Media Evolution and Trends

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SYLLABUS

Definition and Role of Media
Definition of Media; Media and Social Change; Origins of the Newspaper; Freedoms and Restraints; Freedoms and Restraints.

The Printed Word and Alternative Ideas
From Ideographic Symbols to Syllabic Symbols: the Need for People to Learn their use before they could be used for Communicating; the Printed Word and the Creation of Alternative Ideas; Media and Literacy.

The Global Media
Media Software: From Yellow Journalism to Advocacy Journalism; Media as a Commodity; Narrowcasting; Public Relations and Media.

The Press in India
The Nationalist Press in India; Emergency and the Defining Moment for the Indian Press; the Satellite TV and Cable Explosion; Evolution of Media Laws through the Years.

Technological Evolution
Technological Evolution in Media; Gutenberg’s Movable Type and the Print Revolution; Marconi; Hertz and Radio; Invention of the TV Set; Transistors; and ICs; Miniaturization and their Impact on Media; Internet.

Media Economics
Media Distribution: The Story from Marathon to Multi-Edition Dailies; Emergence of Penny Press and the Concept of Ads to Pay for Production; Who’s Watching? Readership and Viewer-Ship; Public Service Broadcasting; Media Economics: Olympics and Television.

Suggested Readings:
As the cliché goes, the mass media is playing an increasingly larger role in our life. But to locate ourselves within media we must become acquainted with where we are coming from and the direction that media is taking. It will help us to decide upon which branch of the road to take when we arrive at a fork. This course has been called media evolution rather than media history since the term 'history' could signify an emphasis on the past. We are concerned with the past only to the extent that it helps us to chart out the future course in the present. A study of the development and evolution of media brings out several interesting parallels. The invention of the printing machine, for example, brought about a great change in the ways that men communicated with each other. Exchange of ideas changed the way in which societies and governments were organised. Feudalism gave way to capitalism and democracy. Competing goods entered the market place and competing ideas were thrown into the market place of ideas. Democracy brought with it the free exchange of ideas and the concept of the freedom of the press. The press offered the people a means of keeping an eye on the whether their representatives were in fact acting in accordance with their wishes.

The invention of radio brought about another great change in the way that people communicated with each other. For the first time one could communicate in what is called real time over large distances. In other words events could be covered live. While radio was an audio medium, television raised communication to a new level. Now images and sounds could be transmitted in real time. Thanks to television and satellites, people in Europe could watch the funeral of American President John F. Kennedy. The world was really becoming the ‘global village’ – a term that was coined by communication theorist Marshall McLuhan. People in all parts of the world were becoming keenly aware of others who looked and sounded quite similar to themselves in many ways. Cultures crossed physical boundaries. World Cup football, once limited to Europe and South America, has truly become a global phenomenon. Youngsters in India sit up past midnight to watch European Cup football matches. We all saw the collapse of the World Trade Centre towers in New York in 2001. The enormity of the crime and the terror was felt in each one of us who saw it. The horrors of the World War One and World War Two were not felt in the same way. The Vietnam War, on the other hand, came during the age of television and created upheavals in American society.

In Asia and Africa, centuries old social structures have started to break up after the television and cable explosion. New ways of organising the social structure are gradually coming into being. Great migrations from rural to urban areas are taking place. Lifestyles have undergone a change in ways in which it is not yet fully comprehended.

Right now we are passing through the internet revolution. It not only allows us to download entertainment on our personal computers but also provides access to a worldwide network of information. Writing letters has become instantaneous, a step behind actually carrying out a face-to-face conversation. But wait. We can even chat on the internet with people who are half way across the globe. This was unthinkable even a generation back. We can shop sitting at our desk at home. What happens to window shopping? How, in other words, will the internet affect or lives? We could get some answers if we look at the way similar changes have affected life in the past.
# MEDIA EVOLUTION AND TRENDS

## CONTENT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lesson No.</th>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Page No.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lesson 1</td>
<td>Definition of Media</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson 2</td>
<td>Has the Media Changed the World? Media and Social Change</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson 3</td>
<td>Origins of the Newspaper</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson 4</td>
<td>Evolution of Media’s Freedoms and Restraints</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson 5</td>
<td>From Ideographic Symbols to Syllabic Symbols</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson 6</td>
<td>The Printed Word and the Creation of Alternative Ideas</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson 7</td>
<td>Media and Literacy</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson 8</td>
<td>From Yellow Journalism to Advocacy Journalism</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson 9</td>
<td>Media as a Commodity</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson 10</td>
<td>Narrowcasting</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson 11</td>
<td>Public Relations and Media</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson 12</td>
<td>The Nationalist Press in India</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson 13</td>
<td>Emergency and the Defining Moment for the Indian Press</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson 14</td>
<td>Satellite and Cable Television</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson 15</td>
<td>Evolution of Media laws Through the Years</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson 16</td>
<td>Technological Evolution in Media</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson 17</td>
<td>Gutenberg’s Movable Type and the Print Revolution</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson 18</td>
<td>Marconi, Hertz and Radio</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson 19</td>
<td>Invention of the TV Set, Transistors, IC’s, Miniaturisation and Their Impact on Media</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson 20</td>
<td>Internet</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson 21</td>
<td>Media distribution - The story from Marathon to Multi-edition Dailies</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson 22</td>
<td>Emergence of Penny Press and the Concept of Ads (Advertising and Media)</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## CONTENT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lesson No.</th>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Page No.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lesson 23</td>
<td>Who is watching? (Readership and viewer-ship)</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson 24</td>
<td>Public service broadcasting</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson 25</td>
<td>Olympics and Television</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
LESSON 1:
DEFINITION OF MEDIA

Communication is one of the most important features of life. A baby cries to communicate its hunger. Its cries, therefore is vital to its survival. But it is not just a one-way process. When the mother hears her baby crying she tries to make out whether it is because of hunger or because it is suffering from some other discomfort. She administers to the baby in accordance with her interpretation of the cry that it is communicating. So communication is a two-way process where the response is part of the process.

The cry of the baby is a message. So is the advertisement we see on television. Or the pop music programme on radio, or the speech of a politician, or the instruction imparted by a teacher in class, or the complaint that is registered when there is a power failure in the home or the newspaper that is dropped at our doors daily. The only difference we find in these varying kinds of messages is what is called the medium. When we speak or hear someone talking the medium used is air through which the sound waves travel. Sound is not transmitted through vacuum. When we talk on the telephone the medium used is a combination of air and electromagnetic waves. Newspapers are ink on paper. The language we use is also the medium. The Morse Code with its dots and dashes is a medium too. In short medium is the means of sending information. When the medium is a technology that carries messages to a large number of people – as do copies of newspapers or radio programmes heard in thousands and millions of homes – it becomes a mass medium.

The mass media we use regularly use include radio, television, books, magazines, newspapers, movies, sound recordings and computer networks. The idea underlying each one is the same – a message that is transmitted to a large number of people at the same time. As you read the morning’s newspapers you know that copies of the same newspaper is being read in at least half a million homes and offices at the same time. Or the popular soaps on television or the evening news bulletin. During the days in India when television had not yet spread it was the 8 o’clock news bulletin in the morning and the 9 O’clock bulletin in the evening that had the largest number of listeners tuning in.

Many different varieties of messages are passed on to large populations through the mass media. It could be the news – which essentially consists of information and perhaps an investigative story or two – or it could be a never-ending serial whose attraction lies in their characters rather than storylines. It could be a commercial film that aims mainly for profit or it could be an art film that explores (at the risk of commercial failures) new ways of film-making. The messages are largely part of a culture – reinforcing or reinterpreting the dominant cultures of societies.

That the mass media plays an enormously large role in our lives is undeniable. There are an estimated 100 million television sets in our own country which translates into about 400 million viewers. Typically a large majority of these viewers would tune in when an India-Pakistan cricket match is being shown. More than 115 million copies of newspapers and periodicals are read in India every day. Assuming a readership of 5 per copy, about 500 million people are reading printed newspapers and magazines every day. That is nearly half of India’s population.

Technology and Media
Technology plays an important role in the media. Some people believe that technology precedes the spread of ideas. While no opinion can be expressed about this one way or the other there is no denying that technology does play an important role in the way messages are transmitted and received. See below the example of how some terrorists are using the internet:

Extremists Using Web to Spread Terror
Sarah El Deeb, Associated Press Writer
MANAMA, Bahrain - Web sites featuring videos of the beheading of Americans or captives pleading for their lives have become part of an electronic war of incitement, humiliation and terrorist outreach, experts say, providing a window into the minds of militant Muslims who hate the West.

The latest dramatic Web posting came Saturday, a short video that showed no faces but included a voice yelling in English: “No, no, please!”

The video showed a shot fired, then the scene of the falling body of what appeared to be a Western man - identified as Robert Jacobs, an American killed by suspected al-Qaida militants in Saudi Arabia last week. Two gunmen then fired at least 10 more shots, before one of them knelt and motioned as if he was beheading the fallen man.

An earlier video showed the beheading of American Nicholas Berg in Iraq (news - web sites). The CIA (news - web sites) has said the black-clad militant shown on the video decapitating Berg was Abu Musab al-Zarqawi, a former commander for al-Qaida leader Osama bin Laden (news - web sites) now believed to be leading resistance to Iraq’s U.S. occupation.

“The aim is really to spread as much terror as possible and make it available to as many people as possible, especially in the West,” where Internet use is more common, said Dia’a Rashwan, a Cairo expert on Islamic militants.

In what Rashwan calls a a war of “ideology, images and perception,” the Web is a place for militants and their sympathizers to exchange the latest news, debate their definition of Islam, share how-to manuals, extoll their heroes and vilify their enemies.

Images of American soldiers pointing guns at children, Iraqi prisoners being tortured, and Muslim rebels in the Philippines...
being decapitated pop up again and again. Contributors sign off with pictures of bin Laden or large machine guns.

Militants can put images on the Internet most TV news producers would consider too shocking to televise. The Internet, though, also can be subject to censorship.

Postings signed by the Saudi branch of al-Qaeda — everything from claims of responsibility for attacks in the kingdom to training and diet menus for a fit fighter — started popping up on a sub-domain of a Qatar-based Web-hosting company run by Murad Alazzeh.

Alazzeh told The Associated Press he shut down one of his two servers after his site was repeatedly hacked. He said he has cut subscribers from 48,000 to 4,000.

The Web savvy, though, have ways around the gatekeepers. The Malaysian company that hosted the site on which the Berg beheading video was first posted shut it down days later, but surfers combing Islamic forums could find it elsewhere.

Contributors on forums or chat rooms alert one another to the latest postings. Links are sometimes written in a kind of code, with letters or numerals missing from addresses. The initiated or the patient can figure out what’s missing by perusing the rest of the posting.

Experts say Islamic groups were among the first in the Arab world to realize the importance of staying connected. Egypt’s Muslim Brotherhood uses dozens of Web sites to post literature banned by the government. Lebanon’s Hezbollah is known for the sophistication of the propaganda on its Web site.

Until the site was taken over by an American hacker, one site appeared to be the place where al-Qaeda reported on developments in fighting in Afghanistan (news - web sites), and, some law enforcement officials believe, posted low-priority information for its to fighters. Some top al-Qaeda operatives were trained as cyber specialists.

The mushrooming of the sites and forums is an indication of the growing number of people who sympathize with militants who argue Islam is under attack in the West, said Rashwan.

Young, educated, unemployed people can spend hours managing or contributing to such sites from their own homes, rather than traveling to Iraq or Afghanistan to do battle. Their targets are people like them in the developing world — educated and disenfranchised — and Westerners.

“They have no other part in holy war. Electronic holy war is their contribution,” said Rashwan, whose book “Electronic Jihad” is to be published soon in Arabic and was to be translated into English soon.

Some say the sites may offer well-hidden clues about coming attacks. Other experts say they have little to do with terrorist operations or planning, but prepare the ground for recruiting.

“Over time, the propaganda is part of the conveyor belt to encourage people to figure out where they can join,” said John Pike, director of GlobalSecurity.org, an Alexandria, Virginia, research center on security issues.

While Net cops have many monitoring tools, those who want to hide their identities and intentions can do so on the Web.

“It is difficult to know when a statement is posted, it is difficult to know if this is someone who has sworn allegiance to (bin Laden). ... It is difficult to understand who is the ultimate sponsor,” Pike said.

Now that is use of a new media that has come into popular use — the internet. But can we say that the internet gave rise to terrorism or extremism. All that can be said is that it offered extremism a medium to spread their message. Did the message on the internet have the desired effect. Many video clips of Americans captured by underground terror groups have been shown on television and the internet. It did have an impact on the families of those being held hostage. It can be assumed that this builds up enormous public pressure on the US administration to meet the demands of the extremists. Television and internet have helped to make the use of terror more effective. And it has also become anonymous in the sense that terrorists no longer select particular targets. A bomb is set off in a shopping arcade. Those setting off the blast are not concerned that many innocent lives of people including women and children may be lost. They are more interested in the impact that it will create from the media coverage that is a certainty. Their eventual aim is to create public pressure on the government to settle the problem at terms more favourable to themselves.

Witness the hijacking of the Indian place to Kandahar in 2000. As the hijacking was constantly shown on television, the relatives of the hostages naturally built up pressure on the government. To a great extent it imposed severe limitations on the options left to the government to deal with the situation.

The Role of Money

Money plays an important role in the media as it tends to shift the balance of power to the owners from the audience. Audiences become products rather than human beings with various kinds of needs and aspirations. For commercial success the media has to show or print what people like to the exclusion of new ideas with their associated risks. That severely hampers a process believed to be crucial to the democratic system — the dissemination of ideas from diverse sources. More and more those ideas tend to get projected that help economic interests that control media. The popular interest takes a backseat.

Globalisation, audience fragmentation and convergence are the trends that are being observed in the media these days. Large multinational conglomerates have acquired a lion’s share in the media. Thus many programme software are shown across cultural and national boundaries.

There are changes in the composition of audiences as well. With the advent of television, magazines offering limited text and more pictures switched over to finding new audiences since television could do better what they had been doing. So the magazines and radio targeted smaller audiences that were alike in some important characteristics — sports lovers, or skiers, or internet users, or those with an interest in automobiles and auto sports. This phenomenon is known as narrowcasting, niche marketing or targeting.

A look at the print media in India will be enough indication of its impact on the lives of the people.
General Review

In a democracy, the print media plays a vital role in building public opinion by way of dissemination of information to the public. Uncensored News, fearless Editorial criticisms and other articles published in the Newspapers and Magazines, influence the day-to-day governance of the country to a great extent. In India also, the significance of the fourth estate as the inevitable pillar of democracy and the freedom it enjoys, have contributed to the consistent growth of the Print media. It is the print media which is easily accessible and has a more lasting effect on the people than any momentary or oft-repeated events in the visual media. This media has now moulded itself to suit the requirements of the recent Internet revolution and is growing with its readership always on the rise.

The publishers under Section 19D of the Press and Registration of Books Act, 1867, submit Annual Statements to the Registrar of Newspapers for India. These Annual Statements are the principal source of data for compilation of this Report. However, all publishers do not submit their Annual Statements to this office and the RNI has not been able to verify each bit of information, given in the Annual Statements and therefore, this report cannot claim to be an authentic data bank. It can be described as indicative of the general trend.

In this report, data of registered newspapers and the annual statements received from the newly created states of Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand and Uttarakhand have also been included. Consequently, there is a decrease in the number of newspapers pertaining to the pre-divided states of Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh and Bihar.

In 2001, the growth of newspapers and periodicals was steady over the previous years, at 5.73 per cent. It is seen that the number of registered publications rose by 2815 from 49,145 in 2000 to 51,960 in 2001. Only nine newspapers reported ceasing of publications. The total circulation of publications showed a decrease of 9.22 per cent from 12,69,63,763 copies in 2000 to 11,52,53,948 copies in 2001. This decrease obviously is attributable to lesser Annual Statements received this year from 5055 papers as compared to 5915 in 2000.

Analysis of Daily Newspapers

Over the years, the number of Dailies has steadily increased. Their number increased to 5638 in 2001 from 5364 in the previous year, i.e. by 5.11 per cent. The total circulation of daily newspapers decreased from 5,91,29,183 copies in 2000 to 5,78,44,236 in 2001, i.e. by almost 12.85 lakh copies or 2.17 per cent.

The number of Tri and Bi-Weekly increased marginally from 339 in 2000 to 348 in 2001 but their total circulation decreased from 7,84,144 copies in 2000 to 5,15,701 copies in 2001, i.e. by 34.23 per cent.

Analysis of Periodicals

The majority of Indian newspapers were periodicals. Their number also increased, from 43,442 in 2000 to 45,974 in 2001, i.e. by 5.83 per cent. Out of these, as many as 18,582 were Weeklies, 6,881 Fortnightlies, 14,634 Monthlies, 3,634 Quarterlies, 469 Annuals and 1,774 were of other periodicities.

Circulation of periodicals showed a decrease, from 6,70,50,436 copies in 2000 to 5,68,94,011 copies (by 15.15 per cent) in 2001 in which Weeklies were leading with 3,24,16,604 copies, followed by Monthlies (1,34,21,269), Fortnightlies (84,52,754), Annuals (8,89,082), Quarterlies (6,69,799) and other periodicals (10,45,503 copies).

Periodicals comprised a staggering 72.19 per cent of total number of registered publications that furnished data to the RNI for 2001 but accounted for 49.36 per cent of their total circulation.

Language-wise Analysis

Newspapers were published in as many as 101 languages and dialects during 2001. Apart from English and 18 other principal languages, listed in the Eighth Schedule of the Constitution, newspapers were also published in 82 other languages, dialects and in a few foreign languages.

As in the previous years, the highest number of newspapers came out in Hindi (20,589), followed by English (7,596), Marathi (2,943), Urdu (2,906), Bengali (2,741), Gujarati (2,215), Tamil (2,119), Kannada (1,816), Malayalam (1,505) and Telugu (1,289).

In circulation too, Hindi newspapers continued to lead with 4,70,06,395 copies in 2001, followed by English with 2,30,94,261 copies. Malayalam Press with 72,53,625 copies came third.

Among daily newspapers, the first place went to those in Hindi, totaling 2507 in 2001. Urdu dailies numbering 534 came second and those in English (407) came third. Languages, having more than 100 daily publications in 2001, were Marathi (395), Tamil (366), Kannada (364), Malayalam (225), Telugu (180), Gujarati (159), Punjabi (107) and Bengali (103). In circulation also, the Hindi daily Press maintained its dominance with 2,33,82,867 copies, or 40.42 per cent of total circulation of dailies. English dailies claimed the second position, with a circulation of 87,01,803 copies.

State-wise

During 2001, the largest number of newspapers were published from Uttar Pradesh (8397), followed by Delhi (6926), Maharashtra (6018) and Madhya Pradesh (3555). Other States, having more than 1000 newspapers each in the order of their number were West Bengal (3738), Rajasthan (3310), Tamil Nadu (2838), Karnataka (2556), Andhra Pradesh (2398), Gujarat (2257), Kerala (1854), Bihar (1513), Punjab (1204) and Haryana (1036).

The Press in Uttar Pradesh with a circulation of 1,95,26,101 copies retained its top position in 2001. Delhi Press came second, with 1,81,85,029 copies and Maharashtra Press third with 1,50,73,613 copies.

Uttar Pradesh continued to have the largest number of daily newspapers (841), followed by Maharashtra (573), Karnataka (479), Madhya Pradesh (443), Rajasthan (431), Bihar (372), Tamil Nadu (384), Andhra Pradesh (352), Delhi (312), Kerala (226), Gujarat (179), West Bengal (167), Punjab (133), Haryana (122) and Orissa (109). Dailies from Uttar Pradesh with a total circulation of 77,88,600 copies were at the top, followed by Maharashtra 74,52,904, Delhi 56,22,907 and Gujarat 40,50,253.
The Press in Delhi and Maharashtra had the distinction of publishing newspapers in 17 out of 19 principal languages. Delhi and Orissa came next, with newspapers in 16 languages. Newspapers in 15 principal languages were published from Tamil Nadu, 14 from Andhra Pradesh & West Bengal, 12 from Karnataka and 10 from Kerala. Another interesting feature of the Press in India in 2001 is that as many as 6794 newspapers were published from Uttar Pradesh in a single language (Hindi) followed by Madhya Pradesh (3342 in Hindi), Rajasthan (3016 in Hindi), Maharashtra (2867 in Marathi and 1411 in English), Delhi (2810 in Hindi and 2529 in English), and West Bengal (2508 in Bengali). The States publishing more than 1000 newspapers in a single language were Tamil Nadu (1994 in Tamil), Gujarat (1955 in Gujarati), Karnataka (1764 in Kannada), Kerala (1410 in Malayalam), Bihar (1220 in Hindi) and Andhra Pradesh (1199 in Telugu).

Circulation
Out of 5055 newspapers who submitted their annual return, circulation data was furnished by 4780 newspapers only. Of these, 275 were ‘big’, 954 ‘medium’ and 3551 were ‘small’. The ‘big’ ones circulated 4,86,85,163 copies, the ‘medium’ ones 3,99,51,182 copies, and ‘small’ ones 2,66,17,603 copies, i.e. 42.24 per cent, 34.66 percent and 23.10 per cent of the total, respectively.

In the ‘big’ category were 169 Dailies and Tri or Bi-weeklies. In the ‘medium’ category, the number stood at 573 and in ‘small’ category 587. The ‘big’ dailies had a share of 46.11 per cent in the total circulation of the Daily Press, the ‘medium’ accounted for 42.05 per cent and the small only 11.84 per cent.

The Hindu, an English daily, published from Chennai and printed at Chennai, Coimbatore, Hyderabad, Bangalore, Madurai, Vishakhapatnam, Delhi, Thiruvananthapuram and Kochi was the largest circulated single edition daily with claimed circulation of 9,37,222 followed by Hindustan Times, English Daily, published from Delhi and printed at New Delhi, Chandigarh, Bhopal, Jaipur, Raipur, Kolkata, Ranchi, Muzaffarpur, Bhagalpur, Varanasi and Patna with a circulation of 9,09,278. Anand Bazar Patrika, Bengali Daily, published from Kolkata came third with a circulation of 8,76,727, whereas The Times of India, English Daily, published from Delhi was fourth with a circulation of 8,43,874 copies.

The Times of India with nine editions and a total circulation of 21,52,046 copies came first among multi-edition dailies. Malayala Manorama with nine edition claiming a circulation of 12,72,823 copies was at second. Dainik Jagaran with eleven edition and a total circulation of 12,72,715 copies occupied the third position.

