beliefs constantly being portrayed.
- ◆ A woman who just broke up with her boyfriend would probably not be in the mood to watch a romantic movie and would therefore tend to pick a movie that falls into the genre of tragedy.

Selective Exposure Processes in Mood Management

- ◆ Excitatory Homeostasis - Tendency of individuals to choose entertainment to achieve an optimal level of arousal.
- ◆ Intervention Potential - Ability of a message to engage or absorb an aroused individual's attention or cognitive-processing resources.
- ◆ Message-Behavioral Affinity - Communication that has a high degree of similarity with affective state.
- ◆ Hedonic Valence - Positive or negative nature of a message.

Critiques

- ◆ Possible influence by factors other than a person's emotional state.
- ◆ Difficulty to measure long-term effect.
- ◆ Overlook the importance of cognitive processes.
- ◆ Not suit for information and education media.
- u Possibility that negative stimuli provide enjoyment by overcoming it.

Selective Perception

Selective perception may refer to any number of cognitive biases in psychology related to the way expectations affect perception. For instance, several studies have shown that students who were told they were consuming alcoholic beverages (which in fact were non-alcoholic) perceived themselves as being "drunk", exhibited fewer physiological symptoms of social stress, and drove a simulated car similarly to other subjects who had actually consumed alcohol. The result is somewhat similar to the placebo effect.

In one classic study on this subject related to the hostile media effect (which is itself an excellent example of selective perception), viewers watched a filmstrip of a particularly violent Princeton-Dartmouth American football game. Princeton viewers reported seeing nearly twice as many rule infractions committed by the Dartmouth team than did Dartmouth viewers. One Dartmouth alumnus did not see any infractions committed by the Dartmouth side and erroneously assumed he had been sent only part of the film, sending word requesting the rest.

Selective perception is also an issue for advertisers, as consumers may engage with some ads and not others based on their pre-existing beliefs about the brand. Seymour Smith, a prominent advertising researcher, found evidence for selective perception in advertising research in the early 1960s, and he defined it to be "a procedure by which people let in, or screen out, advertising material they have an opportunity to see or hear. They do so because of their attitudes, beliefs, usage preferences and habits, conditioning, etc."

People who like, buy, or are considering buying a brand are more likely to notice advertising than are those who are neutral toward the brand. This fact has repercussions within the field of advertising research because any post-advertising analysis that examines the differences in attitudes or buying behavior among those aware versus those unaware of advertising is flawed unless pre-existing differences are controlled for. Advertising research methods that utilize a longitudinal design are arguably better equipped to control for selective perception.

Selective perceptions are of two types:

- ◆ Low level - Perceptual vigilance
- ◆ High level - Perceptual defense

Selective retention

Selective retention, in relating to the mind, is the process when people more accurately remember messages that are closer to their interests, values and beliefs, than those that are in contrast with their values and beliefs, selecting what to keep in the memory, narrowing the informational flow.

Such examples could include:

- ◆ A person may gradually reflect more positively on their time at school as they grow older
- ◆ A consumer might remember only the positive health benefits of a product they enjoy
- ◆ People tending to omit problems and disputes in past relationships
- ◆ A conspiracy theorist paying less attention to facts which do not aid their standpoint

Outside of the theory of memory and mind: Selective retention may also be retaining of contractual agreements upon moving on in open politics or of physical phenotypes in eugenic methods of propagation of traits and features of a genome, among other fields where action can impose a strata of creative limitation.

Check your Progress

4. Define Selective exposure theory.

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5. What is meant by Selective retention?

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4.4. Summary

Effective communication should generate the desired effect and maintain the effect, with the potential to increase the effect of the message. Therefore, effective communication serves the purpose for which it was planned or designed. Possible purposes might be to elicit change, generate action, create understanding, inform or communicate a certain idea or point of view. When the desired effect is not achieved, factors such as barriers to communication are explored, with the intention being to discover how the communication has been ineffective.

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

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

4.5. Key Words

1. **Barriers** : 'Barrriers' are any obstacles or difficulties that come in the way of communication.

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2. Effective Communication : Effective communication occurs when a desired effect is the result of intentional or unintentional information sharing, which is interpreted between multiple entities and acted on in a desired way.

3. Physical Barriers : Physical barriers are often due to the nature of the environment.

4. Language : A language is the expression of the thoughts and experiences of a people in terms of their cultural environment.

5. Attitudinal barriers : Attitudinal barriers come about as a result of problems with staff in an organization.

4.6. Answers to Check Your Progress

1. Barriers to effective communication can retard or distort the message and intention of the message being conveyed which may result in failure of the communication process or an effect that is undesirable. These include filtering, selective perception, information overload, emotions, language, silence, communication apprehension, gender differences and political correctness.
2. Words sounding the same but having different meaning can convey a different meaning altogether. Hence the communicator must ensure that the receiver receives the same meaning. It is better if such words are avoided by using alternatives whenever possible.
3. Presentation of information is important to aid understanding. Simply put, the communicator must consider the audience before making the presentation itself and in cases where it is not possible the presenter can at least try to simplify his/her vocabulary so that the majority can understand.
4. Selective exposure theory is a theory of communication, positing that individuals prefer exposure to arguments supporting their position over those supporting other positions.
5. Selective retention, in relating to the mind, is the process when people more accurately remember messages that are closer to their interests, values and beliefs, than those that are in contrast with their values and beliefs, selecting what to keep in the memory, narrowing the informational flow.

4.7. Terminal Questions

1. Write an essay on the barriers to communication.
2. Explain different types of barriers which affect the communication process.
3. Describe the concept of selective perception.
4. Discuss the concept of selective exposure.
5. Examine the concept of selective retention.

4.8. Further Readings

1. Mass Communication; Keval J.Kumar
2. The News Paper - An international history; Anthony smith
3. Mass communication and journalism; D.S.Mehta in India.
4. Introduction to Communication Studies; John Fiske
5. Communication Models; Uma Narula