Assignment
Find five examples from recent times that show the use of the media by terrorist groups. Find five examples of the government using the media.
LESSON 2:
HAS THE MEDIA CHANGED THE WORLD?
(MEDIA AND SOCIAL CHANGE)

There is reasonable clarity about what is the mass media. But one vital question still remains to be answered - what does it do to us? Or does it do anything to us at all?

If we scan today’s newspaper headlines can you spot any item that could make a difference in your life?

Can you remember some important reports in the media (TV radio or newspapers/magazines) that have made any difference to people?

Some stories that made a dramatic difference:

1. Watergate scandal resulted in the resignation of the most powerful man in the world - Mr. Richard Nixon, the president of the United States from 1968 – it was revealed by two reporters of the Washington Post Bob Woodward and Carl Bernstein that to serve its selfish interests the Republican administration was prying into the private lives of people - unacceptable to the American public who value privacy over anything else.

2. Bofors scandal - allegations of bribery in purchase of Bofors guns in the mass media is said to have been one of the reasons why Rajiv Gandhi lost in the 1989 Lok Sabha elections

3. Kaun Banega Crorepati - Suddenly the visual medium ‘showed’ the Great Indian Middle Class that it was possible to translate their material dreams into instant reality... merely pushing a few cellphone buttons.

4. The increasing popularity of Valentine’s Day among middle class Indians

Media has a particularly vital role to play in a democracy. In a democracy the rule is by the people. But his control comes once in five years - when he votes. How does he remain in control the rest of the time? Through public debates for which the media is a platform. Media in acts as a watchdog. An eye has to be kept on people in power who often tend to misuse it in the absence of checks.

The performance of this watchdog role was most dramatically seen in what has now come to be known as ‘yellow journalism’. This genre of journalism came into vogue in early 20th century United States and owes its name to a cartoon strip drawn by an artist called Occault. Yellow journalism represented two things at the same time. The first was that it aimed to expose corruption by people in power at a time when business was expanding and government role too was spreading. This naturally led to abuse of power for personal gain. By exposing corruption in high two American journals - New York World and New York Journal - hoped to increase their readership by projecting an image of being crusading journalism. Yellow journalism also symbolised crass commercialism in the form of a competition between the two papers run by Joseph Pulitzer and Randolph Hearst. In efforts to outdo each other the two papers not only tom-tomed their achievements but also tried to pass outlandish but fictitious stories as facts.

But the difficulty is that often instead of performing its watchdog role the press itself comes under the influence of dominant groups in society and acts in a way calculated to perpetuate their dominance.

A more modern example of the watchdog role of the press was seen in what came to be called the Watergate Scandal in the United States of America which nearly resulted in the impeachment of the president.

“Watergate” is a general term used to describe a complex web of political scandals between 1972 and 1974. The word specifically refers to the Watergate Hotel in Washington D.C.

The Burglary

Watergate has entered the political lexicon as a term synonymous with corruption and scandal, yet the Watergate Hotel is one of Washington’s plusher hotels. Even today, it is home to former Senator Bob Dole and was once the place where Monica Lewinsky laid low. It was here that the Watergate Burglars broke into the Democratic Party’s National Committee offices on June 17, 1972. If it had not been for the alert actions of Frank Wills, a security guard, the scandal may never have erupted.

Chronology of Events

The story of Watergate has an intriguing historical and political background, arising out of political events of the 1960s such as Vietnam, and the publication of the Pentagon Papers in 1970. But the chronology of the scandal really begins during 1972, when the burglars were arrested. By 1973, Nixon had been re-elected, but the storm clouds were building. By early 1974, the nation was consumed by Watergate.

Richard Milhous Nixon

Richard Milhous Nixon is one of the most fascinating political figures of the 20th Century. His long political career began in 1947 when he was elected to the House of Representatives. By 1952, Nixon had been chosen as Dwight Eisenhower’s vice-presidential running mate, but nor before he was embroiled in a scandal that led to the infamous Checkers Speech.

Nixon served as Vice-President for eight years, then lost the 1960 election to John F. Kennedy. He recovered from political defeat to be chosen again as the Republican Party’s candidate at the 1968 election. Following a year of turmoil, including two political assassinations, Nixon became the nation’s 37th President on January 20, 1969. Later that year, he delivered his ‘Silent Majority’ speech on the Vietnam War, articulating his belief that the bulk of the American people supported his policies and programs. He was vindicated by winning a landslide re-election. He was sworn in for a second term in January 1973.
Nixon Reacts To Watergate

Nixon made three major speeches on the Watergate scandal during 1973 and 1974. The first was on April 30, 1973, in which he announced the departure of Dean, Haldeman and Ehrlichman. A more defiant speech was delivered on August 15, 1973. Perhaps the politically most difficult speech was the one on April 29, 1974, in which Nixon released partial transcripts of the White House tapes. MORE

The Investigations

Initial investigations of Watergate were heavily influenced by the media, particularly the work of two reporters from the Washington Post, Bob Woodward and Carl Bernstein, along with their mysterious informant, Deep Throat.

Political investigations began in February 1973 when the Senate established a Committee to investigate the Watergate scandal. The public hearings of the Committee were sensational, including the evidence of John Dean, Nixon’s former White House Counsel. The Committee also uncovered the existence of the secret White House tape recordings, sparking a major political and legal battle between the Congress and the President.

In 1974, the House of Representatives authorised the Judiciary Committee to consider impeachment proceedings against Nixon. The work of this Committee was again the spotlight a quarter of a century later when Bill Clinton was impeached. MORE

The Final Days

Nixon’s last days in office came in late July and early August, 1974. The House Judiciary Committee voted to accept three of four proposed Articles of Impeachment, with some Republicans voting with Democrats to recommend impeachment of the President.

The final blow came with the decision by the Supreme Court to order Nixon to release more White House tapes. One of these became known as the ‘smoking gun’ tape when it revealed that Nixon had participated in the Watergate cover-up as far back as June 23, 1972. Around the country, there were calls for Nixon to resign.

At 9pm on the evening of August 8, 1974, Nixon delivered a nationally televised resignation speech. The next morning, he made his final remarks to the White House staff before sending his resignation letter to the Secretary of State, Dr. Henry Kissinger. MORE

Gerald Ford - The Man who Pardoned Nixon

Gerald Ford became the 38th President of the United States when Nixon resigned on August 9, 1974. He was the first Vice-President and the first President to ascend to both positions without being elected. Regarded on all sides of politics as a decent man, Ford will be remembered for his controversial pardon of Richard Nixon. MORE

The Aftermath of Watergate

Watergate had profound consequences in the United States. There was a long list of convictions and other casualties. For example, the aftermath of Watergate ushered in changes in campaign finance reform and a more aggressive attitude by the media. By the time the 25th anniversary of Watergate occurred in 1997, a vast library of books and films existed. Watergate’s influence was felt in the Clinton Impeachment of 1998-99.

Nixon died in 1994 and was eulogised by the political establishment, although he was still a figure of controversy. The investigations into Watergate that led to the resignation of Richard Nixon are a case study in the operation of the American Constitution and political values.

The Aftermath of Watergate

In November 1976, Jimmy Carter defeats Ford to become the 39th president. Read Carter’s Inaugural Address. Some commentators attribute the increased level of cynicism about politics to the Watergate affair.

The media becomes more confident and aggressive. Watergate was unravelled by the Washington Post reporters, Bob Woodward and Carl Bernstein. Their work led to the development of teams of “investigative” reporters on newspapers around the world. “Deep Throat” became an everyday term, referring to the anonymous official who leaked information to Woodward and Bernstein. An excellent article on the possible identity of “Deep Throat” appears in the Washington Post.

A new wave of Democratic congressmen is elected in 1976 and there are dramatic changes in the composition of committee chairmanships.

Many of Nixon’s subordinates are jailed, some discover religion, and others write books.

Political scandals are termed “—gate”.

Nixon sets about rehabilitating his reputation, writing books and travelling the world. He dies on April 22nd 1994 at the age of 81.


In 1995, Oliver Stone produces a film called “Nixon”, starring Anthony Hopkins as Nixon. The film is condemned by the Nixon family.

Former Vice-President Spiro Agnew dies on September 17, 1996, in Berlin, Maryland, aged 77.

More of the White House tapes were released in 1996 and 1997. Read a backgrounder about these tapes and a discussion from The News Hour with Jim Lehrer. The Washington Post also discusses the tapes.


Elliott Richardson, Nixon’s Attorney-General, who defied Nixon’s instruction to dismiss Archibald Cox, dies on December 31, 1999, aged 79.

The role of the media in a democracy becomes clear if one takes a look at how it functions during elections - a time when behind-the-scenes activities are open for viewing to the public. This is the time when factions and faction-fights, jockeying for party tickets and moves and counter moves by parties for alliances and understandings is open for public viewing.
Activity

The 2004 general elections provide a good illustration of messages that have been exchanged between the two major actors and the media. Collect messages that appeared in the print/electronic media as part of the election campaign of the parties and candidates. Also collect newspaper reports/magazine reports/opinion polls and television programmes. Imagine you don’t know the results. What is the picture that was emerging from these messages? Did this picture tally with the actual picture that finally emerged. You can use any other example if you like. Perhaps the American Presidential campaign.

Focus on South Delhi Parliamentary Constituency

Contestants included Vijay Kumar Malhotra - BJP (winner), R.K. Anand - Cong (second). Shiv Khera, who also contested from this constituency, was third but with less than 5000 votes. Why did this happen to a man who is a highly educated person and a management guru? Remember he propounded the ‘You can win’ slogan.

Look at his philosophy: in his book ‘Freedom is not Free’ he calls upon individuals to fight injustice, corruption and oppression, stand up for principles and uphold human dignity.

Shiv Khera is the founder of Qualified Learning Systems Inc. An educator, business consultant, a much sought-after speaker and a successful entrepreneur, Khera wears many hats.

He works to inspire and inform people, helping them to realise their true potential. He has taken his dynamic personal messages to opposite sides of the globe. He is also the author of the two bestsellers You Can Win and Living With Honour.

Now look at the backgrounds of the two people who received the largest share of votes - Vijay Kumar Malhotra of the Bharatiya Janata Party and R.K. Anand of the Congress. Find out their educational levels and their views on education and compare it with that of Khera. Why then did Khera finish a poor third? and fight for principles, so that all Indians can be led to dignity and prosperity.
LESSON 3:
ORIGINS OF THE NEWSPAPER

Were it left to me to decide whether we should have a govern-
ment without newspapers, or newspapers without a
government, I should not hesitate a moment to prefer the
latter. -Thomas Jefferson, 1787.

For my part I entertain a high idea of the utility of periodical
publications; insomuch as I could heartily desire, copies of ... magazines, as well as common Gazettes, might be spread
through every city, town, and village in the United States. I
consider such vehicles of knowledge more happily calculated
than any other to preserve the liberty, stimulate the industry,
and ameliorate the morals of a free and enlightened people.-
George Washington, 1788.

Congress shall make no law ... abridging the freedom of speech
or of the press... -Article One, Bill of Rights of the United
States Constitution, 1789.

Here is the living disproof of the old adage that nothing is as
dead as yesterday's newspaper... This is what really happened,
reported by a free press to a free people. It is the raw material
of history; it is the story of our own times. -Henry Steel
Commager, preface to a history of the New York Times, 1951

The Origins of Newspapers
The history of newspapers is an often-dramatic chapter of the
human experience going back some five centuries. In Renais-
sance Europe handwritten newsletters circulated privately
among merchants, passing along information about everything
from wars and economic conditions to social customs and
“human interest” features. The first printed forerunners of the
newspaper appeared in Germany in the late 1400's in the form
of news pamphlets or broadsides, often highly sensationalized
in content. Some of the most famous of these report the
atrocities against Germans in Transylvania perpetrated by a
sadistic voivod named Vlad Tsepes Drakul, who became the
Count Dracula of later folklore.

In the English-speaking world, the earliest predecessors of the
newspaper were corants, small news pamphlets produced only
when some event worthy of notice occurred. The first succes-
sively published title was The Weekly News of 1622. It was
followed in the 1640’s and 1650’s by a plethora of different
titles in the similar newsbook format. The first true newspaper
in English was the London Gazette of 1666. For a generation it was
the only officially sanctioned newspaper, though many periodi-
cal titles were in print by the century’s end.

Beginnings in America
In America the first newspaper appeared in Boston in 1690,
entitled Publick Occurrences. Published without authority, it was
immediately suppressed, its publisher arrested, and all copies
were destroyed. Indeed, it remained forgotten until 1845 when
the only known surviving example was discovered in the British
Library. The first successful newspaper was the Boston News-
Letter, begun by postmaster John Campbell in 1704. Although
it was heavily subsidized by the colonial government the
experiment was a near-failure, with very limited circulation. Two
more papers made their appearance in the 1720’s, in Philadel-
phia and New York, and the Fourth Estate slowly became
established on the new continent. By the eve of the Revolution-
ary War, some two dozen papers were issued at all the colonies,
although Massachusetts, New York, and Pennsylvania would
remain the centers of American printing for many years. Articles
in colonial papers, brilliantly conceived by revolutionary
propagandists, were a major force that influenced public
opinion in America from reconciliation with England to full
political independence.

At war’s end in 1783 there were forty-three newspapers in print.
The press played a vital role in the affairs of the new nation;
many more newspapers were started, representing all shades of
political opinion. The no holds barred style of early journalism,
much of it libelous by modern standards, reflected the rough
and tumble political life of the republic as rival factions jostled
for power. The ratification of the Bill of Rights in 1791 at last
guaranteed of freedom of the press, and America’s newspapers
began to take on a central role in national affairs. Growth
continued in every state. By 1814 there were 346 newspapers. In
the Jacksonian populist 1830’s, advances in printing and
papermaking technology led to an explosion of newspaper
growth, the emergence of the “Penny Press”; it was now
possible to produce a newspaper that could be sold for just a
cent a copy. Previously, newspapers were the province of the
wealthy, literate minority. The price of a year’s subscription,
usually over a full week’s pay for a laborer, had to be paid in full
and “invariably in advance.” This sudden availability of cheap,
interesting reading material was a significant stimulus to the
achievement of the nearly universal literacy now taken for
granted in America.

The Industrial Revolution
The industrial revolution, as it transformed all aspects of
American life and society, dramatically affected newspapers. Both
the numbers of papers and their paid circulations continued to
rise. The 1850 census catalogued 2,526 titles. In the 1850’s
powerful, giant presses appeared, able to print ten thousand
complete papers per hour. At this time the first “ pictorial”
weekly newspapers emerged; they featured for the first time
extensive illustrations of events in the news, as woodcut
engravings made from correspondents’ sketches or taken from
that new invention, the photograph. During the Civil War the
unprecedented demand for timely, accurate news reporting
transformed American journalism into a dynamic, hardhitting
force in the national life. Reporters, called “specials,” became the
darlings of the public and the idols of youngsters everywhere.
Many accounts of battles turned in by these intrepid adventur-
ers stand today as the definitive histories of their subjects.
Newspaper growth continued unabated in the postwar years. An astounding 11,314 different papers were recorded in the 1880 census. By the 1890's the first circulation figures of a million copies per issue were recorded (ironically, these newspapers are now quite rare due to the atrocious quality of cheap paper then in use, and to great losses in World War II era paper drives) At this period appeared the features of the modern newspaper, bold "banner" headlines, extensive use of illustrations, "funny pages," plus expanded coverage of organized sporting events. The rise of "yellow journalism" also marks this era. Hearst could truthfully boast that his newspapers manufactured the public clamor for war on Spain in 1898. This is also the age of media consolidation, as many independent newspapers were swallowed up into powerful "chains"; with regrettable consequences for a once fearless and incorruptible press, many were reduced to vehicles for the distribution of the particular views of their owners, and so remained, without competing papers to challenge their viewpoints. By the 1910's, all the essential features of the recognizably modern newspaper had emerged. In our time, radio and television have gradually supplanted newspapers as the nation's primary information sources, so it may be difficult initially to appreciate the role that newspapers have played in our history.

Thomas Paine was born on the twenty-ninth of January 1737 at Thetford, Norfolk in England, as a son of a Quaker. After a short basic education, he started to work, at first for his father, later as an officer of the excise. During this occupation Thomas Paine was an unsuccessful man, and was twice dismissed from his post. In 1774, he met Benjamin Franklin in London, who advised him to emigrate to America, giving him letters of recommendation.

Paine landed at Philadelphia on November 30, 1774. Starting over as a publicist, he first published his African Slavery in America, in the spring of 1775, criticizing slavery in America as being unjust and inhumane. At this time he also had become co-editor of the Pennsylvania Magazine on arriving in Philadelphia, Paine had sensed the rise of tension, and the spirit of rebellion, that had steadily mounted in the Colonies after the Boston Tea Party and when the fightings had started, in April 1775, with the battles of Lexington and Concord. In Paine's view the Colonies had all the right to revolt against a government that imposed taxes on them but which did not give them the right of representation in the Parliament at Westminster. But he went even further: for him there was no reason for the Colonies to stay dependent on England. On January 10, 1776 Paine formulated his ideas on American independence in his pamphlet Common Sense.

In his Common Sense, Paine states that sooner or later independence from England must come, because America had lost touch with the mother country. In his words, all the arguments for separation of England are based on nothing more than simple facts, plain arguments and common sense. Government was necessary evil that could only become safe when it was representative and altered by frequent elections. The function of government in society ought to be only regulating and therefore as simple as possible. Not suprisingly, but nevertheless remarkable was his call for a declaration of independence. Due to the many copies sold (500,000) Paine's influence on the Declaration of Independence of July 4, 1776 is eminent. Another sign of his great influence is the number of loyalist reactions to Common Sense.

During the War of Independence Paine volunteered in the Continental Army and started with the writing of his highly influential sixteen American Crisis papers, which he published between 1776 and 1783. In 1777 he became Secretary of the Committee of Foreign Affairs in Congress, but already in 1779 he was forced to resign because he had disclosed secret information. In the following nine years he worked as a clerk at the Pennsylvania Assembly and published several of his writings.

In 1787 Thomas Paine left for England, initially to raise funds for the building of a bridge he had designed, but after the outbreak of the French Revolution he became deeply involved in it. Between March 1791 and February 1792 he published numerous editions of his Rights of Man, in which he defended the French Revolution against the attacks by Edmund Burke, in his Reflections on the Revolution in France. But it was more then a defence of the French Revolution: An analysis of the roots of the discontent in Europe, which he laid in arbitrary government, poverty, illiteracy, unemployment and war. The book being banned in England because it opposed to monarchy, Paine failed to be arrested because he was already on his way to France, having been elected in the National Convention. Though a true republicanist, he was imprisoned in 1793 under Robespierre, because he had voted against the execution of the deposed king Louis XVI. During his imprisonment the publication of his Age of Reason started. Age of Reason was written in praise of the achievements of the Age of Enlightenment, and it was om this book that he was accused of being an atheist.

After his release he stayed in France until 1802, when he sailed back to America, after an invitation by Thomas Jefferson who had met him before when he was minister in Paris and who admired him. Back in the United States he learned that he was seen as a great infidel, or simply forgotten for what he had done for America. He continued his critical writings, for instance against the Federalists and on religious superstition. After his death in New York City on June 8, 1809 the newspapers read: He had lived long, did some good and much harm, which time judged to be an unworthy epitaph.

The Press in India (Media History Second Lecture)
Though media and reporting were practised during Mughal times in India the press in the modern sense came into existence in the early part of the 19th Century. The first newspapers were bulletins brought out by officials of the East India Company mainly as a means of exchanging gossip and to air grievances. The Bengal Harkuru and Bengal (Hickey's) Gazette were examples. (show copies). The Company authorities did try to curb this but it was essentially an exchange of ideas between its British employees and management.

In the second and third decades of the 19th century Indian nationalism began to grow as a concept. Ram Mohun Roy, one of the men responsible for the infusion of new ideas in the country, also started the first nationalist newspaper. It was called
the Mirat-ul-akhbar. Later papers like Indian Mirror represented this reformist trend.

Divisions within Indian society was the major problem facing anyone who had embarked on the road to building and uniting a nation. Common factors had to be emphasised.

Rationalism rather than superstition or the diktat of the clergy were other important developments all over the world during the 18th and 19th centuries.

That is why the initial tone of the nationalist newspapers in India was reformist – evils like sati were identified. Campaigns were run against them. A sympathetic British administration run by Company officials were persuaded to pass legislation to check these evil practices.

Caste was seen as a major obstacle to unity among members of the newly emerging India. The urgent need for social and religious reform thus formed the content of most of the early newspapers.

The First Indian war of independence or the Sepoy Mutiny (as the British called it) in 1857 was a turning point. Subsequent to this event the British government took full control over Indian administration.

The 1857 event signalled the diminishing power of the middle feudal classes like zamindars and the rise of the new middle classes belonging to the professions who had received the new western style education. As administration became serious business for the British authorities, the new Indian middle classes started clamouring for a share in power. The Indian National Congress was formed. To give expression to their views and aspirations papers like the Amrit Bazar Patrika were founded. If you look at their contents you’ll find more stuff on why Indians should be given a greater share in power rather than the focusing on obstacles to nation-building. But most of the papers were predominantly political in nature.

**Activity**

Find a past newspaper or magazine (as old as you can) and list the differences that you notice that have occurred in newspaper presentation and style since then. Also point out why you think these changes happened.
LESSON 4:
EVOLUTION OF MEDIA’S FREEDOMS AND RESTRAINTS

Historically the origin of freedoms enjoyed by the media, more popularly known as ‘freedom of the press’ originated in England. From the earliest times in the West persecution for expression of opinions was common particularly in matters relating to science and philosophy since they came into direct conflict with the authority of the Church. We have the instance of copies of the Bible being chained to library shelves to prevent the spread of its ideas among the people. Later, we heard of people like Copernicus and Galileo being persecuted since they propounded theories that challenged the idea propagated by the Church.

In 1530, Copernicus completed and gave to the world his great work De Revolutionibus, which asserted that the earth rotated on its axis once daily and traveled around the sun once yearly: a fantastic concept for the times. Up to the time of Copernicus the thinkers of the western world believed in the Ptolemaic theory that the universe was a closed space bounded by a spherical envelope beyond which there was nothing.

Man, it was believed (and still believed by some) was made by God in His image, man was the next thing to God, and, as such, superior, especially in his best part, his soul, to all creatures, indeed this part was not even part of the natural world (a philosophy which has proved disastrous to the earth’s environment as any casual observer of the 20th century might confirm by simply looking about). Two other Italian scientists of the time, Galileo and Bruno, embraced the Copernican theory unreservedly and as a result suffered much personal injury at the hands of the powerful church inquisitors. Giordano Bruno had the audacity to even go beyond Copernicus, and, dared to suggest, that space was boundless and that the sun was and its planets were but one of any number of similar systems: Why! — there even might be other inhabited worlds with rational beings equal or possibly superior to ourselves. For such blasphemy, Bruno was tried before the Inquisition, condemned and burned at the stake in 1600. Galileo was brought forward in 1633, and, there, in front of his “betters,” he was, under the threat of torture and death, forced to his knees to renounce all belief in Copernican theories, and was thereafter sentenced to imprisonment for the remainder of his days.

The usual charges for suppressing unconventional thinking was to describe it as heresy, corruption of the youth or sedition. Such restraints through licensing and censorship came to be accentuated after the invention of the printing press in the 15th century and the appearance of newspapers in the 17th century.

Shortly thereafter, newspapers came to take up the cause of the opposition against monarchical absolutism. Opposition to governmental interference was supported by logical arguments set out by John Milton’s A proptica (1644). Milton said that free men must have the liberty to know, to utter and to argue freely according to conscience. Any form of censorship was intolerable, whether imposed by a royal decree or by legislation. A proptica was in fact addressed to the Long Parliament which had taken up the issue of licensing after the abolition of the Star Chamber. It was as a result of such agitation that the Licensing Act of 1662 was eventually refused to be reviewed by the House of Commons in 1694. The freedom of the press thus began in England as a triumph of the people against the power of licence. What developed subsequently was the freedom of the press as described in the words of Dicey, “The liberty of the press consists in printing without any previous licence, subject to the consequence of the law.”

Freedom of the press thus came to be symbolised by the absence of prior restraint. This concept has its origin in the fact that until 1695 an annual Licensing Act existed which was first passed in 1661 and which prohibited the printing of any literature without licence from the crown or its agent. It was against this system that the doctrine of freedom of the press was asserted. Parliament allowed the Licensing Act to expire following the agitation in favour of freedom of expression. It has been summarised by 18th century constitutional expert William Blackstone: “Every free man has an undoubted right to lay what sentiments he pleases before the public; to forbid this is to destroy the freedom of the press, but if he publishes what is improper, or mischievous or illegal, he must take the consequence of his own temerity.”

What exactly was meant by freedom of the press was not specified but obviously it was held to be similar to the idea held in Britain i.e. absence of prior restraint. According to the Commission on Freedom of Press in USA, “The primary suggestion of the term freedom is a negative one, the absence of external interference whether to suppress or to constrain. To be free is essential to be free from something – some arbitrary impediments to action, some dominating power or authority. But since freedom is for action, and action is for an end, the ‘positive’ kernel of freedom lies in the ability to achieve the end, and to be free means to be free for some accomplishment. And this implies command of the means to achieve that end.”

A free press is free for the expression of opinion in all its phases. It is free for the achievement of those goals of press service on which its own ideas and the requirements of the community combine and which existing techniques make possible. For these ends it must have full command of technical resources, financial strength, reasonable access to sources of information at home and abroad, and the necessary facilities for bringing that information to the national market.

The US Position
Any discussion of freedom of the press must distinguish freedom in fact from legal freedom. The principle of freedom of the press as a constraint on government actions against the press can differ from the amount of freedom the press actually
exercises at a given time. On the one hand, various social, political, and economic forces may serve to make the press freer in fact than it is in law. Conversely, those same forces may substantially curtail the exercise of a legal freedom.

This article addresses only the development of the principle of freedom of the press, according to which government control of the press is subject to political, legal, or constitutional constraints greater than those applicable to other forms of government action. In this sense of freedom of the press, the principle in the United States evolved from English thought. Anticensorship themes had been sounded early in the seventeenth century. Although Milton argued only for elimination of licensing in advance of publication and did not object to prosecution thereafter, and although the freedom he advocated did not extend to Catholics and others he viewed as beyond the pale, his eloquent objection to what we now call “prior restraint” had lasting influence.

English pleas for freedom of the press increased in the early part of the eighteenth century. Among the most prominent were John Trenchard and Thomas Gordon’s pseudonymous Cato’s Letters, which went beyond Milton in arguing against prosecutions for seditious and criminal libel as well as against licensing. These and similar writings had great influence in the colonies, and the arguments exemplified by Cato’s Letters surrounded the trial in 1735 of John Peter Zenger, the most important colonial precursor to later American developments.

Zenger was the publisher of the New York Weekly Journal, which had printed harsh criticisms of Governor William Cosby of the Province of New York. Zenger was prosecuted for seditious libel, and consistent with the law at the time the jury was instructed to consider not whether the work was actually seditious (an issue then considered a matter of law for the judge and not one of fact for the jury) but only the questions of whether Zenger had published the work and whether it referred to Cosby. Nevertheless, the jury disregarded these limitations and acquitted Zenger. That acquittal represented the assertion of popular power against the monarchy, in contrast to the modern understanding of freedom of the press as protection against popular control as much as against particular government officials.

Against this background there remains controversy about the intention underlying the First Amendment, which provides that “Congress shall make no law ... abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press.” Although a common understanding takes this to embody an intention to eliminate the law of seditious libel, there is strong evidence that the amendment (as well as similar provisions in various state constitutions) was intended to embody the Miltonian idea, also found in Blackstone’s Commentaries, that only prior restraints like licensing were to be prohibited, with prosecutions for seditious libel untouched by the new Bill of Rights.

As a matter of constitutional law, these issues were not settled until well into the twentieth century, although political discourse, as shown by the negative reaction to and ultimate repeal of the Sedition Act of 1798, gradually assimilated the view that not only licensing but also subsequent punishment of the press for criticizing government and its officials were inconsis-
press will always want more information and the government will always want to provide less, the current press freedom in the United States is such that much that happens in government is more widely known and subject to criticism than anywhere else in the world.

Journalism as a Public Trust
Endorsed by Salzburg Seminar Session, 396

Media organisations face a new challenge: that of globalisation, which has brought with it business conglomerates that control the Press. The result - profits are given more importance than journalistic ethics and people are losing faith in the Fourth Estate. A recent conference in Salzburg, Austria, brought together journalists and supporters of press freedom to address the issue. Media under threat? A free and independent press is essential to human liberty.

Salzburg, Austria, March 26, 2002

I. Preamble
THIS statement expresses the concerns of international journalists and supporters of journalism attending the Salzburg Seminar Session 396, March 20-27, 2002, in Salzburg, Austria. The topic: The decline of the news media's role as a public trust and the effects of that phenomenon on its obligations to civil society. Our discussions revealed that journalists and their supporters from many countries share a strong conviction that market pressures are undermining the quality of journalism; specifically, as news organisations preserve high profit levels by reducing news gathering resources and neglecting journalism in the public interest, the fundamental role of the press to inform and empower citizens is endangered. These concerns are the motivation for this statement, which we hope will prompt further consideration, discussion and action around the world. A free and independent press is essential to human liberty. No people can remain sovereign without a vigorous press that reports the news, examines critical issues and encourages a robust exchange of ideas. In recognition of the vital role of the press in society, many countries extend it special legal protections under constitutions or legislatively enacted statutes. These protections are unique, for they safeguard print, broadcast and online media organisations against government interference and censorship. Where this special status has been accorded the press, news organisations have been held to a high standard of public service and public trust. Over time, this ideal has become a bedrock of journalism, an enduring tradition by which a free press has been a powerful force for progress and informed citizen participation in society.

Historically, threats to press freedoms have been political in nature. At the start of the 21st Century, however, a new kind of threat emerges that, if continued, will endanger the freedoms guaranteed to the press and put at risk the sovereignty of the citizens. The nature of the press as a commercial enterprise has changed significantly. The emergence of media conglomerates and intense market competition are creating new organisational priorities in which profit growth is replacing public service as the principal mission. Sustaining profit growth often requires reducing the resources for news gathering, thereby diminishing the role of the news media as a public trust. Business priorities are encouraging the blending of news and entertainment as a strategy to build audiences and ratings. This trend, most noticeable worldwide in television, has led to a reduction in serious news coverage and may be responsible for a decline in public confidence in this medium as an essential source of information. Finally, a shrinking commitment to both domestic and international news means that news organisations are missing opportunities to connect people and ideas globally at the very time technology has made such connections increasingly possible. This international group of journalists and supporters of press freedom calls on the leaders of news organisations worldwide to recognise the need for a wiser balance between business goals and public-service responsibilities, and to reaffirm their commitment to journalism and the role of a free press in sustaining human liberty.

II. Concerns About Journalism
We recognise that news organisations function in a competitive, multimedia environment, and that financial strength is essential for journalistic excellence and independence. However, an unbalanced emphasis on profits and financial growth weakens the foundation of journalism as a public trust. We are convinced that the growing imbalance in the priority given to the quality of journalism and profit growth ultimately impairs citizens' ability to participate fully in their communities. We recognise that neglecting the public interest erodes public support for legal guarantees of the freedom of the press to report the news. We conclude that market forces and other pressures are causing the following problems:


2. For journalism content and influence: Decline of diverse and comprehensive news produced in the public interest. Neglect of audiences that are not valued by advertisers. Compromising of editorial integrity for commercial purposes. Encroachment of entertainment into news coverage. Shrinking impact of news organisations as audiences dwindle.

3. For news media organisations: Concentration of ownership and creation of monopolies. Vulnerability to the imperatives of stock markets and other financial interests. Increasing tendency of multimedia conglomerates to use news resources to promote commercial interests.

III. Proposals for Consideration
To address these concerns, we encourage the press and the public to consider the following suggestions in communities and situations where they may apply: (1) Encourage diverse news media ownership and urge media companies to commit to providing quality journalism to all communities they serve. (2) Ensure that television networks and radio stations provide quality news programmes as part of their societal obligation to the public airwaves. (3) Help citizens evaluate the quality of the
news they receive and express their views so that their voices may be heard. (4) Use journalism to enhance citizens’ ability to participate in community life. (5) Call on companies that own news organisations to: (a) Adopt mission statements reflecting their journalistic values and the priority they attach to their role as a public trust. (b) Adopt a long-term business strategy based on producing quality journalism. (c) Include journalists on the boards of companies that own news organisations. (d) Adopt professional standards that promote high-quality journalism. (e) Compensate news executives based on the quality of their company’s journalism rather than its financial performance. (6) Ensure that entertainment content does not compromise news coverage. (7) Keep a clear separation between advertising and news content. All advertising should be clearly labelled. (8) Reaffirm journalism values of accuracy, fairness and balance; and maintain the roles of the press as watchdog and voice for citizens. (9) Promote professional standards of excellence in journalism education. (10) Foster media education of young people in schools and through media.

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The basic meaning of civilization is the presence of cities, and the basic meaning of history is the presence of written records. There can be civilization without writing (the Incas), and perhaps writing without much in the way of cities (runes), but the creation of writing gives to the earliest historical civilizations a role that prior urban culture (as at Jericho) could not match. The four earliest centers of historical civilization stretch diagonally across south Asia into Africa. They are defined by their writing systems. The earliest is in Sumer (or Sumeria), where we now have evidence of a long pre-history of writing. After early pictograms, the writing system that emerged, cuneiform, is named after the wedge shapes that were made by reed pens on clay tablets. This was a cumbersome and messy medium for writing but possesses the virtue from our point of view that burned tablets can become as durable as bricks. The Sumerians themselves did not last long, and are no longer distinguishable as a people after the end of the III Dynasty of Ur, around 2000 BC. Their language has no known affinities, though the Caucasus is still home to a similarly isolated and unique language group. A chain of ancient non-Indo-European and non-Semitic languages — of Elam, the Kassites, the Hurrians, and Urartu — stretched from Sumer to the Caucasus, but too little is known of these languages, or of the early forms of the Caucasian ones, for certain connections to be drawn. Sumerian civilization, however, did not die, since most of its elements, and the cuneiform writing system itself, were adapted to writing a Semitic language, Akkadian, whose daughters, Babylonian and Assyrian, bore the literature of subsequent Mesopotamian civilization, even while lovingly preserving knowledge of Sumerian. The last cuneiform text is from 75 AD, and so this is taken as marking the end of Sumerian civilization, even if the end of the Sumerians themselves long antedates it.

Hard on the heels of Sumer came Egypt, with evidence of Sumerian influence, where a new writing system, hieroglyphics, developed — now with some evidence emerging of its antecedents in Egypt. Of the durable systems of writing, hieroglyphics alone retained its pictographic character, though the Egyptians developed cursive and abbreviated forms for more practical purposes. The Egyptians also developed a more practical medium for writing, papyrus scrolls, though these have the drawback, from our point of view, of easily burning and decaying. An intact Egyptian papyrus is a prize, though these are more common in the dry climate of Egypt than similarly volatile media would be in the damp Ganges Valley of India. The Egyptians themselves, and their writing, were somewhat more durable than Sumer. The last hieroglyphic inscription was carved in 394 AD, and the last cursive (Demotic) papyrus is from 480 AD.

The Indus Valley of India is where the next civilization emerges, again with evidence of Sumerian influence. The Indus pictographic script is not well attested and remains undeciphered. Nor, unlike hieroglyphics and cuneiform, are there any bilingual texts to aid in decipherment. The problem is that the Indus Valley civilization did not survive, flourishing only from around 2800 to 1500 (or even just from 2600 to 1900). The examples of Indus writing are brief and fragmentary. Just what happened is still mysterious. The advent of Indo-European steppe peoples with horses and chariots undoubtedly had the kind of effect that is also evident in the Middle East, where small numbers of such people established regimes in Babylonia (the Kassite Dynasty) and Mitanni, and the technology made a foreign regime possible in Egypt. The Indus cities, however, now seem already declining, vulnerable, and perhaps even abandoned, perhaps because of climatic and hydrological changes. There is little real evidence of violent conquest, though a similar absence is also noteworthy with respect to the Kassite regime in Babylon, the Mitanni, or the Hyksos in Egypt. In any case, India passed into a Dark Age and emerged contemporaneous with the beginning of Classical civilization in Greek, circa 800 BC.
relatively isolated and emerged considerably later, with the Shang Dynasty, about the time that India has passing temporarily out of history. Of all the early systems of writing, Chinese Characters, the direct descendants of Shang pictographs, are the only one still in use today. The Indian system, of course, ended with the Indus civilization. Cuneiform and hieroglyphics were replaced by alphabetic scripts that developed, perhaps under Egyptian influence, in Phoenicia and Canaan.

Indian Languages
The Indian subcontinent consists of a number of separate linguistic communities each of which share a common language and culture. The people of India speak many languages and dialects which are mostly varieties of about 15 principal languages.

Some Indian languages have a long literary history—Sanskrit literature is more than 5,000 years old and Tamil 3,000. India also has some languages that do not have written forms. There are 18 officially recognized languages in India (Konkani, Manipuri and Nepali were added in 1992) and each has produced a literature of great vitality and richness.

Though distinctive in parts, all stand for a homogeneous culture that is the essence of the great Indian literature. This is an evolution in a land of myriad dialects. The number of people speaking each language varies greatly. For example, Hindi has more than 250 million speakers, but relatively few people speak Andamanese.

Although some of the languages are called “tribal” or “aboriginal”, their populations may be larger than those that speak some European languages. For example, Bhili and Santali, both tribal languages, each have more than 4 million speakers. Gondi is spoken by nearly 2 million people. India's schools teach 58 different languages. The nation has newspapers in 87 languages, radio programmes in 71, and films in 15.

The Indian languages belong to four language families: Indo-European, Dravidian, Mon-Khmer, and Sino-Tibetan.

Some ethnic groups in Assam and other parts of eastern India speak languages of the Mon-Khmer group. People in the northern Himalayan region and near the Burmese border speak Sino-Tibetan languages.

Speakers of 54 different languages of the Indo-European family make up about three-quarters of India’s population. Twenty Dravidian languages are spoken by nearly a quarter of the people. Speakers of 20 Mon-Khmer languages and 98 Sino-Tibetan languages together make up about 2 per cent of the population.

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Indian languages sites
Do we need to look at our past? Yes, because the past is a part of our identity. Each of us has the experience of filling up forms. It is essential to give the name of our father as part of the identity process. Our names do give each of us a part of our identities. The complete identity is only obtained when our present identity is combined with our past. This does not mean that we go back to the past. It is said that it is virtually impossible for anyone to even imagine the world of the previous generation. What we actually do is to construct an image of the past from evidence available to us now.

So where does this leave us with respect to media history? It is clear that to understand the identity of the media we must look into its past.

- It helps explain a lot of things that we do in the present.
- It helps us to grasp the direction in which the media is moving. This is not only important for those working in the media but also those investing in it. NDTV, for example, recently came up with a public issue. For those who buy and sell shares it is important to know not just about the organisation and structure of NDTV but of the larger picture of television news channels, the even larger picture of television channels including entertainment channels, the place of television in the media scene as a whole both electronic and print, will some FM channels lure away audiences from TV channels. In other words, in order to understand what is happening in the media, we must know the history to media to find out the factors that led to the growth of each of the mediums - radio, print, television and internet and try and find out whether some of these factors will influence NDTV and other news channels in the next ten to fifteen years.

Let us therefore make a short tour of the route that has been taken by the mass communication as it has developed over the centuries. The creation of alphabets and words in ancient times boosted human power of expression manifold. Not only did it open up a means of communicating over large distances, it also made it possible to communicating through time.

If you have seen Asokan edicts or Hindu temple architecture these are examples of the written word (Brahmi script) and picture communication. There is one on the Mathura road itself. If you visit Ferozshah Kotla you can see an edict and at the National Museum there is a replica of a rock edict. But those were the days when the medium of mass communication remained fixed. It was the masses who travelled to these fixed destinations and got to see the pictorial messages on the outer walls of temples or the edicts of Asoka.

A revolution occurred about 550 years ago with the invention by a German called Gutenberg. He invented the movable type which made quick reprography or copying an easy matter. This made it possible for ideas not just to be put down on paper but multiple copies could made available for circulation to a large readership. This provided the basis for the alternative ideas to be projected.

Earlier, the official church held in the West as well as in India exercised strict control over ideas. In some places in the west copies of the Bible were chained to shelves to deny access. In India the Vedas and Vedantas, the storehouse of Hindu knowledge and wisdom, was restricted to a single caste – the Brahmans. It was considered to be blasphemous for other social groups to even pronounce these sacred texts which have been preserved down the centuries by memory and word-of-mouth. So it could not have been usurped by people who did not belong to the priestly or Brahmanic group. The power of keeping a stranglehold on the spiritual life of people was thus preserved.

The coming of print began to break this stranglehold on power which this priestly class had exercised jointly with the rulers. However with the arrival of print in India in the late 18th century, the picture began to change rapidly. The sacred texts were translated into English and other European languages and were widely disseminated all over the world. Simultaneously Print shops became the forum for exchange of newer and newer ideas and news sheets and books followed. This led to a strong challenge being mounted on the established order. Individuals could break out of social restrictions to express their talents and the result was the rise of a new middle class.

The French revolution symbolised the triumph of this new middle class over the feudal classes. This, along with the
English Revolution of 1688, introduced into Europe the ideas of democracy and liberalism. The press became the medium through which ideas came to be discussed and it gradually assumed the role of a watchdog over the authorities. Charles Dickens, was a crusading reporter who (look up examples) whose writings of child labour forced the authorities. It is natural that authorities remained hostile to the press and attempted to curb it through censorship. By the 20th century, the press had thrown off much of its shackles and became the fourth pillar of democracy.

Activities
Go through the following passage and think about balancing the two most important things in media - credibility and commercial viability. Though at the level of theory the two seem to go hand in hand, they often clash with each other at the practical level. After considering the situation answer the following questions:

1. Imagine that you are starting a journal. Undertake an exercise to find out what resources you will need to run this journal and from where you hope to mobilise them. You have to think about resources both in terms of content and those of a physical nature such as paper, printing and distribution.

2. Find out about the origin of the term ‘Yellow Journalism’ and write 500 words about its advantages and disadvantages.

Journalism as a Public Trust
Endorsed by Salzburg Seminar Session, 396

Media organisations face a new challenge: that of globalisation, which has brought with it business conglomerates that control the Press. The result – profits are given more importance than journalistic ethics and people are losing faith in the Fourth Estate. A recent conference in Salzburg, Austria, brought together journalists and supporters of press freedom to address the issue.

Media under threat? A free and independent press is essential to human liberty.

Salzburg, Austria, March 26, 2002

I. Preamble

THIS statement expresses the concerns of international journalists and supporters of journalism attending the Salzburg Seminar Session 396, March 20-27, 2002, in Salzburg, Austria. The topic: The decline of the news media’s role as a public trust and the effects of that phenomenon on its obligations to civil society. Our discussions revealed that journalists and their supporters from many countries share a strong conviction that market pressures are undermining the quality of journalism; specifically, as news organisations preserve high profit levels by reducing news gathering resources and neglecting journalism in the public interest, the fundamental role of the press to inform and empower citizens is endangered. These concerns are the motivation for this statement, which we hope will prompt further consideration, discussion and action around the world. A free and independent press is essential to human liberty. No people can remain sovereign without a vigorous press that reports the news, examines critical issues and encourages a robust exchange of ideas. In recognition of the vital role of the press in society, many countries extend it special legal protections under constitutions or legislatively enacted statutes. These protections are unique, for they safeguard print, broadcast and online media organisations against government interference and censorship. Where this special status has been accorded the press, news organisations have been held to a high standard of public service and public trust. Over time, this ideal has become a bedrock of journalism, an enduring tradition by which a free press has been a powerful force for progress and informed citizen participation in society.

Historically, threats to press freedoms have been political in nature. At the start of the 21st Century, however, a new kind of threat emerges that, if continued, will endanger the freedoms guaranteed to the press and put at risk the sovereignty of the citizens. The nature of the press as a commercial enterprise has changed significantly. The emergence of media conglomerates and intense market competition are creating new organisational priorities in which profit growth is replacing public service as the principal mission. Sustaining profit growth often requires reducing the resources for news gathering, thereby diminishing the role of the news media as a public trust. Business priorities are encouraging the blending of news and entertainment as a strategy to build audiences and ratings. This trend, most noticeable worldwide in television, has led to a reduction in serious news coverage and may be responsible for a decline of public confidence in this medium as an essential source of information. Finally, a shrinking commitment to both domestic and international news means that news organisations are missing opportunities to connect people and ideas globally at the very time technology has made such connections increasingly possible. This international group of journalists and supporters of press freedom calls on the leaders of news organisations worldwide to recognise the need for a wiser balance between business goals and public-service responsibilities, and to reaffirm their commitment to journalism and the role of a free press in sustaining human liberty.

II. Concerns about Journalism

We recognise that news organisations function in a competitive, multimedia environment, and that financial strength is essential for journalistic excellence and independence. However, an unbalanced emphasis on profits and financial growth weakens the foundation of journalism as a public trust. We are convinced that the growing imbalance in the priority given to the quality of journalism and profit growth ultimately impairs citizens’ ability to participate fully in their communities. We recognise that neglecting the public interest erodes public support for legal guarantees of the freedom of the press to report the news. We conclude that market forces and other pressures are causing the following problems:

2. For journalism content and influence: Decline of diverse and comprehensive news produced in the public interest. Neglect of audiences that are not valued by advertisers. Compromising of editorial integrity for commercial purposes. Encroachment of entertainment into news coverage. Shrinking impact of news organisations as audiences dwindle.

3. For news media organisations: Concentration of ownership and creation of monopolies. Vulnerability to the imperatives of stock markets and other financial interests. Increasing tendency of multimedia conglomerates to use news resources to promote commercial interests.

III. Proposals for Consideration
To address these concerns, we encourage the press and the public to consider the following suggestions in communities and situations where they may apply: (1) Encourage diverse news media ownership and urge media companies to commit to providing quality journalism to all communities they serve. (2) Ensure that television networks and radio stations provide quality news programmes as part of their societal obligation to the public airwaves. (3) Help citizens evaluate the quality of the news they receive and express their views so that their voices may be heard. (4) Use journalism to enhance citizens’ ability to participate in community life. (5) Call on companies that own news organisations to: (a) Adopt mission statements reflecting their journalistic values and the priority they attach to their role as a public trust. (b) Adopt a long-term business strategy based on producing quality journalism. (c) Include journalists on the boards of companies that own news organisations. (d) Adopt professional standards that promote high-quality journalism. (e) Compensate news executives based on the quality of their company’s journalism rather than its financial performance. (6) Ensure that entertainment content does not compromise news coverage. (7) Keep a clear separation between advertising and news content. All advertising should be clearly labelled. (8) Reaffirm journalism values of accuracy, fairness and balance; and maintain the roles of the press as watchdog and voice for citizens. (9) Promote professional standards of excellence in journalism education. (10) Foster media education of young people in schools and through media.

The Salzburg Conference had participants from the following nations/regions: Argentina, Armenia, Bosnia, China, Egypt, European Union, Colombia, Germany, Hungary, India, Israel, Italy, Latvia, Pakistan, Palestine, Philippines, Saudi Arabia, South Africa, Spain, Thailand, Turkey, Ukraine, United Kingdom, United States of America, Yugoslavia.
There are two ways of looking at media and literacy. The first way is to examine the relation between knowledge of the printed word or literacy and media and the second is the awareness among media audiences of the way that the various media work. First we shall discuss the link between literacy and mass media.

**Literacy and Mass Media**

Of the four kinds of modern media that we are familiar with - print, radio, television and internet - at least two require knowledge of the printed word or literacy. If a message is in the printed form then the communication loop remains incomplete till the person or people for whom it is intended are actually able to read the message and grasp its meaning.

But simply knowledge of the written word could not be adequate. There had to exist a common language. There is not much point in distributing pamphlets written in Hindi to readers who only have knowledge of the English printed word.

In the United Kingdom, English has taken on the role of this common language though at the cost of local languages like Welsh or Irish or Gaelic or Celtic. (Did the United Kingdom lose culturally by this?). In the United States it was again English that became the common language since the first immigrants were from England. Later migrants from Europe had to learn English in the US to become citizens of this very large country. Thus Italians, Germans, Poles and Russians all had to learn English to get along in the US. Our neighbour Bangladesh has been organised as a nation around its common language - Bengali - as distinct from Urdu that was spoken mainly in the Western wing of Pakistan before that country broke up. Language thus proved to be a barrier that religion (Islam) was unable to cross.

India is a country that has many languages and dialects. Though Sanskrit is a language that is used all over the country it remains confined to a very small priestly and now scholarly class and its position is somewhat like Latin in Europe. But there are other languages that are used by substantial numbers of people. The leading language is Hindi that is spoken by more than 400 million people spread over Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar and Madhya Pradesh. Other languages spoken by large numbers of people include Bengali, Punjabi, Urdu, Telugu, Marathi, Tamil and Malayalam. Of course, the language that is widely known by the elite all over the country is English. Compare this with Mandarin Chinese which is spoken by nearly a billion people.

Compulsory education was enforced in the countries of the West in the late 19th and early 20th centuries so that by the second half of the 20th century they had achieved virtually universal literacy. They had realised the importance of education in industry which involved communication of messages among large numbers of people. India, however lagged behind in this respect and despite efforts by the government over the past 50 years literacy rate has reached just 65 per cent. This means that 35 per cent of Indians are illiterate. In numbers this would be about 350 million which is the largest number of illiterates in any country of the world.

But this still leaves a stupendous 650 million literate people out of which a large number must be reading periodical literature like dailies, weeklies, fortnightlies, months and quarters. If we glance at the circulation figures of newspapers and the way they have been growing over the years we can immediately notice the link between literacy rates and readership. Of course we must assume that 5 people read each copy of a newspaper or other periodical on an average. So the numbers given here have to be multiplied by 5 to get at the actual readership.

As far as radio is concerned, its arrival in the early decades of the 20th century opened up a whole new vista for mass communication. The vital difference between print and radio was that unlike in the case of the former it was not necessary to be literate in order to receive messages from radio. Messages from radio are heard. So a non-literate person can also form part of the audience of a radio programme. Suddenly, here was a means available of communicating on a mass scale without the requirement of the audience being literate. A means of reaching out with a single message to large numbers at once. This property was sought to be utilised by the Indian government in popularising messages relating to social reform and promoting agriculture among a population that largely illiterate - about 70 per cent. The exclusive use of All India Radio for pro-government and pro-ruling party broadcasts particularly during the Emergency years before TV had been popularised drew vociferous protests from the opposition about misuse of official media.

**Media Literacy**

The new kind of media (radio and television) have therefore have introduced a new kind of literacy – media literacy. Literacy in the traditional sense meant the ability to read and write the symbols of language. Media literacy, on the other hand, is an ability to “effectively efficiently” and interpret the messages.

**Defining Media Literacy**

A number of definitions have been given for media literacy: the first comes from Canada, where media literacy has been taught for more than a decade. “Media literacy is the ability to understand and evaluate all the symbol systems of a society.”

The second definition was proposed last December at the Aspen Institute as the ability to “access, analyze, evaluate and produce communications in a diversity of forms.”

This is a third:

“Media literacy is concerned with helping students develop an informed and critical understanding of the nature of the mass media, the techniques used by them, and the impact of these
techniques. More specifically, it is education that aims to increase students' understanding and enjoyment of how the media work, how they produce meaning, how they are organized, and how they construct reality. Media literacy also aims to provide students with the ability to create media products."

**Why Media Literacy?**

*media dominate our political and cultural lives.*

*almost all information beyond direct experience is “mediated.” media provide powerful models for values and behavior.*

*media influence us without our being aware (McCluhan’s “the environment is invisible”). media literacy can increase our enjoyment of media.*

**ML can Make a Passive Relationship Active**

Citizens for Media Literacy places special emphasis on number 6. The one-way flow of information from corporate-owned and sponsored media reduce citizens to mere consumers. Citizens have rare opportunities to reverse that one-directional information flow, and those opportunities result in little more than “sound bites” or bumper-sticker sloganeering.

In short, modern media culture presents us with a paradox: despite the unprecedented power of information technologies, our political discourse has been steadily and inexorably reduced to the carefully manufactured sound-bites of political spin-doctors and other cultural/political elites. Cultural authority is often invested in these voices because they have learned to look and sound the part, and because they have a finely-honed sense of the acceptable parameters of discourse, which in the corridors of power is called “the conventional wisdom.” Any ideas or discourse outside these parameters are deemed irrelevant and forced to the margins, where they eventually appear in obscure journals, on an occasional talk-radio program, or on the Internet.

Media literacy, as envisioned and practiced by Citizens for Media Literacy, seeks to empower citizenship, transform a passive relationship to the media into an active, critically-engaged force to challenge the traditions and structures of a privatized, commercial media culture in order to find new avenues of citizen speech and discourse.

For example, in the years leading up to the passage of the 1934 Communications Act, which “legalized” the privatization of public media, a bi-partisan consensus led by none other than Herbert Hoover endorsed a plan that would have allocated 25 percent of the broadcast spectrum to “non-profit” voices such as schools, colleges, churches, unions, co-ops.

At the eleventh hour, however, the forces of privatization (namely, American Telephone and Telegraph and Radio Corporation of America) scuttled the Hatfield-Wagner amendment. The resulting Communications Act provided only a tip of the hat to democratic culture by specifying that broadcast license holders must “serve the public interest, convenience and necessity.”

Sixty-nine years later we have before us the sorry evidence of how effective that democratic-sounding language has been. The Harvard Institute endorsed the goal of media literacy to empower citizenship. In addition, much of the discussion centered on how ML could be taught through existing “critical skills” curricula, rather than being exiled to the margins as just another curriculum “add on.”

Renee Hobbs, director of the Harvard Institute, called media literacy “the turn-key that opens the door to new ways of teaching and learning.” She listed seven benefits of teaching media literacy that go right to the heart of what it is to be an educated person in the post-modern world:

- appreciation of and tolerance for complexity
- to make effective choices in a media-saturated environment.
- sensitivity to and respect for multiple points of view
- skillfully construct and disseminate messages
- to be part of a valued, respected, functioning team and community
- to make effective use of family, community and cultural networks
- to set meaningful personal goals for the future.

The institute also zeroed-in on some key ML concepts. One of the most important is that “media literacy” or “media education” is not teaching “through” media; it is teaching “about” media. This is an extremely critical distinction, especially at a time when school boards are jumping on the computers-in-the-schools bandwagon. Knowing how to deliver information more efficiently is certainly a worthy goal, but this effort doesn’t in and of itself lead to critical thinking and all the “habits of mind” which is associated with being well-educated.

Teaching “about” media opens the door to engaging people where they live: in the media-saturated world. They can explore issues such as how media shape attitudes and values, how media shape political and social institutions, and how to decode and resist persuasion and propaganda techniques in both print and broadcast media.

As one institute participant stated: media literacy can help students “deconstruct and reveal the seams in what appear to be seamless extensions of reality.”

Another key concept dealt with media economics. Modern mass media do not exist to deliver information to people; they exist to deliver demographic audiences to advertisers. From this perspective, the old saw that “This program is brought to you by...” is a lie.

It would be more accurate to say that “We are brought to the sponsor by the program.” Once this epistemological shift is made, media analysis is pushed beyond a kind of narrow textual criticism (e.g. deconstructing and critiquing how a film or commercial are made) to exploring the larger questions of media economics and ownership, mythmaking, cultural hegemony, the pacification of publics, the economics of gender and ethnic stereotyping, the selling of high-consumption lifestyles, consumerism versus citizenship, the value of citizen speech versus corporate speech, etc.

This is only a brief summary of a seven-day, 10-12 hour a day, experience, but I hope it whets the appetite for more discussion.
The four processes which constitute the new vision of literacy are: Access, Analyze, Evaluate, and Communicate. These processes help students develop skills in using language and other forms of symbolic expression. For example, the ability to access messages connects with those enabling skills which include decoding symbols and building broad vocabularies. It also includes those skills related to the locating, organizing, and retrieving of information from a variety of sources. Access also includes the ability to use the tools of technology, including video technology, computers and various on-line services. Access skills are often labeled as information literacy, or more recently, "driver training for the information superhighway."

The ability to analyze messages connects with those interpretive comprehension skills which include the ability to make use of categories, concepts or ideas; determine the genre of a work; make inferences about cause and effect; consider the specific strategies and techniques which are used to construct the work; and identify the author's purpose and point of view. At the secondary level, the ability to analyze messages also may include a recognition of the historical, political, economic or aesthetic contexts in which messages are created and consumed.

The ability to evaluate messages concerns those judgments about the relevance and value of the meaning of messages for the reader, including making use of prior knowledge to interpret a work; predicting a further outcome or a logical conclusion; identifying values in a message; and appreciating the aesthetic quality of a work. Although the skills of analysis and evaluation are frequently conflated by practitioners of media literacy, it is important to recognize that analysis skills depend upon the ability to grasp and make effective use of conceptual knowledge which is outside the student's own perspective, while evaluation skills make use of the student's existing world view, knowledge, attitudes and values.

The ability to communicate messages is at the heart of the traditional meaning of literacy, and the skills of writing and speaking have been highly valued by educators. In the last twenty years, writing has come to approach the primacy that reading has gained in the language arts hierarchy. Communication skills are diverse and, to some extent, media-specific. General skills include the ability to understand the audience with whom one is communicating; the effective use of symbols to convey meaning; the ability to organize a sequence of ideas, and the ability to capture and hold the attention and interest of the message receiver. Media-specific production skills for video include learning to make effective choices in framing and points of view; learning to use visual and auditory symbolism; and learning how to manipulate time and space effectively through editing.

**Expanding the Concept of “Text”**

While the four concepts provide a new frame for thinking about the processes involved when people create and share messages, what makes the new vision of literacy so powerful is the application of these skills to messages in a variety of forms. At present, reading/language arts educators focus on literature as the core of the K-8 curriculum: the short story, poetry, drama and nonfiction are claimed to be ideal because they "motivate learning with appeal to universal feelings and needs... classic literature speaks most eloquently to readers and writers.” (California State Board of Education, 1986, p. 7).
But they also may seem disconnected and remote from the experiences of students who, because of television, are “escorted across the globe even before they have permission to cross the street” (Meyrowitz, 1985, p. 238). Critics have claimed that, too often, a literature-based reading/language arts program “ignores the life experience, the history and the language practice of students” (Freire and Macedo, 1987, p. 146), and that when literary materials are used primarily as vehicles for exercises in comprehension and vocabulary development, students may become alienated from the processes of reading and writing in a range of contexts.

In the past, educators have been comfortable to disenfranchise and overlook present-day cultural products, especially television, even though many works of literature which are now considered classic or traditional began their life as popular works designed for mass audiences (Beach, 1992). But just as scholars and critics have engaged in heated controversy about what texts are appropriate study objects to be included in the canon of essential literary works (Gless & Herrnstein Smith, 1992), these debates are filtering into changes in the curriculum.

Many educators have discovered that the analysis of contemporary media can build skills that transfer to students’ work with the written word. When educators permit and encourage the study of contemporary media products in classrooms, students develop skills which alter and reshape their relationship to media products. Nehamas (1992) explains that “[s]erious watching ... disarms many of the criticisms commonly raised about television.” More important, analysis of media texts helps students gain interest in writing and speaking, and helps nurture students’ natural curiosity and motivation. Consider a story presented by Lauren Axelrod (cited in White, 1993a), a high school teacher in Houston, Texas:

I used media literacy concepts to get my low-achievement students to tackle Conrad’s Heart of Darkness and T.S. Eliot’s The Wasteland. I started with an extensive analysis of the Francis Ford Coppola film, Apocalypse Now, and we discussed the film’s narrative structure, mood, point of view, rhythm and character development. Then a team of students read Conrad while another team read Eliot. We then applied the same concepts to the short story and poem in group discussion and writing exercises. Finally, students created a videotape which contrasted the three works with each other. I saw students turn on to literature in a way I never saw them engage with anything in the classroom.

Media education exists as an increasingly vital component of elementary education in Great Britain, Canada, Australia, Spain and other nations. In Great Britain, the mandate includes media education as a strand within the National Standards developed in English, where students are required to study the ways in which media products convey meanings in a range of media texts (Alvarado & Boyd-Barrett, 1992; Bazalgette, 1992; Brown, 1991; Buckingham, 1991; Lusted, 1991; Masterman, 1985). While still controversial among those who favor a more traditional and narrow view of ‘culture,’ scholarly work in media pedagogy has grown widely, and consensus is growing about the set of concepts, skills and learning environments which help most strengthen students’ ability to access, analyze, evaluate and communicate messages in many forms.

The New Vision

Current approaches to reading/language arts often make use of a laundry list of concepts which inform the work of teachers and students in a classroom. Such lists are the result of adding new paradigms for learning upon older models. Layer by layer, the models now used in reading/language arts have become cumbersome and unwieldy (Hawthorne, 1992). Hawthorne writes, “The scope of English heightens the individuality of curricular patterns...Teachers are left to wave the various components into a coherent pattern for themselves and their students” (p. 116). But a simple and powerful new definition of literacy, as proposed in this report, makes it possible to identify the most important processes, concepts and skills for K-12 instruction and makes use of these with a wide variety of message forms, from folktales to commercials, from historical fiction to newspaper photography.

Media literacy incorporates the theoretical traditions of semiotics, literary criticism, communication theory, research on arts education and language development. Although the conceptual principles of the new vision of literacy have taken many forms for various curriculum writers in Great Britain, Canada, Australia and the United States, the author identifies the following ideas as critical components of all programs:

All messages are constructions. Print messages are created by an author who selects the ideas and words to convey meanings. Images are created by a photographer who makes similar selections, and television programs are created by a group of people, led by a producer, who make choices about each image and word used from among many possible options. The construction of messages requires careful thinking, creativity and organizational skills. Knowing how messages are constructed helps the reader appreciate the artistry involved and helps better interpret the meaning of a work.

Messages are representations of social reality. Messages have a relationship to the lived experiences of individuals in many cultures. Even when a message is imaginary, hypothetical or fantastic, it represents social reality, defined as perceptions about the contemporary world which are shared among individuals. Messages also represent the social realities of times and places far removed, and help us make sense of the past, present and future. People need the ability to judge the accuracy of particular messages which may or may not reflect social reality.

Individuals negotiate meaning by interacting with messages. The meaning of a message is found in the act of interpretation. Each reader or viewer uses prior knowledge and experience in the process of reading or critical viewing. A skillful reader or viewer examines many different stylistic features of the text and pays careful attention to the context in which the message occurs in the process of interpretation. Different individuals can find quality and beauty in various texts.

Messages have economic, political, social and aesthetic purposes. People create and share messages for many reasons, but making money is one of the most important reasons why message making is so important in modern culture. Many messages
produced in our culture have an economic purpose of some sort. When authors have political purposes, they use a message to gain power or authority over others. When authors have social purposes, they use a message to present ideas about how people could or should behave, think or feel. When authors have aesthetic purposes, they use a message to experiment with different kinds of symbolic forms and ideas. Understanding how messages operate in terms of their economic, political, social and aesthetic purposes helps readers better understand the context of a work.

Each form of communication has unique characteristics. An author makes choices about which kinds of media are most appropriate to convey a particular message. Television news has characteristics which favor messages which are immediate and visual, while news photographs have characteristics which favor messages which have an emotional component. When writing, an author must carefully choose the most effective genre in which to work since an essay, a memo, a short story or a poem can all be effective forms depending on the purpose, audience and content of the message. Being a good communicator means knowing which formats, genres and media to use in a wide variety of situations.
LESSON 8:
FROM YELLOW JOURNALISM TO ADVOCACY JOURNALISM

Ever since mass media became popular there have been several genres that have dominated it. In the era of print the most important landmark was the development of what has been derogatively described as ‘yellow journalism’. This was marked the rise for the first time of commercialism in the media. Though today yellow journalism is synonymous with exaggeration and blackmail, it introduced many features that revolutionised the print media around the start of the 20th century. The most distinctive feature of the era was the emphasis on bold headlines and layout, some outlandish stories and a number of investigative stories about corruption among people in authority. Yellow journalism was the result of competition between William Randolph Hearst’s ‘New York World’ and Joseph Pulitzer’s ‘New York Journal.

Serious investigative journalism after this resurfaced during the famous Watergate scandal unearthed by Bob Woodward and Carl Bernstein of ‘The Washington Post’. The stories in the newspaper in the early 1970's exposed the US administration’s penchant for invasion of privacy – something particularly valued in that country. This eventually forced President Richard M. Nixon to resign escaping a move for impeachment. The investigative reports even led to the publication of a book.

This successful piece of investigative journalism triggered off a few efforts in our own country. The one that can be mentioned is that by Arun Shourie writing for the Indian Express. The efforts followed the crusade against corruption led by Jayaprakashnarayan which was capped by the imposition of Emergency or virtual dictatorship by Mrs Indira Gandhi from 1975 to 1977. It also redefined in many ways the role of the Indian journalist. You can read about Shourie’s efforts at the end of this lesson.

Investigative journalism or watchdog journalism which is essentially anti-authority in nature has from time to time given way to what has now come to be described as ‘advocacy journalism’. This has been defined to mean that in a war situation like the one in Iraq, US media covering the action must act as virtually the public relations arm of the government. On the one hand the US government has used the 2001 attack on the World Trade Centre towers to clamp restrictions on the media through the PATRIOT Act, while on the other hand media itself has adopted an unquestioning stance towards the US government.

In exposing injustice Shourie’s approach has been to coordinate coverage, and then at two or three critical junctures, to summarize and give sharp focus to reports from the field. The Indian Express, he explains, is really a national network with its 10 editions (at Cochin in Kerala; Madurai and Madras in Tamil Nadu; Bangalore in Karnataka; Hyderabad and Vijayawada in Andhra Pradesh; Bombay in Maharashtra; Ahmedabad in Gujarat; Chandigarh in Punjab; and Delhi). He makes the point that he did not go to Bhagalpur, Bihar, where 31 unconvicted prisoners were reported to have had their eyes gouged out and acid poured in the sockets by 14 policemen who decided, on their own judgment, that thugs and ruffians deserved such punishment. However, observing that the stories by the reporter in Bhagalpur needed to be supplemented, SHOURIE wrote two articles entitled, “The Evidence Thus Far,” which focused on the issue of police excesses and illegalities and pointed up a painful truth: if the criminal justice system breaks down and brutal practices are condoned, “then your eyes and mine are not safe.” Under his guidance the Indian Express was prepared with photographs and other irrefutable evidence to reply to the Chief Minister’s denial of the atrocities.

On the shocking revelations of “undertrials,” prisoners being held previous to trial, SHOURIE guided the reporters gathering information from various locations, but did no checking himself. The story unfolded of unconvicted female detainees being raped and males tortured by jailers; of detainees “rotting in crowded, unsanitary cells, many for over a decade and one for 33 years, his papers long lost; of others thrown in with lunatics and themselves gone mad.” The statistical evidence SHOURIE’s team assembled was damning: as of late 1978 some 53 percent of all prisoners in Indian jails had been convicted of no crime because their cases had not come to court, and 38 percent of these detainees were in Bihar and Uttar Pradesh. Gross official negligence was dramatized. They cited cases such as the person who was “undertrial” in Patna Central Jail for seven years on a charge of obstructing public servants in the performance of their duties by preventing the arrest of a wanted man—an offense for which the maximum sentence would have been three years had his case been heard and he been found guilty. In his summary of the reports SHOURIE argued that the key to reform is public access to jails and to information about jails, and he advised citizens that they could help rectify this widespread injustice by filing writ petitions (formal legal documents detailing irrefutable evidence) to the Supreme Court. The writs subsequently submitted prompted the court’s reiteration of the rights of prisoners as provided by the constitution. Orders followed for immediate release of persons detained beyond the maximum period for which they were liable if convicted; and of those who had served six months without filed charges, except when held for murder or gang robbery. The court further demanded that all filed charges be investigated within two months, and pending cases be disposed of in six months; and that lawyers be provided at state expense for all prisoners held more than 90 days. Within six months some 40,000 “undertrials” were discharged—29,000 in Bihar alone.

In late 1980—while he was introducing professional morality and incisive analysis to journalists, and a vigorous activism to civil libertarians—SHOURIE published a second collection of
his essays, and the two Civil Rights Committee reports he co-authored, under the title, Institutions in the Janata Phase. The treatises express both the great expectations for the Janata coalition which defeated Indira Gandhi's government in March 1977, and the disillusionment which enabled Mrs. Gandhi handily to win reelection in July 1979. SHOURIE introduces this book with his diagnosis that the state is becoming private property. People, he writes, have become accustomed to "governments without parliamentary sanction... perversion of the constitution, malfeasance, corruption, arbitrariness, nepotism, opportunism" and other wrongdoing so that they instinctively turn the page when a newspaper reports the latest incident, "because there is nothing new." Over the past five years the legislatures, the courts, the bureaucracy, and the press have proved themselves to be bankrupt, he maintains, which leaves the "atomized" populace unprotected. Idealists are dismissed as fools; politicians work exclusively and openly for their own personal interests at a particular moment, without heed to the consequences tomorrow. The people, seeing cress opportunism on all sides, come to doubt the system itself and permit freebooters, whose two objectives are plunder and power, to rule freely. A few decent and efficient, but weak, men are used as fronts to provide a veneer of respectability. Legislatures become chambers for intimidation; courts survive but justice does not, civil servants become domestic servants, the police a private army. The autocrat and his satraps, played one against the other, alienate and eventually destroy the very apparatus they need for running the vast new property they have acquired—the state. Crime, therefore, SHOURIE sees, as related to politics and politics in turn is related to the breakdown of institutions, society and ultimately of the constitution.

Evidence of his assertion that he is not primarily a journalist but a concerned citizen using the platform of a newspaper to expose the crimes of government, is his expose in 1981 of the Chief Minister of Maharashtra, Abdul Rahman Antulay, who garnered 500 million rupees (US$5.38 million) from businesses dependent on the state's resources, and kept the ill-gotten money in a private trust. The Congress Party defense in parliament of their party colleague caused embarrassment to the Chief Minister of Finance—in an article, "Petty Little Lies in Parliament," in which he documented how the minister had evaded and lied. He then argued in an open letter, headed "Breach of Trust," that as a free citizen it was his constitutional right and duty under Article 51A to alert as many citizens as he could reach if a minister deceived parliament. "I acted," he wrote, "as a friend of the House... who cherishes its functions and values its role... and is outraged that an attempt was made to mislead it."

Not content to let Antulay off with only public censure, SHOURIE offered his readers practical advice on how to redress matters, citing precise sections of the penal code under which the chief minister could be brought to court. Petitions for legal action were filed independently in the Bombay High Court by SHOURIE's friend Ram Jethmalani and others. Five months later, after the High Court in Bombay found him guilty of improper use of his office, Antulay was forced to resign. Another three months of hearings ensued before the High Court ruled that the state governor—who normally may act only on the advice of the Council of Ministers of which Antulay was head—could empower the lower court, that has jurisdiction over criminal cases, to proceed with Antulay's prosecution. A year after his exposure the criminal case against Antulay is due to start.

In the 10 days after the Antulay story first appeared, the circulation of the Indian Express's combined editions rose by 14,000 copies. Never before had a newspaper registered such a rise in circulation through the efforts of a single writer, and one relatively new to journalism at that. But while the...
exposé won circulation, it cost the Bombay edition prolonged labor trouble.

Datta Samant, a labor organizer with ties to Antulay, encouraged Indian Express (Bombay) workers to demand a 30 percent bonus and a minimum wage double that paid to any other pressmen in India. When the demands were not met, the workers staged a slowdown, and in October a strike; the newspaper responded with a lockout to safeguard its equipment. The manager and 140 non-striking employees kept the edition going until November 11 when the manager fled and the office was closed. Meanwhile Goenka’s legal adviser and SHOURIE went to Bombay and, with the help of a group which remains unidentified in case they are needed in the future, studied Samant, who had gained control of large sectors of Bombay labor by means of beatings, stabbings and murder.

“We then systematically defeated this diabolic labor leader in the propaganda battle and in the courts,” SHOURIE reports. “It was a real fight!” The Bombay office reopened in February 1982. SHOURIE next turned his attention to helping Goenka defeat the government’s attempt to repudiate the building permit given to the Indian Express (Delhi) during the Janata government. The Gandhi government’s objective was to demolish a building Goenka had built. Goenka’s lawyer and SHOURIE again worked together and drafted the writ to the Supreme Court for the lawyer who won a stay from the court. “I was not being a journalist then either,” SHOURIE points out in substantiation of his refusal to be classified as such, “but I felt it was the most interesting challenge at the time.”

During this period, however, SHOURIE was moved to take up his pen when, with Justice Prafullachandra Natvaral Bhagwati presiding, a court of seven judges recognized the government’s power to transfer judges. Bhagwati was said to be “the best legal craftsman in our Supreme Court, he pioneered in defending the citizen’s right to approach the courts for redress, and he was a close friend of Ramnathji [Goenka],” SHOURIE recounts, “but he had opportunistically vacillated from championing liberty then discipline then liberty again, before, during and after the Emergency, and now was serving his own ambition.”

SHOURIE also “bared the two faces” of Gundu Rao, the Chief Minister of Karnataka, who tried to impress him at an elaborate private luncheon at his palatial residence in Bangalore. Using for his title a quote from Rao, “She Can Give Me the Keys and Sleep,” SHOURIE reported how his host boasted that Mrs. Gandhi trusted him completely and then criticized the Congress (I) Party and the government. When the paper’s chief editor ruled that the copy be shortened and run on an inside page, SHOURIE angrily demanded it back and got it published in Sunday magazine, with a cover lead.

To the accusation that he had violated a confidence, SHOURIE answered that he would not waste time with off-the-record meetings and that it was a journalist’s job to print Rao’s unfavorable opinion about the government. “If an overgrown college boy and his sub-bullies tried to trap me, it is politics, but if I did the unexpected it is called betrayal— these are double standards,” he wrote. As for endangering sources of information, SHOURIE said that he intentionally wanted to break the “incestuous relationship pressmen have with ministers.”

In May 1982 SHOURIE wrote two strongly worded articles against a bill to silence the press that had been proposed by Jagannath Mishra, Chief Minister of Bihar. Mishra had felt the sting of SHOURIE’s pen in the exposures of the blindings, undertrials and jail conditions in Bihar, and other journalists too had documented other corrupt practices. To preclude new charges Mishra proposed legislation that would put editors, publishers, advertisers and even newspaper vendors in jail, without bail, on the charge of publishing or circulating “scurrilous” material, the latter term being left deliberately vague. The issue was critical for, with the control and censorship of television, radio and movies by the government, the printed word was the sole bulwark of free public expression in India.

The paper’s new chief editor, George Verghese (1975 Ramon Magsaysay Award for Journalism, Literature and Creative Communication Arts “for his superior developmental reporting of Indian society, balancing factual accounts of achievements, shortcomings and carefully researched alternatives”), thought the newspaper should not publish SHOURIE’s articles in the form in which they were written. Verghese had a “very legitimate view,” SHOURIE grants, but he found it unacceptable so published his articles in the fortnightly newsmagazine India Today.

SHOURIE’s second big exposé, concerning a government oil purchase, caused “a more substantial quarrel” with Verghese and dismayed Goenka. Evidence of serious irregularities was given SHOURIE in May 1982 which led him to trace tenders floated in January 1980 to supply the government with 300,000 tons of superior kerosene and 500,000 tons of high octane diesel fuel. The tenders were valid until February 15, 1982 and, since prices were expected to fall, government payment was to be made at the international market price at the time of delivery. Government regulations also required dealing directly with the foreign supplier, not with an Indian intermediary. The 14 tenders submitted were in keeping with these terms. However the records SHOURIE received showed that these procedures were changed for the benefit of three close classmates: Harish Jain, whose small Hindustan Monarch company fabricated machines for making bicycle parts; Kamal Nath, a Member of Parliament; and Sanjay Gandhi, the Prime Minister’s favored second son. On Sanjay’s instruction the Minister of Petroleum and Chemicals authorized the purchase of the petroleum products, through Jain’s company, from Kuo Oil of Hong Kong and Singapore. Kuo Oil, which had originally tendered at a variable price, was allowed to alter its bid to a fixed price after the tenders had been opened; the contract was set at US$175 million. To justify this change, the ministry claimed that the company had given a performance guarantee—though it had a paid-up capital of only US$50. The change from a variable to fixed price resulted in the Indian government paying Kuo Oil US$12 million over the international market price for oil at the time of delivery. Circumstantial evidence pointed to Kamal Nath as the trio’s collector of this overage.

The parliamentary committee which started to investigate the oil deal was told by the Petroleum and Chemicals Ministry that the
file containing all the details of this transaction could not be found. SHOURIE, however, learned that the file was at the Prime Minister’s house, and discovered exactly what was in it. By June he was ready to “open the game.” He wrote an article entitled “The Case of the Missing File,” in which he detailed: 1) how the minister was advised by his own departmental officials not to approve a transaction that violated procedures; 2) how the Empowerment Committee, which is supposed to process tenders, was bypassed; 3) how the country lost money, and 4) how the file was suppressed. Verghese declined to publish the article as it was written and proposed that the focus should be on the economic aspects of the deal. SHOURIE insisted an economic analysis would neither attract readers nor carry weight; his focus was on corruption, which he feels is the main issue in India today. Verghese argued that revealing what had transpired in confidential parliamentary meetings would bring privilege motions against SHOURIE and the paper, and that by quoting from a secret file they could be accused of violating the Official Secrets Act. SHOURIE responded that this was precisely the mine field that should be laid in order to force parliament to discuss the irregularities he was reporting, that he had had considerable experience in handling privilege motions from parliament and that, as for the Official Secrets Act being violated, if the prime minister’s son made a deal the government was unlikely to notify it in the official gazette.

In July, after their disagreement had become bitter—with Goenka supporting Verghese and threatening to fire SHOURIE—the latter mimeographed his article and forwarded it to the chairman of the Rajya Sabha and the speaker of the Lok Sabha (the presiding officers of the upper and lower houses of parliament respectively). A covering letter stated that parliament had been fooled and it was his duty to bring the enclosed information to its attention. He added that he was sending similar letters to members of the parliamentary committee from which the file had been kept, government and opposition leaders, and the Minister of Petroleum and Chemicals. In the shouting session that ensued in parliament, privilege motions were tabled against the Prime Minister, the government secretary and the Minister of Petroleum and Chemicals for suppressing facts from a parliamentary committee. Other motions were tabled against SHOURIE, on the grounds that these irregularities could not have happened and that he was bringing the committee and parliament into disrepute.

With wire services reporting the reaction to SHOURIE’s letter, and asking why the material had not been printed in the Indian Express, “Verghese graciously decided that day to publish the piece intact.” SHOURIE feels that he was right to force the hands of his publisher and chief editor in this way.

Lok Sabha speaker, Bal Ram Jakhar, responded to the actions in the lower house by rejecting all privilege motions. Promptly attacking him on “this perverse ruling,” SHOURIE quoted from Jakhar’s own book that a speaker’s duty is to allow discussion on important issues. Rajya Sabha chairman Mohammad Hidayatullah gave “an even more obtuse ruling,” that the committee could not file privilege motions about suppression of facts because it was a committee of the lower house. Quickly shattering this strategem SHOURIE published records showing that since 1953 the committee had been bicameral and that the report at issue had, in fact, been tabled in the upper house also. In the resulting furor Jakhar ruled that Hidayatullah was wrong, that the committee included members from both houses and all members were equal.

“You keep the pressure up in this way,” SHOURIE relates, “and you are controlling the debate with your articles. A ruling will be given today, and tomorrow I will publish 5,000 words on the background of that ruling and what it means. You must strike quickly so that key points register in the reader’s mind: first, that the government is trying to hide something because it is avoiding debate; second, that the government has not entered one word of defense of the Kuo Oil deal, even though the prime minister’s house is involved; third, that the chairman, the speaker and others are acting as party agents rather than fulfilling their legitimate functions; and fourth, that this single citizen on this single paper can go on like this and no one can touch him. That’s the most important signal because it gives heart to others.” Other papers understandably will not write about what he has done, “but they must report the commotion in parliament and eventually they will have to cover the oil deal that caused it.”

Verghese, who maintained from the outset that the Indian Express should only go so far, and SHOURIE, who was determined to push ahead and involve President Gyan Singh, were arguing heatedly on August 13, 1982, when SHOURIE wrote and sent to press his final article. Its title asked: “Why Not Put the Gyan to Work?” “Your first hurdle to prosecute a minister of government,” SHOURIE reminded his readers, “is to get the President’s permission.” At SHOURIE’s request, therefore, Ram Jethmalani—one of the two who filed petitions against Antulay—wrote an appeal to the president and the Indian Express printed it. This petition, and another sent a few days later, put the president in an untenable position: sanctioning the prosecution of the Minister of Petroleum and Chemicals would mean a prima facie case; and refusing to do so “would make our point that he is shielding a conspiracy,” SHOURIE states.

SHOURIE values the “cockpit role” he has had—selecting the issues and leading the attack on government corruption—as an unexpected bonus of being hired by “an extraordinary man [Goenka]” to work on “a splendid newspaper and the most independent one in India.” He adds that he could not report as audaciously for any other paper. He has used his forum to the hilt but is aware that his very audacity could be his undoing: “two big errors,” he says, “and my credibility would be gone.” This credibility he has earned by the fact that he relies almost entirely on documents and seldom on recollection and checks carefully the authenticity of his sources; he knows of only one case where he has printed a wrong name. He acknowledges that he is regarded as an unofficial ombudsman and says this is the result of his having become “a lightning rod.” People have come to him with grievances or important information which they think he might find a way to handle in an effective manner. Minor items he refers to his reporters, but issues involving high-level officials claim his personal attention so that rules of
parliamentary privilege, contempt of court, etc. will be taken into consideration and the newspaper “will not be defeated by the adversary.”

Though Goenka has a reputation for enjoying a good fight and SHOURIE’s “union card” with him was the critical article he had written during the Emergency, Goenka would be the first to say that the Indian Express must not be a scandalmonger. Neither does SHOURIE want to be known as such; he will undertake, therefore, no more than one major exposé a year. Yet he feels integrity in public life is an essential basis for democracy and that he must speak out for right action and right thinking when he sees the press under pressure; arbitrariness, corruption and crime in government on the rise; and the opposition in disarray.

Events, however, may overtake him, he points out, and “Ramnathji may ask me to go.” The Indian Express has a Rs.8 million (US$1 million) overdraft at the state Bank of India, and “it takes only one telephone call to demand payment.” Moreover, the government can always put pressure on the paper by withholding newsprint—canceling all or part of its allocation, or by simply holding up delivery, since the paper normally has only a three-day stock on hand. And Goenka has already paid dearly for his independent stance. The Indian Express has to operate its 10 editions by cumbersome teleprinters because the facsimile license given to Goenka was cancelled in 1970 after his break with Mrs. Gandhi. This means the same material has to be composed at each center; good staff is not available in some centers—six presently do not have managers—and power breakdowns are frequent in five. In addition the paper derives 70 percent of its income from advertising, much of which is from government advertisements and tender notices of public sector companies. The government can also file cases against the press as it has done in several instances.

SHOURIE’s way of safeguarding the paper from these vulnerabilities is to fill it with factual stories so that the paper can only be closed at the risk of public perception that this was done because it was telling the truth. He assumes that Mrs. Gandhi would like to see him silenced but pays her the compliment of saying that in any other authoritarian country he could no longer be published, instead of being treated with “benign neglect.” The impression that he is running a campaign against the prime minister is a misconception, SHOURIE states emphatically: “she is only the most visible and most potent symbol of what is wrong.” He considers her the “only politician in India” and the rest “schoolboys,” but observes that she is losing her capacity to govern as a result of her style of ruling. Still, “she alone maintains the illusion of government when in fact there is little government, so because of her presence a citizen like me feels secure.” He also says that readers who perceive him as obsessed with failure and decay are wrong: “I am very consciously trying to impart what I regard as Gandhiji’s message on collective action.”

Future leadership, SHOURIE believes, will come from outside the existing political arena, from student leaders who have shown keen political acumen in Assam, Gujarat and Bihar, and from men like Narayan who remove themselves from politics and retain their idealism and integrity.
The idea that electronic networks are inherently democratic without the specifics of the hard work that must be done to harvest that democratising power can become lead to what has been called commodification of the media.

Social scientists at times make a distinction between the critical functions of communicative processes and functions that aim to influence the decision of consumers, voters and clients. The critical functions are self-regulated and inclusive, while those aiming to influence are implemented by organisations that aim to promote purchasing power, loyalty or conformist behaviour. These two functions compete with each other.

Public Sphere Sold to Consumers
Many scholars of communication see the public sphere as a commodity that is sold to consumers, using manipulative techniques and imagery to seduce them. Television in particular has introduced flashy, phoney, often violent imagery to replace reading, writing, and rational discourse. Increasingly, aspects of advertising and public relations have undermined the public sphere by pushing out "genuine discourse with fake discourse", leading to a radical deterioration of the public sphere.

Politicians are now sold as commodities, citizens are viewed as consumers, and issues are decided with staged events and quotes pre-worded by publicity specialists. Politicians routinely spend large sums to improve their appearance for television and advertising appearances, through techniques such as image consultants, expensive wardrobes and haircuts, facelifts, exercise regimes and the like, in much the same way as actors and models do. They package themselves more attractively for the electorate's metaphorical supermarket shelf.

Advertising Promotes Consumer Identity
Advertising in the public sphere encourage consumption and promote "a consumerist subject position, which certainly manifests itself in a general way in social subjectivity. ...The commodification of everyday practices and social relations is beyond dispute".

The consumer identity has become the accepted model for political decision making. Discourse has degenerated into publicity, which harnesses the power of electronic media's seductive imagery to affect society's ideas and beliefs.

InternetDuplicates and Subverts
The Internet has the potential to both duplicate and subvert this effect. It duplicates it in that the same advertising and public relations are engaged with the Internet; and yet the Internet still has room for many other dissenting voices, which do not originate from commercial interests.

Many thousands of individual, non-commercial web sites, weblogs, newsgroups and so on operate independent of commercial considerations. While they flourish, there can be a vital exchange of ideas that is outside the realm of commodification.

Media Concentration
Women and servants often took a primary role in the literary public sphere of the 17th and 18th centuries, but not in the political public sphere.

Politicians: In the educated classes, men viewed the political and literary spheres as identical with one another. The critical issue is how the meaning of the term 'public sphere' is understood. When the public sphere is held to be that dominated by public opinion of educated men of the political public sphere, the public appeared as one and indivisible. There is another view in which it is held that people held two roles: privatised individuals who came together to form a public. The role of property owners and the role of human beings are separated.

This blurring of the category "human being" and "property owner" was easier to make because most of the members of the public sphere were both property owners and educated. This was because a person's education was a consequence of social status - which was determined by the extent of his property holdings. This allowed the freedom of the individual to converge with the interests of property owners.

Today's Media
This bears significant resemblance to today's media, due to the concentration of media ownership and the pressures of providing editorial content suited to the higher socio-economic groups advertisers favour.

Public Sphere no Longer Protected
Scholars argue that under the liberal model of the public sphere, institutions of public rational-critical debate were protected from interference by public authorities because they were in the hands of private people.

During the last century, they have become commercialised and concentrated economically, technologically and organisationally - gradually becoming sites of power. So although public institutions remain in private hands, their critical functions are threatened.

A public sphere dominated by the commercial media does not allow access by everyone, nor does it allow rational-critical debate. Instead, it acts as a focus for competing claims to power over market share, political loyalty, votes.
Internet in Many Hands
While the Internet remains in a large number of private hands, its effects on democracy are more likely to remain positive than if it were concentrated within fewer organisations.

Powerful, rich organisations may be able to control access to virtual communities as they have been able to control other media in the past.

The need for common technical and other standards also gives large companies an advantage perhaps making it more likely that concentration will increase.

These organisations are likely to operate in order to earn revenue. And commercial journalism that dominates general public discourse seeks a market, not a community changing the nature of any debate significantly.

Internet as Profit Centre
The Internet can be seen as bringing people together in alienation rather than solidarity. Individual users do not usually see that people in a political and economic structure produce the Internet.

In the rush to commercialise, the Internet created an investor frenzy, that has abated since the “dot com” stock market crash of 2000.

With the current explosion of numbers using Internet, pay-per-use has already begun to be introduced to generate capital for services - for example:

Salon ezine, which has introduced subscription fees
the Sydney Morning Herald newspaper online, which has introduced fees for archival material numerous other sites which have introduced various revenue models,

Their business models include:
• Paid advertising
• Pay-per-use
• Commissions
• Referral fees
• Sales of products and services
• Subscriptions.

The Internet also provides an ideal forum for public relations. Many thousands of companies have already provided web sites that are not intended to generate profit, but are intended to generate brand loyalty, positive image and to collect demographic and other information about the customer.

Information about Customers
As the user gathers information about the product, the company can gather data about its customers, greatly enhancing its ability to create public acceptance and to influence buying behaviour.

Co-operation as a Profit Generator
The co-operative ideology of the Internet’s originators is clashing with capitalism. Copyright violation is a serious issue. Another obvious example is the clash between Napster and the recording industry.

Napster
The Napster story is well documented elsewhere. In brief, the story is as follows. The company’s purpose was to enable individuals to swap music files with each other over the Internet.

Set up in 1999, by February 2001, 60 million users were using the service to do just that. The Recording Industry Association of America took it to court, and won on copyright grounds. Napster was forced to close its free service, and was eventually bought out by Bertelsman, a major force in the music recording world.

While Napster as a company has not prospered, the concept behind it has burgeoned. Free file-sharing applications like KaZaA and Gnutella have millions of users.

Threat or Boost for Profits?
The main question for businesses who deal primarily in data, is whether the culture of sharing on the Internet is a threat to their profits or whether it can be harnessed as a highly lucrative profit making concern:

The MP3 movement may have already had its day, but file-swapping still continues in a quieter way. Will the record labels eventually catch up to reality and offer a reasonable product that customers won’t resist?

Or will the rogue file-swapping programs figure out some way to license music and reimburse the artists that are still losing in this equation?

Guidance as a Profit Generator
The Internet is complex and large, so users are keen to find guidance (such as search engines, fast, reliable connections and research tools). Large companies have the opportunity to fill this need and the potential for profits.

Google
Google is an example of a company currently fulfilling this need to its financial advantage, and also to the advantage of many Internet users.

Such services also have the potential to influence public debate through their immense reach.

Google, currently the most popular search engine, serves 150 million searches a day and Global unique users per month: 36.5 million (Google, 2002).

The sites it promotes to the top of its results are highly visible. The potential for profits and an influence on discussion in the public sphere are enormous.
In the earlier days of American television, the three major networks (NBC, CBS, and ABC) dominated programming and sought to obtain the widest audience possible. They avoided programming content that might appeal only to a small segment of the mass population and succeeded in their goal by reaching nearly 90% (combined) of the television viewing audience on a regular basis.

The networks maintained their stronghold until competition emerged through the addition of many independent stations, the proliferation of cable channels and the popularity of videocassettes. These competitors provided television audiences with many more viewing options. Consequently, the large numbers previously achieved through mass-oriented programming dwindled and “narrowcasting” took hold.

With narrowcasting the programmer or producer assumes that only a limited number of people or a specific demographic group will be interested in the subject matter of a programme. In many ways, this is the essence of cable television’s programming strategy. Following the format or characteristics of specialized magazines, a cable television program or channel may emphasize one subject or a few closely related subjects. For example, music television is presented on MTV (Music Television), VH1 (Video Hits 0 ne), and TNN (The Nashville Network); CNN (Cable News Network) offers 24-hour news coverage; ESPN (Entertainment Sports Network) boasts an all sports format; and C-Span covers the U.S. Congress. Other cable channels feature programming such as shopping, comedy, science-fiction, or programmes aimed at specific ethnic or gender groups highly prized by specific advertisers.

For the most part, the major networks continue to gear their programming to the general mass audience. But increasingly, they, too, are engaged in forms of narrowcasting by segmenting similar programmes that appeal to specific groups into adjacent time slots. A network, for example, might target young viewers by programming back-to-back futuristic space programs on one night, while on a different night, feature an ensemble of ethnic-oriented programmes. This strategy allows the networks to reach the overall mass audience cumulatively rather than simultaneously.

In the United States, then, narrowcasting is driven by economic necessity and competition. In public service systems around the world, where broadcasting is supported by license fee, by tax, or by direct government support, there has never been the same need to reach the largest possible audience. As a consequence, programming for special groups—e.g. children, the elderly, ethnic or religious groups—has been standard practice. Ironically, the same technologies that bring competition to commercial broadcasters in the United States, cause similar difficulties for public service broadcasters. In those systems new, commercially supported programming delivered by satellite and cable, often draws audiences away from public service offerings.

Government officials and elected officers become reluctant to provide scarce public funds to broadcasters whose audiences are becoming smaller, forcing public service programmers to reach for larger audiences with different types of programme content. While multiple program sources—cable, home video—make it unlikely that these systems will move toward “mass audience programming” it is the case that the face of broadcasting is changing in these contexts.
Public Relations
Advertising forms an important supporting arm of the media. Another important supporting arm is Public Relations. If advertising is directly aimed at selling products and services, public relations is more about creating an appropriate atmosphere. Wartime slogans for recruitment are usually exercises in public relations. For those dealing with the media it is important to learn to distinguish between entertainment, journalistic content, public relations and advertising.

Some well-known examples of public relations are Julius Caesar's feeding the people of the Roman Empire with his achievements to keep up morale and to strengthen his own reputation and position, Genghis Khansend men in advance to spread stories of his might to frighten enemies into surrendering without a fight. The Swadeshi movement during the early part of this century was also an exercise in educating the public about the need for being self-sufficient preparatory to self-rule. Prime Minister Indira Gandhi's tour of world capitals during the Bangladesh crisis of 1971 was an exercise in public relations to mobilise international support for the action that India was planning to take.

Prince Charles hired a public relations firm to boost the image of his unpopular mistress Camilla Parker-Bowles and Exxon used a vast PR army to minimise the damage to its reputation following the 1989 oil spill from its ship Exxon Valdez. the 'India Shining' Campaign run by the Vajpayee government was an exercise in public relations undertaken to polish the image of the party in power just before the general elections.

Public relations in its modern sense was first used in the United States when George Washington employed Mason Weems in 1800 to burnish his reputation in a glowing and often fictitious biography of the Father of the (US) Nation. (Can Mahatma Gandhi's autobiography 'My Experiments With Truth' be placed in the same category?). The effort in public relations was essentially people or organisations using communication to inform, to build and image and to influence public opinion.

The precursors to public relations can be found in the publicists who specialized in promoting circuses, theatrical performances, and other public spectacles. Many PR practitioners have also been recruited from the ranks of journalism and have used their understanding of the news media to ensure that their clients receive favourable media coverage.

The First World War also helped stimulate the development of public relations as a profession. Many of the first PR professionals, including Ivy Lee, Edward Bernays, and Carl Byoir, got their start with the Committee for Public Information (also known as the Creel Committee), which organized publicity on behalf of U.S. objectives during World War I. Some historians regard Ivy Lee as the first real practitioner of public relations, but Edward Bernays is generally regarded today as the profession’s founder.

Ivy Lee, who has been credited with “inventing” PR news releases, espoused a philosophy consistent with what has sometimes been called the “two-way street” approach to public relations, in which PR consists of helping clients listen as well as communicate messages to their publics. In the words of the PRSA, “Public relations helps an organization and its publics adapt mutually to each other.” In practice, however, Lee often engaged in one-way propagandizing on behalf of clients despised by the public, including robber baron John D. Rockefeller. His career ended in scandal, when the U.S. Congress held hearings to investigate his work on behalf of Nazi Germany in the years immediately preceding World War II.

Bernays was the profession’s first theorist. A nephew of Sigmund Freud, Bernays drew many of his ideas from Freud’s theories about the irrational, unconscious motives that shape human behavior. Bernays authored several books, including Crystallizing Public Opinion (1923), Propaganda (1928), and The Engineering of Consent (1947). Bernays saw public relations as an “applied social science” that uses insights from psychology, sociology, and other disciplines to scientifically manage and manipulate the thinking and behavior of an irrational and “herdlike” public. “The conscious and intelligent manipulation of the organized habits and opinions of the masses is an important element in democratic society,” he wrote in Propaganda. “Those who manipulate this unseen mechanism of society constitute an invisible government which is the true ruling power of our country.”

One of Bernays’ early clients was the tobacco industry. In 1929, he orchestrated a legendary publicity stunt aimed at persuading women to take up cigarette smoking, which was then considered unfeminine and inappropriate for women with any social standing. To counter this image, Bernays arranged for New York City debutantes to march in that year’s Easter Day Parade, defiantly smoking cigarettes as a statement of rebellion against the norms of a male-dominated society. Photographs of what Bernays dubbed the “Torches of Liberty Brigade” were sent to newspapers, and many women were fooled into taking up the cause, demanding to be admitted into previously all-male smoking clubs in the belief that this was an important step in the struggle for gender equality. Tobacco companies have been grateful ever since for Bernays’ success in overcoming the “taboo” against female smoking.

Apart from burnishing sagging images public relations later took on the role of providing the public face of firms and corporations whose size was steadily growing. In 1889 Westinghouse Electric established the first corporate public relations department, hiring a former newspaper writer to engage the press and ensure that the company’s positions were always clear and in the public eye. Railway companies in the
United States found it expedient to have a specialised department to disseminate information about accidents and strikes. Pennsylvania Railroad usually suppressed information about accidents but was persuaded by Ivy Lee to be more open with information to an already suspicious public.

Public relations soon became what came to be known as a two-way communication. They based their strategy on an assessment of the public's feelings towards an organisation. Public relations professionals began representing their various publics to their clients just as they represented their clients to the public. Soon they started turning to public opinion polling to better gauge public mood.

As professionals who work in the media it is important to distinguish between the various shades of public relations and treat it in an appropriate manner. One must be able to pick useful information from propaganda. An article quoting dubious sources in support of claims that chocolate is good for the arteries of the heart is more likely to be an item belonging to the genre – lies, damn lies and public relations.

The Industry Today
According to the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, public relations specialists held approximately 122,000 jobs in 1998, while there were approximately 485,000 advertising, marketing, and public relations managers working in all industries. Modern public relations uses a variety of techniques including opinion polling and focus groups to evaluate public opinion, combined with a variety of high-tech techniques for distributing information on behalf of their clients, including satellite feeds, the Internet, broadcast faxes, and database-driven phone banks to recruit supporters for a client's cause.

The skills and techniques used to manage the public have also expanded over the years. According to the PRSA, “Examples of the knowledge that may be required in the professional practice of public relations include communication arts, psychology, social psychology, sociology, political science, economics, and the principles of management and ethics. Technical knowledge and skills are required for opinion research, public issues analysis, media relations, direct mail, institutional advertising, publications, film/video productions, special events, speeches, and presentations.”

In addition to corporations, public relations practitioners serve a variety of institutions in society including trade unions, government agencies, schools, and nonprofit organizations. Practitioners aspire to managerial rather than functional status within the institutions they serve. A number of PR-related disciplines exist, many with names that reflect the industry's desire to be seen as managers rather than mere publicists. Those disciplines include:

- crisis management,
- reputation management,
- news management
- opinion management,
- perception management,
- outrage management (a field pioneered by PR consultant Peter Sandman),
- issue management,
- public affairs,
- investor relations,
- labor relations,
- grassroots PR (sometimes referred to as astroturf PR).

Ethical and Social Issues
Many of the techniques used by PR firms are drawn from the institutions and practices of democracy itself. Persuasion, advocacy, and education are instruments through which individuals and organizations are entitled to express themselves in a free society, and many public relations practitioners are engaged in practices that are innocuous or even beneficial to the public, such as helping publicize university research findings, planning charity fundraisers, or designing course catalogues for community colleges. However, a number of strong criticisms of public relations have been made over the years.

One of the most pernicious public relations strategies is the creation of front groups — organizations that purport to serve a public cause while actually serving the interests of a client whose sponsorship may be concealed. The creation of front groups is an example of what PR practitioners sometimes term the third party technique — the art of “putting your words in someone else's mouth.” PR Watch, a nonprofit organization that monitors deceptive PR activities, has published numerous examples of this technique in practice.

Beyond the ethical problems with these practices, public relations poses another, deeper challenge to society: Does the organized practice of propaganda by corporations, governments, and other powerful institutions really serve the interests of democracy and human freedom? Critics of the profession see public relations as a fundamentally reactionary response to the perceived danger of ordinary people thinking for themselves or implementing alternative economic and social models.

A Contra View
Manufacturing Consent: The Political Economy of the Mass Media is a book by Edward S. Herman and Noam Chomsky. Presenting a theory its authors call the “propaganda model”, the book argues that since mass media news outlets are now run by large corporations, they are under the same competitive pressures as other corporations. According to the book, the pressure to create a stable, profitable business invariably biases the kinds of news items reported, as well as the manner and emphasis in which they are reported. This occurs not as a result of conscious design but simply as a consequence of market selection: those businesses who happen to favour profits over news quality survive, while those that present a more accurate picture of the world tend to become marginalized.

The book further points out issues with the dependency of mass media news outlets upon major sources of news, particularly the government. If a particular outlet is in disfavor with a government, it can be subtly ’shut out’, and other outlets given preferential treatment. Since this results in a loss in news leadership, it can also result in a loss of readership/viewership. That can itself result in a loss of advertising revenue, which is the primary income for most mass media (newspapers,
magazines, television). To minimize the possibilities of lost revenue, therefore, outlets will tend to report news in a tone more favourable to the government and giving unfavourable news about the government less emphasis.
The Press in India

(\textit{Media history second lecture})

Though media and reporting were practised during Mughal times in India the press in the modern sense came into existence in the early part of the 19th Century. The first newspapers were bulletins brought out by officials of the East India Company mainly as a means of exchanging gossip and to air grievances. The Bengal Hurkaru and Bengal (Hickey’s) Gazette were examples. (show copies). The Company authorities did try to curb this but it was essentially an exchange of ideas between its British employees and management.

In the second and third decades of the 19th century Indian nationalism began to grow as a concept. Ram Mohun Roy, one of the men responsible for the infusion of new ideas in the country, also started the first nationalist newspaper. It was called \textit{Mirat-ul-akhbar}.

Divisions within Indian society was the major problem facing anyone who had embarked on the road to building and uniting a nation. Common factors had to be emphasised.

Rationalism rather than superstition or the diktat of the clergy were other important developments all over the world during the 18th and 19th centuries.

That is why the initial tone of the nationalist newspapers in India was reformist – evils like sati were identified. Campaigns were run against them. A sympathetic British administration run by Company officials were persuaded to pass legislation to check these evil practices.

Caste was seen as a major obstacle to unity among members of the newly emerging India. The urgent need for social and religious reform thus formed the content of most of the early newspapers.

The First Indian war of independence or the Sepoy Mutiny (as the British called it) in 1857 was a turning point. Subsequent to this event the British government took full control over Indian administration.

The 1857 event signalled the diminishing power of the middle feudal classes like zamindars and the rise of the new middle classes belonging to the professions who had received the new western style education. As administration became serious business for the British authorities, the new Indian middle classes started clamouring for a share in power. The Indian National Congress was formed. To give expression to their views and aspirations papers like the Amrit Bazar Patrika were founded. In the beginning these papers concentrated on demanding Indianisation of the growing administrative services. Later this graduated to the demand for responsible government and self-government. But they did not pay much attention to social reforms.

William Bolts, an ex-employee of the East India Company attempted to start the first newspaper in India way back in 1776. Bolts had to beat a retreat under the disapproving gaze of the Court of Directors of the Company. The Bengal Gazette by James Augustus Hickey was started in 1780. The Gazette, a two-sheet newspaper, “specialised” in writing on the private lives of the Sahibs of the Company. He dared even to mount “scurrilious attacks” on the Governor-General Warren Hastings’ wife, which soon landed “the late printer to the Honourable Company” in trouble.

Hickey landed himself a 4 months jail term and Rs.500 fine, which did not deter him. After a bitter attack on the Governor-General and the Chief Justice, Hicky was sentenced to one year in prison and fined Rs.5,000, which finally drove him to penury. These are the first tentative steps of journalism in India.

B. Messink and Peter Reed were plain publishers of the India Gazette, unlike their infamous predecessor. The colonial establishment started the Calcutta Gazette. It was followed by another private initiative the Bengal Journal. The Oriental Magazine of Calcutta A museum, a monthly magazine made it four weekly newspapers and one monthly magazine published from Calcutta, now Kolkata.

Madras, now Chennai: The Madras Courier was started in 1785 in the southern stronghold of – yes, Madras, which is called Chennai now. Richard Johnson, its founder, was a government printer. Madras got its second newspaper when, in 1791, Hugh Boyd, who was the editor of the Courier quit and founded the Hurkaru. Tragically for the paper, Boyd passed away within a year of its founding - it ceased publication too.

It was only in 1795 that competitors to the Courier emerged with the founding of the Madras Gazette followed by the India Herald. The latter was an “unauthorised” publication, which led to the deportation of its founder Humphreys. The Madras Courier was designated the purveyor of official information in the Presidency.

Bombay, now Mumbai: Bombay, surprisingly was a late starter - the Bombay Herald came into existence in 1789. Significantly, a year later a paper called the Courier started carrying advertisements in Gujarati. The first media merger of sorts. The Bombay Gazette, which was started in 1791, merged with the Bombay Herald the following year. Like the Madras Courier, this new entity was recognised as the publication to carry “official notifications and advertisements”.

Some of the nationalist press did, however focus on the need for reforms in the social sectors like education, health and the removal of untouchability. Mahatma Gandhi’s Harijan and Ramananda Chatterjee’s Modern Review can be mentioned as examples.
The print media in India is one of the last redoubts of domestic initiative and enterprise to yield to the rampant forces of globalisation. The print media in India will now be opened up for foreign direct investment. In accordance with a Union Cabinet decision of June 25, 2002, publications dealing with news and current affairs could have foreign shareholding to the extent of 26 per cent of total equity. Other publications of a specialised or technical character could have up to 74 per cent foreign equity holding.

The Union Cabinet was by all accounts divided on the question that was placed before it - reportedly for the third time in less than a year - by Sushma Swaraj, the Union Minister for Information and Broadcasting. That a Minister known to be rather squeamish about the entry of alien influences into the mass media should show this manner of enthusiasm in pressing the case for foreign investment in print, speaks of a certain lack of consistency in thinking. It also bears testimony to the vigour of the lobbying effort mounted by a section of the Indian media and bureaucrats in the Home Ministry is not the best guarantee of the freedom of the press. On the global plane, it had shown an unseemly affinity towards outlaw regimes such as Israel, while turning its back on the honoured principles and alliances of Indian foreign policy. There could be few prognoses that are more disastrous for the Indian print media than the free importation of these predilections into its functioning under the new policy dispensation.

“A careful opening up,” is how Sushma Swaraj chose to describe her policy initiative. It was, she said, a “logical and timely decision” since there was little sense in prohibiting foreign investment in print when few such fetters were imposed in other sectors, including the visual and electronic media. Informed commentators have pointed out that India’s record of regulation in the electronic and visual media was for long one of wooden obstinacy in preserving an unsustainable governmental monopoly. And when the irresistible forces of technology began altering the ground rules in broadcasting and communications beginning in the early-1990s, the government consistently chose the worst of the options before it.

Allowing the satellite uplinking facility for fully domestically owned companies would have established a regulatory parity between the print and the electronic media. It would also, conceivably, have enabled domestic enterprises to build up the critical mass of expertise necessary to cope with rapid changes in the global broadcasting scene. But the official response steered clear of all such potentially constructive avenues and opted for a course that actively discriminated against domestic enterprises. When the formal liberalisation of policy was initiated in piecemeal fashion in the latter half of the 1990s, its impact was skewed in favour of foreign multinational entities that had been not been shackled over the previous years and had built up the commercial and technical power to rush into newly opened domains.
Sushma Swaraj’s intent to replicate the regulatory history of the electronic media in the print sector cannot be very good news. Indeed, if ever there was a case for a crossover of ideas and principles, it would have been for the electronic media, steeped in the unwholesome tradition of manipulative government control, to learn from the traditions of fierce independence and commitment to national sovereignty that the print media had come to embody.

REACTIONS to the government’s decision were almost unanimously adverse. With the exception of the Bharatiya Janata Party, all political parties including the BJP’s closest political soulmate, the Shiv Sena, condemned the move. Industry associations such as the Indian Newspaper Society (INS) termed it ill-thought-out and ruinous in its implications. Professional bodies of media personnel again displayed no great appreciation. Only business lobbies such as the Confederation of Indian Industry (CII), which has learnt almost as a conditioned reflex to welcome any move that answers to the description of liberalisation, had anything positive to say about the government decision.

A newly established confederacy of newspaper editors and industrialists had a different perception. In a joint statement issued shortly afterwards, Narendra Mohan, the proprietor of the mass circulation Dainik Jagran published across the Hindi belt, teamed up with the Editors of India Today, The Indian Express, The Pioneer, and Business Standard, to welcome the government decision. The opening up of the print media, the group of five argued, was a long overdue measure. While commending the government for its boldness, the group cautioned the public against being swayed by the adverse reactions of other media groups.

Narendra Mohan heads one of the most successful newspaper enterprises in the Hindi belt. In recognition of his influence over public affairs, the BJP has had him elected to the Rajya Sabha, where he has exerted himself strenuously in favour of the cause of foreign investment in print. While the Standing Committee on Information Technology was deliberating over the issue, he was known not to miss out on any opportunity or procedural wrangle in seeking to turn the tide of opinion within the body.

Early in the committee’s deliberations, Narendra Mohan had associated himself with a communication that was also signed by his four other confederates in the cause, urging that the potential strengths that could accrue to the Indian print media from the infusion of foreign funds be considered. This letter was addressed to Minister Sushma Swaraj in May last year, and referred by her to the committee. What was striking then is that the signatories represented a mixed group, widely dispersed in its implications. The committee’s response to this crisis was to recommend some instrumentality of concessional finance. The Press Council of India, it observed, had proposed the formation of a Newspaper Finance Corporation decades ago, following which a Bill for this specific purpose had been introduced in the Lok Sabha in 1970. Once allowed to lapse, the Bill was reintroduced in 1973, but not followed through. The committee urged the government to “seriously consider this problem” and make “institutional arrangements for concessional finance for small and medium newspapers, so that (their) working capital and other essential financial needs” were adequately met.

This suggestion, that the newspapers should be insulated against the vagaries of the market through concessional financial arrangements, would be unlikely to meet with widespread endorsement. It could well substitute the tyranny of the market with the equally irksome burden of governmental control. But it is significant that the committee took note of the problem and urged a coherent policy response that steered clear of the nostrums of liberalisation and foreign investment.

It has been recorded with a wealth of documentation that deregulation in the media industry is little else than a short cut for the rampant growth of monopoly enterprises. The Indian newspaper industry, with its widely dispersed ownership and its
sage of accountability to a diversity of interests, has managed to avoid these pitfalls to some extent all these years. But in throwing open the door to big multinational players, the government may well have dealt the death blow to diversity in the media as well as its relative independence from extraneous corporate interests.

Quite a different dimension of the problem would emerge when it is observed that the dilution of the domestic ownership norm is only a part of the problem of growing encroachment on media autonomy. As the veteran media analyst and market researcher Dr. N. Bhaskara Rao, chairman of the Delhi-based Centre for Media Studies, has pointed out, creeping foreign influence has been a fact of life in the Indian media industry over the decade of liberalisation. Over this period of time, foreign ownership and control in the two pivotal industries of market research and advertising has grown, he observes. While market research sets the benchmarks for the media industry, the advertising industry is the channel through which its main revenues flow.

Bhaskara Rao asserts that today it is impossible to find a major market research or advertising firm that is not controlled by foreign capital. The implications that market research may have for the television medium were recently highlighted when allegations surfaced of rampant manipulation of the “Television Rating Points” system, which was introduced as a device to enable advertising agencies to plan media campaigns. As a veteran of several National Readership Surveys, Bhaskara Rao is aware of the pressures that could be brought to bear on research agencies, whose findings could often govern the disposition of massive advertising budgets.

The influence of the advertising industry on the media is more direct. And it is significant in this respect that just when the Parliamentary Committee was finalising its reports on foreign investment in the print media, the Union Cabinet cleared a proposal to have 100 per cent foreign holding in the advertising industry. Ironically, this major development did not seem to exert any bearing at all on the concurrent debate on the autonomy and independence of the print media. But with the recent government decision on media ownership, the last bastion of sovereignty could well be under threat.

In the picturesque turn of phrase used by Bhaskara Rao, Meerut and Panipat fell with the intrusion of foreign capital into the advertising and market research industries. Delhi the capital has itself now been subverted from within and may not hold out much longer.
MEDIA EVOLUTION AND TRENDS

With independence in 1947, the Indian press lost direction somewhat in the absence of a clearly identifiable opponent like the British authorities. Nehru’s domination of the scene at least during the first two decades after 1947 and the absence of an opposition meant that the press no longer required to carry out its watchdog function. None of the journalists of the time could pick up enough courage to put Nehru’s policies and actions under the scanner.

It was only during the long and turbulent tenure of his daughter Indira Gandhi as the prime minister that the Indian press found an identity for itself helped along, of course, by the new technological developments from time to time. For the first time India got a taste of dictatorship when Mrs. Gandhi declared emergency in 1975. Pre-censorship was imposed for the first time in free India and sent the media into a shock. It was later said that editors of Indian newspapers crawled when Mrs. Gandhi had merely asked them to bend.

The electronic media, which consisted mainly of All Indian Radio, too came under increasing control of the government and used as a propaganda arm by the party in power. However, after an eclipse of two years the Indian press pulled itself together and set out on a more confident note once emergency was lifted and democracy restored. The press now got rid of its suspicion of the West and of authority - a hangover from the days of the British when nationalist newspapers and periodicals thrived on painting the foreign masters as villains of the piece.

They realised that Indians had gained control over their own affairs. If things were not moving in the right direction or at the desired pace, then it was not much point continuing to blame outsiders or “the foreign hand” for it. The media began to turn the eye inwards and looked for the causes of India’s misfortunes among the rulers and the ruled. Corruption and abuse of power were now seen as the twin culprits and there surfaced in India that crusading breed of journalism – investigative reporting. (show samples of Arun Shourie’s reports on the Bhagalpur blinding of undertrials, Kuo oil deal, the Antulay-Indira Gandhi Pratishthand Trust scandal, the Bofors scam, HDW submarine deal, the Harshad Mehta-stock market scandal, the Telgi security stamp paper scam) The searchlight was now turned towards the authorities.

Developments in the field of media was complemented by the social-economic-political scene which saw the end of the single dominant party rule to the emergence of a multi-part system coalitions. Alternatives, in other words, characterised the subject of the media who were had by now adopted the role of examining competing claims of people jockeying for positions of power. They now assumed the watchdog role.

Two developments around this time (about 10 to 15 years from now) completely changed the media scene - the arrival of television in a big way and the popularisation of the Internet. Cable and satellite made this explosion possible. Today there are an estimated 100 million TV homes in our country – roughly 500 million viewers. The number of TV homes exceeds the populations of most countries.

Of course, the second important means of communicating information on a mass scale was the internet and it has now become popular for most journals and newspapers to have web editions as well. Though the web offers immense possibilities for disseminating information quickly on a mass scale the commercial viability of web journals has not yet been established. But both the web and television have brought people all over the world in closer communication with each other. The destruction of the twin World Trade Centre towers in New York aroused worldwide outrage - a thing that would not have been possible but for the images of the destruction flashed on television globally.

Activities

1. Show front pages of some early Indian newspapers and magazines. Survey of contents of nationalist and Anglo-Indian papers.

2. Find out impact of television on radio and print, radio on print, internet on each other

LESSON 13: EMERGENCY AND THE DEFINING MOMENT FOR THE INDIAN PRESS
LESSON 14:
SATELLITE AND CABLE TELEVISION

Aldrin descends from Apollo 11 from CNN

Television could not exist in its contemporary form without satellites. Since 10 July 1962, when NASA technicians in Maine transmitted fuzzy images of themselves to engineers at a receiving station in England using the Telstar satellite, orbiting communications satellites have been routinely used to deliver television news and programming between companies and to broadcasters and cable operators. And since the mid-1980s they have been increasingly used to broadcast programming directly to viewers, to distribute advertising, and to provide live news coverage.

Arthur C. Clarke, a British engineer turned author, is credited with envisioning the key elements of satellite communications long before the technical skill or political will to implement his ideas existed. In 1945 he published a plan to put electronic relay stations—a radio receiver and re-transmitter—into space at 23,000 miles above the earth’s equator. At this altitude, the satellite must complete a full rotation around the earth every 24 hours in order to sustain orbit (countering the pull of the earth’s gravity). Given the rotation of the earth itself, that keeps the satellite at the same relative position. This “geosynchronous orbit” is where several hundred communications satellites sit today providing telephone and data communications, but mostly, relaying television signals. Television is currently the largest user of satellite bandwidth.

An “uplink” transmitter on earth, using a “dish” antenna pointed toward the satellite, sends a signal to one of the satellite’s “transponders.” The transponder amplifies that signal and shifts it to another frequency (so as not to interfere with the incoming signal) to be transmitted back to earth. A “downlink” antenna and receiver on earth then captures that signal and sends it on its way. The essential advantage of the satellite is that the uplink and downlink may be 8000 miles apart. In practice, satellite communications is more efficient over a shorter distances than that, but the advantages over terrestrial transmissions—cable, fiber optics, and microwave—are profound, particularly across oceans. As with Direct Broadcast Satellites (DBS), satellites can transmit to an unlimited number of ground receivers simultaneously, and costs do not increase with distance.

Each satellite has a distinct “footprint,” or coverage area, which is meticulously shaped and plotted. In 1971, the first communications satellites carrying “spot beam” antennas were launched. A spot beam antenna can be steered to focus the satellite’s reception and transmission capabilities on a small portion of the earth, instead of the 40% of the earth’s surface a wider antenna beam could cover. Spot coverage is crucial in international broadcasting, when neighboring countries may object to signal “spillover” into their territory.

Communications satellites since the 1960’s have received uplink signals in a range of frequencies (or “bandwidth”) near six GHz (gigahertz, or a billion cycles per second) and downlinked signals near four GHz. This range of frequencies is known as “C-band.” Each range of frequencies is subdivided into specific channels, which, in the case of C-band, are each from 36 to 72 MHZ wide. A single analog television transmission may occupy enough bandwidth to fully utilize a single 36 MHz channel. Hundreds or thousands of voice or data signals requiring far less bandwidth would fit on the same channel. In the 1980s a new generation of satellites using bandwidths of 11 to 12 GHz (uplink) and 14 GHz (downlink) came into use. The “Ku-band” does not require as much power to be transmitted clearly, thereby permitting the use of small (and less expensive) earth stations for uplink and downlink. With the introduction of the Ku-band, television entered the era of live news—satellite news gathering (SNG)—as “Ku-band” satellites made it easy to uplink television signals with a portable dish from the scene of a breaking news story. Television news has also made some use of another satellite technology, remote sensing, using pictures taken by satellites to illustrate or verify news stories.

In the late 1970s, with the satellite distribution of Home Box Office, home satellite dishes, or “television receive only” (TVRO), became popular for people out of reach of cable television. Later, direct satellite broadcasting (DBS) to small home dishes became possible through the use of these higher frequencies. Since 1988 DBS has been heavily used in Europe, and it is rapidly gaining popularity in the United States. Overage of the C and Ku bandwidths and the desire for even greater signal strength is leading to new satellites that use other areas of the radio spectrum. A typical communications satellite launched in the early 1990s has a mix of C and Ku-band transponders, and is capable of relaying over 30,000 voice or data circuits and four or more television transmissions. Telephony and television use roughly equivalent portions of available satellite capacity, but the demand for DBS has led to a number of satellites dedicated to TV transmission.

Like other communications technologies, the satellite industry has embraced digitalization and signal compression as a means of maximizing the use of limited bandwidth. By converting analog signals to digital signals, less bandwidth is required, and digital signals can be broken into smaller pieces for transmission.
Some developing countries have demonstrated success in using satellite delivered television to provide useful information to portions of their populations out of reach of terrestrial broadcasting. In 1975, an experimental satellite communications project called SITE (Satellite Instructional Television Experiment) was used to bring informational television programs to rural India. The project led to Indian development of its own satellite network. China has also embarked on a ambitious program of satellite use for development, claiming substantial success in rural education.

STAR-TV, controlled by media mogul Rupert Murdoch, transmits television programming over much of Asia and has forced governments worldwide to reevaluate their stance on issues of national sovereignty and control of incoming information. STAR-TV reaches over 50 countries and potentially half of the world’s population—far more than any other satellite television service (though it is technically not DBS, still requiring larger dishes). A slew of contentious political and cultural issues have resulted. Murdoch dropped BBC World Service Television from his STAR-TV program lineup as a concession to the Chinese government. Other governments have complained about the unrestricted importation of news presented from an Anglo-American viewpoint, though their concerns about political consequences are often couched in terms of protecting local culture. Reports of disruptions to local cultures stemming from international satellite broadcasting are widespread.

In all these instances, satellite technology has called into question conventional notions of the nation state. Geographic borders may be insufficient definitions of culture and nationality in an era of electronic information, beamed from multiple sources into the sky, and down again into almost any location.

**Television (India TV)**

Television service in India is available throughout the country. Broadcasting is a central government monopoly under the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting, but the only network system, Doordarshan, also known as TV1, accepts program packages from an Anglo-American viewpoint, though their concerns about political consequences are often couched in terms of protecting local culture. Reports of disruptions to local cultures stemming from international satellite broadcasting are widespread.

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**Direct Broadcast Satellite**

**Satellite Delivery Technology**

Direct Broadcast Satellite (DBS) is a satellite-delivered program service meant for home reception. DBS programming is, in most respects, the same as that available to cable television subscribers. DBS subscribers, however, do not access their programs from terrestrial cable systems but rather directly from high powered telecommunications satellites stationed in geosynchronous orbit some 22,000 miles above the earth. Like cable systems, DBS program suppliers package a variety of program services or channels and market them to prospective DBS subscribers for a monthly fee.

The DBS business may be distinguished from the older Television Receive Only (TVRO) business in three important respects: technology, programming and cost. TVRO households (of which there are approximately four million in the United States) must purchase and install a satellite dish measuring between seven to ten feet in diameter and costing approximately $1,800. TVRO households receive about 75 channels of unscrambled programming but may also subscribe to a package of scrambled (“encrypted”) program services for a monthly fee. TVRO programming is delivered via the three to six gigahertz (GHz) frequency range, known as the C-band, at a power of ten watts or less.

DBS dishes, on the other hand, measure 18 inches or less in diameter and cost approximately $700. DBS and TVRO program packages are similar, although DBS subscribers cannot
receive the numerous unscrambled programming channels available to TVRO dish owners. DBS transmissions are delivered at the 11-to-15 GHz frequency range, known as the Ku-band, at a power that may exceed 120 watts. The higher power of the Ku-band allows a more directed satellite-to-receiver signal and, thus, requires a much smaller receiver dish than is required for C-band reception.

The origins of DBS date to 1975 when Home Box Office (HBO) first utilized a satellite to deliver its program service to local cable television systems. Numerous individuals, especially those living in rural areas beyond the reach of cable television, erected TVRO dishes on their property and accessed whatever programming they wanted as it flowed from satellites. Program suppliers soon objected to free receipt of their product by TVRO owners. As a result, HBO and similar services began scrambling their signals in 1985. TVRO owners thereafter were required to pay a subscription fee to receive such programming.

The first effort to create a true DBS service in the United States occurred in 1980 when the Satellite Television Corporation (STV) proposed such a service to the Federal Communications Commission (FCC). The FCC approved STC’s proposal and invited other companies to propose DBS services. Of the 13 companies that responded to the FCC, proposals from eight of them—including such electronics industry giants as Western Union and RCA—eventually were approved. By the early 1990s, however, the high start-up cost of establishing a DBS service (estimated at more than a billion dollars) had forced many of the original DBS applicants either to delay or to abandon their projects altogether. What’s more, DBS companies were uncertain that program suppliers that heretofore had provided programming exclusively to cable systems would extend their services to DBS. That matter was settled when the Cable Television Consumer Protection and Competition Act of 1992 prohibited cable program suppliers from refusing to sell their services to DBS operators.

FCC permission to launch DBS services included satellite transponder (or transmitter) assignment and DBS orbital slot assignment. Satellites providing a DBS service are allowed to occupy eight orbital slots positioned at 61.5, 101, 110, 119, 148, 157, 166, and 175 degrees west longitude.

A consortium of cable television system owners launched the first generation DBS service, called Primestar, in July 1991. Primestar utilized 45 watt transponders aboard GE American’s Satcom K1 satellite to beam 67 program channels to some 70,000 households by 1995. Subscribers paid a monthly fee of $25-$35 for the Primestar service in addition to a $100-$200 installation fee for receiving hardware that Primestar continued to own.

A second generation DBS service became operational when the DBS-1 satellite went into orbit on 17 December 1993. The DBS-1, owned by Hughes Space and Communications Group, carried 32 transponders. Ten of the transponders were owned by United States Satellite Broadcasting (USSB), and the remaining transponders were owned by DirecTV. Although Primestar, DirecTV and USSB all transmitted via the Ku-band, the higher powered DBS-1 satellite allowed DirecTV and USSB subscribers to use a much smaller receiving dish.

DirecTV and USSB maintained a joint identity for marketing purposes and for selling the receiving system used for both DBS services. The receiving system was a package comprised of dish antenna, decoder unit, and remote control called the Digital Satellite System (DSS). The basic DSS unit retailed in 1995 for about $700 with installation costs ranging from $70 for a do-it-yourself kit to $200 for dealer assistance. By March 1995, over 400,000 of the systems had been sold.

DBS presents some major problems to subscribers. For instance, the receiving dish that requires a clear line-of-sight fix on the transmitting satellite may be blown out of alignment by heavy winds, thunderstorms will disrupt DBS signal reception, and DBS program services do not yet include local over-the-air television channels. However, DBS seems most appealing to persons who either are disenchanted with cable television or who live in areas that are not served by cable.
LESSON 15: EVOLUTION OF MEDIA LAWS THROUGH THE YEARS

The Position in India
Since there were no fundamental rights in India prior to independence there was no guarantee of the freedom of expression or of the press. The footing of the press was explained by the Privy Council to be the same as in England, namely, that of an ordinary citizen to that it had no privileges nor any special liabilities apart from statute law.

But the concept of a free press came during the British rule and the press in India emerged as an express of the national struggle and the clamour for self-rule. Unlike in Britain, the British rulers in India were autocratic and restraint on the press was considered necessary.

That the British were fully aware of this peculiar position of being a democracy running an autocracy, was clear from the minute of Munro which said, “A free press and the dominion of strangers are things which are quite incompatible and which cannot long exist together. For what is the duty of a free press? It is to deliver the country from a foreign yoke and to sacrifice to this one great object every meaner consideration; if we make the press really free to the natives as well as to the Europeans, it must inevitably lead to this result.”

The first newspaper in India, the Bengal Gazette was published in 1780 at Serampore by James Augustus Hickey. A former employee of the East India Company, Hickey soon fell foul of the authorities as he launched scurrilous attacks on the private lives of other employees of the Company including the Governor-General Warren Hastings and his wife and the Chief Justice of the Company. He was involved in a number of libel cases and even imprisoned and fined and eventually reduced to penury. More publications followed in Calcutta and later Madras. Along with these publications there was censorship by the authorities. Censorship was first introduced in Madras in 1795 when the Madras Gazette was required to submit all general orders of the government for scrutiny by the Military Secretary before publication.

The most significant aspect of this period was that there were no press laws as such but the government took summary action against offending newspapers. The pattern of the governmental action was to deport incorrigible editors, deny postal facilities to the unrepentant and to require those who persisted in causing displeasure to the government to submit either a part or the whole newspaper for censorship.

In 1799 Governor-General Wellesley issued a Regulation requiring all newspapers under pain of penalty to print the names of the printer, publisher and editor of newspapers and to submit all materials published in the paper for pre-censorship by the Secretary to the Government of India. These were replaced in 1818 by the liberal regulations of Lord Hastings who favoured a free press. By now the Indian press too had come into being in the shape of Mirat-ul-A khbar of Raja Ram Mohan Roy. An ordinance in 1823 introduced licensing again. This was followed by a liberal attitude in 1835 in Metcalf’s Act which repealed the 1823 regulation. Licensing was reintroduced in 1857 the year of the uprising against British rule in respect of all kinds of publications including books and other printed paper in any language, European or Indian. The Indian Penal Code was passed in 1860 and it contained a number of provisions that covered the press. In 1878 was passed the Vernacular Press Act which imposed severe restrictions on Indian language publications. But this was withdrawn three years later.

The Indian press began to grow quickly during the closing decades of the 19th century and the opening ones of the 20th. But the government felt the need for suppression with the emergence of extremism and terrorism. Two laws were passed - the first in 1908 and the second and more comprehensive one two years later - which went to the extent of empowering magistrates to seize a press on being satisfied that a newspaper contained incitement to murder or other acts of violence or an offence under the Explosives Act. The Official Secrets Act followed in 1923 and the Salt Movement and growth of nationalism in the nationalist movement led to the draconian Indian Press(Emergency Powers) Act, 1931. This involved the deposit of security by printing presses and their forfeiture in the event of a publication being held to be offensive by the authorities. Naturally, immediately after independence this law was repealed in 1951 and replaced by the Press(Objectible Matters) Act. This in turn ceased to be operative since 1957. The makers of the Constitution had the freedom of the press uppermost in their minds while framing the fundamental rights having passed through the era of suppression of thoughts during the previous decades.

The Constitution guaranteed in Article 19(1)(a) the fundamental right of freedom of expression and the Supreme Court declared that the freedom of the press was included in that guarantee. The result was that the press could not be subjected to any restrictions unless a law doing so was consistent with clause 2 of the above article of the Constitution.

USA and the First Amendment
Freedom of the press received a major boost when it was written into the Constitution of the United States of America in 1791. This was as part of the Federal Bill of Rights which said, “Congress shall make no law... abridging the freedom ... of the press.”
This is roughly how the legal structure within which the press has to operate has evolved. In our country it has been a story of progressive increase in the freedom of the press. But rarely do members of the press transgress these limitations and face punishment. The area covered by the legal restrictions leave out a large area of what can be called largely unregulated functioning for journalists. This is the area where either restrictions have to be observed voluntarily in the larger interests of the profession or not at all. These may be described as ethical restraints. It was on the recommendation of the First Press Commission that the Press Council of India was set up primarily to protect the freedom of the press and to work towards the observance of ethics in the press.

From independence till about the mid-sixties there was no restraint on the press. The First Press Commission in 1952 recommended the setting up of a press council to check the evils of sensationalism, malicious and irresponsible attacks against well-known persons. The Press Council Act was passed finally in 1965 though the council was not given any statutory powers. The Council was disbanded during the Emergency of 1975-77 but revived in 1978. Since then it has brought out several codes to be followed by journalists and has also looked into infringement of press freedoms by the authorities. Recently it has gone into the question of journalists receiving favours from government and private authorities thereby influencing their writings and other outputs. Following are its observations and recommendations in this respect:

The Press Council of India has held that government accommodation, concessional land, free air tickets and company shares—being given to journalists, news agencies and newspaper establishments and owners, were ‘undue favours’. The Press Council has formulated some codes of conduct of that journalists should keep in mind while reporting. Later the Council found that apart from journalists indulging in biased writing, the government and private business houses could pose a serious threat to free and fair reporting.

The Council, which undertook a comprehensive study of the subject between 1985 and 1995, concluded that free and concessional bus, rail and other transport facilities given to journalists also fell in the category of favours. It observed that free air travel provided by companies, corporations and airlines was an inducement to write favourably about their products and services, and hence, marred independent reporting.

The Council noted that proprietors of newspapers, instead of journalists and editors, were accompanying the President, Vice-President, Prime Minister and the External Affairs Ministry officials, on their foreign trips. Newspapers, it recommended, should take care to nominate eligible persons for such trips.

The Commission also observed that indiscriminate disbursement of money from the discretionary funds of the Chief Ministers encouraged unfaithfulness to the mission of journalism and promoted corrupt practices. The following are the recommendations:

**Recommendations**

The Committee (of the Council on undue favours to journalists) came to the conclusion that the following facilities so far being extended by the government and the authorities, companies and corporations would amount to favours subject to the observations made here under.

1. **Accommodation: Government Housing/Flats/Land**

   The Committee is of the view that it is the responsibility of the newspaper establishments to provide accommodation to its employees. The Committee noted that the Punjab and Haryana High Court in its judgement has held that journalists are not entitled to government accommodation as they are not employees of the government. The Court has said that there were no rules, regulations or guidelines governing such allotment with the Chandigarh administration. The Court observed that the existing rules were only meant for government servants and there was no question of bringing the journalists in its ambit. The Committee further noted that the Central Government in its action taken report on the suggestions of the Second Press Commission to the effect that no further housing facility should be provided to the journalists and the existing allotments of the government accommodation in the National Capital and the States should be charged for at non-subsidised rates and phased out as the present occupants leave—had recorded that no further housing facility would be provided to journalists and in respect of the existing allotments, rent would be charged at non-subsidised rates. This decision was taken nearly a decade ago. However, the allotments continued.

   The Committee also noted that the governments were giving prime land to the newspaper owners at nominal price. Some of the newspaper establishments had either rented out the entire premises after retaining a small portion for their own use or had converted the premises into a commercial complex thereby earning huge profits. In some of the cases, it was found that the newspapers with a view to get another allotment at some other place after renting out the entire building, were not even reporting on attacks on their own scribes for the simple reason that they wanted to remain in the good books of the government. Such newspapers were compromising with the fascist forces and the freedom of the press.

2. **Allotment of Shares in Companies**

   The Committee was of the opinion that if shares were allotted at a special prices or were given under any quota, this would amount to favour. The Press Council of India has already issued guidelines for the financial journalists.

3. **Bus Travel/Rail Travel/Transport**

   The Committee was of the opinion that this was favour so far as big and medium newspapers are concerned. The journalists attached to newspapers which are in profit have no justification for availing free or concessional bus/air transport facility. However, in case of small newspapers this constituted a facility as the Committee felt that there was justification for extending such facility. The media persons work at the grass root level, and work for small newspapers are paid the bare minimum recommended under the Wage Board Awards. The financial condition of most of the small newspapers is precarious and without such a facility they would be unable to cover all news which is necessary to be communicated to their readers. Most of the news of the local level which appears in these newspapers...
The reporters of the small newspapers and accredited freelance journalists, who cannot afford it, must have the facility to travel as much as possible.

4. Foreign Travel
The companies, corporations and airlines extend the facility of air travel to journalists not only within the country but also abroad. The journalists avail of this happily. This is an inducement to write favourably about their products/airlines. A propaganda is undertaken through such devices to commercially promote the products/airlines. This certainly interferes with independent reporting.

Before 1986, the President, Vice-President, Prime Minister and External Affairs Minister were accompanied by journalists during their foreign trips on the basis of pick and choose policy. But in 1987, Press Council of India framed guidelines on selection of journalists on PM’s entourage and this was being generally followed. The Committee, however, noted that often the proprietors of the newspapers were accompanying the President/Prime Minister on foreign tours in place of journalists and editors.

The Committee recommended that the newspapers should take care to nominate eligible persons for the purpose.

5. Free Air Tickets
The Committee was of the opinion that this practice constituted an undue favour as it enticed journalists to write favourable reports to commercially promote the airline.

6. Cash Disbursement from CM’s Discretionary Fund
The Committee noted that there are guidelines as to how the discretionary fund at the disposal of Chief Minister or any other functionary has to be spent. The guidelines should be followed strictly. Indiscriminate disbursement of money from the discretionary fund of the Chief Ministers encourages unfaithfulness to the mission of journalism and promotes corrupt practices.

7. Financial Assistance
The Committee was of the opinion that if financial assistance is given for medical treatment purposes, it still constitutes a favour, unless, medical aid is being given under the clear cut policy uniformly applicable to all those destitute or sick persons who cannot afford the medical treatment in case the journalist incidentally happens to be one of those personal there is nothing wrong in it. In Delhi, all the journalists accredited to PIB are entitled to CGHS facility. The Committee feels that extending the CGHS facility to journalists is illogical since CGHS facility is available to the government servants only. The provision of medical facilities to its employees is the responsibility of the newspaper establishments.

8-9. Funds for Media Centre and Grants to Journalists Associations
The Committee was of the opinion that this was a favour, unless it was given for promoting the journalistic skills.

10. Gift Cheque by Advt. Agencies for Publication of Press Note of their Clients
The Committee was of the opinion that this was a favour and deserved outright condemnation.

11. Other Gifts
The Committee was of the opinion that gifts in any form, irrespective of their value, are to be condemned.

12. Free Parking
The Committee was of the opinion that this was a favour if a journalist uses this facility for purposes other than his professional work.

13. Guest Hospitality
The Committee was of the opinion that working journalists as a rule should not be treated as State Guests. In case an individual is treated as State Guest he ipso facto becomes entitled to many facilities without any payment thereof. However, when press teams are invited in discharge of their professional duties, making due arrangements for them should be an exception.

The committee further noted that the stay in government guest houses by accredited journalists, is permissible if it is for discharging professional duties.

14. Import of Duty-free Cameras and Computers
The Committee was of the opinion it is the duty of the newspaper establishment to, provide cameras/computers to its personnel. An individual employee journalist is not required to buy camera/computer for his work. In the recent past, the Central Government had allowed import of duty free cameras and computers to the journalists, the Committee felt that this concession amounted to a However, the Committee was of the opinion that this facility, should be permissible forth accredited freelance journalists, provided it is not misused.

15. Insurance Premium
The Committee was of the opinion that it is not for the government to pay for the premium towards the insurance of journalists. It is the duty of the newspaper establishments or the individual concerned to make such payment towards annual dues once the scheme has been introduced.

16. Job to Relatives
Giving jobs to journalist’s relative not on merits, is an outright attempt at inducement.

17. Loans
The Committee was of the opinion that the grant of loans within the ambit of policy already laid down for all citizens is permissible. But when the loan is give only to the journalists or at reduced rate of interest or when the interest due or the principal amount is waived/written off/condoned, such a practice would amount to undue favour.

18. Nomination on Committees
The Committee was of the opinion that in some states, the journalists are nominated on some organisations and institutions like Public Service Commission and are also given the status of State Minister or Cabinet Minister, which was a wrong practice. Except for the nomination by the professional organisations on Committees which have a quota to represent the various professionals, this practice constitutes favour.
The Council’s Committee on undue favours to journalists (hereinafter referred to as Committee) also sought public cooperation by issuing press releases, from time to time in all the States and Union Territories, inviting organisations, institutions and members of the public to provide any such information to the Committee as may be in their possession or knowledge, which was relevant to the issue.

The information received from various sources reveals that the press persons/newspaper establishments are enjoying the following amenities:

1. Accommodation Government Housing/Flats/Land
2. Allotment of Shares in Companies.
3. Bus Travel/Rail Travel/Transport
4. Foreign Travel
5. Free Air Tickets
6. Cash Disbursement from Chief Ministers’ Discretionary Fund
7. Financial Assistance
8. Funds for Media Centre and the like
9. Grants to journalists associations
10. Gift Cheque by advertisement agencies for publication of press notes of their clients.
11. Other gifts
12. Free Parking
13. Guest Hospitality
14. Import of duty free cameras and computers
15. Insurance Premium
16. Jobs to relatives
17. Loans
18. Nomination on Committees
19. PCO/Fax/Phone
20. Pensionary benefits
21. Donation of funds to Press Clubs
22. Prizes
23. Shops
24. Accreditation
25. Government and public authority advertisements
26. Election facilities
27. Meeting expenses for journalists' conventions, seminars, etc.
28. Inviting press parties
29. Publication material (issued) during press conferences
30. Training (Based on a circular by AINEF)
Is history driven by technology? Or are there other more important moving factors? For example, was the industrial revolution brought about by the invention of the steam engine or the invention of the steam engine was a part of the larger process of the industrial age?

Looking closer to our times, has television driven history over the past 50 years? We all know that the television set is a refined version of a cathode-ray tube. In 1878 an Englishman Sir William Crookes became the first person to confirm the existence of cathode rays by displaying them, with his invention of the Crookes tube, a crude prototype for all future cathode ray tubes. But did he ever imagine the consequences that it would have for mankind? I should think not.

That television and the programmes shown on it have an impact on human populations all over the world is without question. Its like the egg-and-hen conundrum - which came first. What does pose a big question is whether it was the technology that has driven the changes in human behaviour induced by television? Or do humans worked hard to develop a technology when the need for it was already present?

"What hath God wrought!" ... Morse and the Telegraph

The first revolutionary step in communications was taken in the 19th century when Samuel Morse sent this message through cable lines over a distance of 65 kms between Washington and Baltimore on 24th May 1844. Before this the quickest way that messages could be sent over long distances was to have them transported by horses or horse carriages. And it could take days or even weeks to traverse large distances in places like USA, India, Australia, Russia or the outposts of the British Empire from London.

Many changes occurred as a result of the introduction of the Morse telegraph system. Not only did it enable outlying towns and villages to keep in contact with the outside world, but it also meant that information reached its destination far more quickly. This meant changes in many areas of life. The stock markets that previously only had access to information that was weeks old now received information that was hours old. Practices had to change to take account of the fact that up to date information was received.

The speed at which information could be sent meant that many areas of life started to speed up.

A page from Arthur C. Clarke’s article in Wireless World of 1945 in which he suggested the use of space relay stations for communications.

Let us take a look at another scientific invention that has had a profound impact on the human race - satellites. Now-a-days it
is commonplace for the use of satellites in weather observation, taking pictures of the earth to study its composition and most important in the field of communication. But when the suggestion to use space relay stations was first made by science fiction writer Arthur C. Clarke in 1945 it may have sounded outlandish to many people. But he did it keeping in mind the need for radio and television signals to be transmitted over large areas. He took into account the scientific knowledge with respect to rocketry available at that time. Naturally the Soviets would have known about all this when in 1957 when they launched the first satellite - Sputnik. The context may have changed and the Cold War may have been the driving forces behind the efforts of the Soviets and later in response of the Americans.

In 1962 the Americans put the Telstar communication satellite in space. Now Europeans could view television programmes aired in the United States and vice versa. As a result, people in Europe watched the funeral of John F. Kennedy live. The next important even telecast across the globe was the Tokyo Olympics in 1964 that opened up a global audience for sports. With this came corporate sponsorship of sports with its boost to games and a flip side as well.

There are however, a number of other path breaking inventions that transformed the face of communications. The first is the invention of the thermionic valve or tube brought the dawn of the age of electronics. Its invention enabled the wireless technology of the day to move forward. Many new and exciting applications were found for these devices, first as telephone repeater amplifiers and then many other applications that were not always linked to wireless and as a result the new area of electronics was born. Though the electronic effect had been noticed during the 19th century it was not until 1911 that the valve was used as an amplifier. After this discovery people were quick to try to exploit it. De Forest built an amplifier using three Audions and demonstrated it to the telephone company A.T & T. Although the performance was poor they saw its potential and soon started to build repeaters using valves which they had improved.

1958: Invention of the Integrated Circuit
The next great development was the invention of the integrated circuit. As with many inventions, two people had the idea for an integrated circuit at almost the same time. Transistors had become commonplace in everything from radios to phones to computers, and now manufacturers wanted something even better. Sure, transistors were smaller than vacuum tubes, but for some of the newest electronics, they weren’t small enough.

But there was a limit on how small you could make each transistor, since after it was made it had to be connected to wires and other electronics. The transistors were already at the limit of what steady hands and tiny tweezers could handle. So, scientists wanted to make a whole circuit - the transistors, the wires, everything else they needed - in a single blow. If they could create a miniature circuit in just one step, all the parts could be made much smaller.

One day in late July, Jack Kilby was sitting alone at Texas Instruments. He had been hired only a couple of months earlier and so he wasn’t able to take vacation time when practically everyone else did. The halls were deserted, and he had lots of time to think. It suddenly occurred to him that all parts of a circuit, not just the transistor, could be made out of silicon. At the time, nobody was making capacitors or resistors out of semiconductors. If it could be done then the entire circuit could be built out of a single crystal - making it smaller and much easier to produce. Kilby’s boss liked the idea, and told him to get to work. By September 12, Kilby had built a working model, and on February 6, Texas Instruments filed a patent. Their first “Solid Circuit” the size of a pencil point, was shown off for the first time in March.

But over in California, another man had similar ideas. In January of 1959, Robert Noyce was working at the small Fairchild Semiconductor startup company. He also realized a whole circuit could be made on a single chip. While Kilby had hammered out the details of making individual components, Noyce thought of a much better way to connect the parts. That spring, Fairchild began a push to build what they called “unitary circuits” and they also applied for a patent on the idea. Knowing that TI had already filed a patent on something similar, Fairchild wrote out a highly detailed application, hoping that it wouldn’t infringe on TI’s similar device.

All that detail paid off. On April 25, 1961, the patent office awarded the first patent for an integrated circuit to Robert Noyce while Kilby’s application was still being analyzed. Today, both men are acknowledged as having independently conceived of the idea.
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Can you think of a technology that has become popular during the last 10 to 15 years and has had a deep impact on the way that we lead our lives?
The invention by Johannes Gutenberg of the movable metal type was perhaps one of the most important ones that led to modernity. Printing and printing presses existed long before Gutenberg perfected his process in or around 1446. The Chinese were using wooden block presses as early as 600 A.D. and by 1000 A.D. had movable clay type. Gutenberg hit upon the idea of using metal type crafted from lead molds in place of type made from wood or clay. This was an important advance. Not only was metal type durable enough to print page after page but letters could be arranged and rearranged to make any message possible. With the help of the movable type Gutenberg was able to produce virtually identical copies. Gutenberg saw his invention as a way to produce books - many copies - for profit. But his stress over quality, since he was printing copies of the Bible, could not have made it a very profitable venture. Other printers, however, quickly saw the true economic potential of Gutenberg's invention. The first Gutenberg Bible appeared in 1456 and within 44 years printing operations existed in 12 European countries and the continent was flooded with 20 million volumes.

Though perhaps never foreseen by Gutenberg, his invention had a profound cultural impact. Handwritten or hand copied materials were expensive to produce and the cost of education had made education an expensive luxury. However with the spread of printing, written communication was available to a much larger portion of the population and the need for literacy among the lower and middle classes. The ability to read became less of a luxury and more of a necessity as did education. Soldiers at the front needed to read the emperor's orders. Traders, soldiers, clergy, bakers and musicians all now had business at the printer's shop. They talked. They learned of things, both in conversation and by reading printed material. As more people learned to read new ideas germinated and spread and still newer ideas were born. More material from various sources was published and people were freer to read what they wanted when they wanted. The authorities - church and the king - were now less able to control communication and therefore the culture of the people. New ideas about the world appeared and new understanding of the existing world flourished. Duplication also provided the means of standardisation and preservation. Myth and superstition gave way to standard, verifiable bodies of knowledge. History, economics, physics and chemistry all became part of the culture's intellectual life. Literate cultures were now on the road to modernisation. Printed materials were the first mass-produced product, speeding the development and entrenchment of capitalism. Use of the printing press helped fuel the establishment and growth of large middle classes. Printing had given a powerful voice to the people. The French Revolution and the Industrial Revolutions followed.

The history of the book presents us with a complete, observable communications revolution. The historical record is such that we can watch the whole of a vast socio-cultural, political, and economic change happen over a period of some three to five hundred years (depending on whose perspective you prefer). By following the developments in manuscript and print book production, tied to the changes in the technologies used to produce those texts, we can also chart the various changes in social organization, politics and economics from the feudalism
of the 7th century, through to the advent and advance of early capitalism in the 15th century.

The implications of the printed word are vast. There are those who argue that Martin Luther and the Protestant revolution could not have taken place if it were not for the printing press. While this is not entirely valid, the press and the already wide distribution of books and other printed matter in Luther's time certainly added to the distribution of his ideas and work. In the shifts in the world from the mid 15th century to the end of the 18th century, it is possible to trace the divergence of science from religion and the opening up of the new world.

In order to understand the effect of printing in the 15th century, you have to go back to the 7th century and see how the book world was organized prior to the advent of printing. Then you can see what changed along with the introduction of printing.

In their view, print came along and sustained that revolution, with the promotion of vernacular languages and new information. But the early Italian Renaissance was initiated by a social restructuring of learning through the emergence of a university system.

The 7th to 13th Century can be called the age of religious "manuscript" book production. Books in this period are entirely constructed by hand, and are largely religious texts whose creation is meant as an act of worship. 13th to 15th Century: The secularization of book production. Books are beginning to be produced that do not serve as objects of worship, but that try to explain something about the observable world. The difficulty with the spread of such knowledge is that production is still taking place via pre-print - manuscript - methods.

The production of secular books is driven by two things:
1. The rise of universities in Europe, spreading from Italy.
2. The return of the crusaders in the 13th century, who bring with them texts from Byzantium. These books, written during the Greek and Roman periods in history, focus on this-world concerns.

By far, the biggest effect of the universities, print books and an increasingly literate reading public, came in the emerging scientific fields of botany, geography, and astronomy.

In large part, the rise of Science as a replacement for religion as a way of seeing the world has to do with the changing nature of libraries. Instead of a few repositories, usually in the control of the church, people began to accumulate private libraries.

Misinformation in books was impossible to spot until you could gather a stack of books together on the table and do comparisons. In much the same way that literacy allows for critical reflection, print books pushed this ability into a new dimension. For the first time private individuals could gather a collection of books which allowed them to examine a range of opinions and attempt to fix invariances in the world. In this case, the knowledge that underlie an emerging science did not have to come from direct experience in the world, but could instead come from experience with books.

In the early 13th century, science got a boost from the Crusaders returning from the Holy Land. These men brought back copies of the texts of the Greeks and Romans, lost to European audiences since the fall of Rome. Included in those texts were science texts from the Greeks.

The 19th century saw a series of important refinements in the process of printing. Continuous roll paper, which permitted rapid printing of large numbers of identical, standardised pages was invented in France in the beginning. Soon after in 1811, a German Friedrich Koenig converted the printing press from muscle to steam power, speeding production of printed material and reducing its cost. In 1830 Americans Thomas Gilpin and James Ames perfected a wood grinding machine that produced enough pulp to make 24 miles of paper daily, further lowering the cost of printing. Another most important development in this connection was the invention of the linotype machine in 1884 by Ottmar Mergenthaler, a German migrant to the US. Employing a typewriter-like keyboard, the linotype allowed printers to set type mechanically rather than manually. About the same time was invented offset lithography which made it possible to print from photographic plates rather than from heavy and relatively fragile metal casts.

Of course, the developments of the late 20th century which saw the advent of desktop publishing has pushed many of the path-breaking inventions into history. Now the entire process is managed on computers except the last one in which the content is transferred to paper by the use of ink.
A page from Arthur C. Clarke’s article in Wireless World of 1945 in which he suggested the use of space relay stations for communications.

Let us take a look at another scientific invention that has had a profound impact on the human race - satellites. Now-a-days it is commonplace for the use of satellites in weather observation, taking pictures of the earth to study its composition and most important in the field of communication. But when the suggestion to use space relay stations was first made by science fiction writer Arthur C. Clarke in 1945 it may have sounded outlandish to many people. But he did it keeping in mind the need for radio and television signals to be transmitted over large areas. He took into account the scientific knowledge with respect to rocketry available at that time. Naturally the Soviets would have known about all this when in 1957 they launched the first satellite - Sputnik. The context may have changed and the Cold War may have been the driving forces behind the efforts of the Soviets and later in response of the Americans.

In 1962 the Americans put the Telstar communication satellite in space. Now Europeans could view television programmes aired in the United States and vice versa. As a result, people in Europe watched the funeral of John F. Kennedy live. The next important event telecast across the globe was the Tokyo Olympics in 1964 that opened up a global audience for sports. With this came corporate sponsorship of sports with its boost to games and a flip side as well.

There are however, a number of other path breaking inventions that transformed the face of communications. The first is the invention of the thermionic valve or tube brought the dawn of the age of electronics. Its invention enabled the wireless technology of the day to move forward. Many new and exciting applications were found for these devices, first as telephone repeater amplifiers and then many other applications that were not always linked to wireless and as a result the new area of electronics was born. Though the electronic effect had been noticed during the 19th century it was not until 1911 that the valve was used as an amplifier. After this discovery people were quick to try to exploit it. De Forest built an amplifier using three Audions and demonstrated it to the telephone company A.T & T. Although the performance was poor they saw its potential and soon started to build repeaters using valves which they had improved.

Atwater Kent 35 - A 1925 TRF (An early radio)
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The next great development was the invention of the integrated circuit. As with many inventions, two people had the idea for an integrated circuit at almost the same time. Transistors had become commonplace in everything from radios to phones to computers, and now manufacturers wanted something even better. Sure, transistors were smaller than vacuum tubes, but for some of the newest electronics, they weren’t small enough.

One day in late July, Jack Kilby was sitting alone at Texas Instruments. He had been hired only a couple of months earlier and so he wasn’t able to take vacation time when practically everyone else did. The halls were deserted, and he had lots of time to think. It suddenly occurred to him that all parts of a circuit, not just the transistor, could be made out of silicon. At the time, nobody was making capacitors or resistors out of semiconductors. If it could be done then the entire circuit could be built out of a single crystal - making it smaller and much easier to produce. Kilby's boss liked the idea, and told him to get to work. By September 12, Kilby had built a working model, and on February 6, Texas Instruments filed a patent. Their first “Solid Circuit” the size of a pencil point, was shown off for the first time in March.

But there was a limit on how small you could make each transistor, since after it was made it had to be connected to wires and other electronics. The transistors were already at the limit of what steady hands and tiny tweezers could handle. So, scientists wanted to make a whole circuit - the transistors, the wires, everything else they needed - in a single blow. If they could create a miniature circuit in just one step, all the parts could be made much smaller.

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Today’s predictions also say that there is a limit to just how much the transistor can do. This time around, the predictions are that transistors can’t get substantially smaller than they currently are. Then again, in 1961, scientists predicted that no transistor on a chip could ever be smaller than 10 millionths of a meter - and on a modern Intel Pentium chip they are 100 times smaller than that.

With hindsight, such predictions seem ridiculous, and it’s easy to think that current predictions will sound just as silly thirty years from now. But modern predictions of the size limit are based on some very fundamental physics - the size of the atom and the electron. Since transistors run on electric current, they
must always, no matter what, be at least big enough to allow electrons through.

On the other hand, all that’s really needed is a single electron at a time. A transistor small enough to operate with only one electron would be phenomenally small, yet it is theoretically possible. The transistors of the future could make modern chips seem as big and bulky as vacuum tubes seem to us today. The problem is that once devices become that tiny, everything moves according to the laws of quantum mechanics - and quantum mechanics allows electrons to do some weird things. In a transistor that small, the electron would act more like a wave than a single particle. As a wave it would smear out in space, and could even tunnel its way through the transistor without truly acting on it.

Researchers are nevertheless currently working on innovative ways to build such tiny devices - abandoning silicon, abandoning all of today’s manufacturing methods. Such transistors are known, not surprisingly, as single electron transistors, and they’d be considered “on” or “off” depending on whether they were holding an electron. (Transistors at this level would be solely used as switches for binary coding, not as amplifiers.) In fact, such a tiny device might make use of the quantum weirdness of the ultra-small. The electron could be coded to have three positions - instead of simply “on” or “off” it could also have “somewhere between on and off.” This would open up doors for entirely new kinds of computers. At the moment, however, there are no effective single electron transistors.

Even without new technologies, there’s room for miniaturization. By improving on current building techniques, it’s likely that current transistors will be at least twice as small by 2010. With nearly a billion transistors on Intel’s latest processor that would mean four times as many transistors on a chip are theoretically possible. Chips like this would allow computers to be much “smarter” than they currently are.
In 1973, the U.S. Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency (DARPA) initiated a research program to investigate techniques and technologies for interlinking packet networks of various kinds. The objective was to develop communication protocols which would allow networked computers to communicate transparently across multiple, linked packet networks. This was called the Internetting project and the system of networks which emerged from the research was known as the "Internet." The system of protocols which was developed over the course of this research effort became known as the TCP/IP Protocol Suite, after the two initial protocols developed: Transmission Control Protocol (TCP) and Internet Protocol (IP).

In 1986, the U.S. National Science Foundation (NSF) initiated the development of the NSFNET which, today, provides a major backbone communication service for the Internet. With its 45 megabit per second facilities, the NSFNET carries on the order of 12 billion packets per month between the networks it links. The National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) and the U.S. Department of Energy contributed additional backbone facilities in the form of the NSINET and ESNET respectively. In Europe, major international backbones such as NORDUNET and others provide connectivity to over one hundred thousand computers on a large number of networks. Commercial network providers in the U.S. and Europe are beginning to offer Internet backbone and access support on a competitive basis to any interested parties.

“Regional” support for the Internet is provided by various consortium networks and “local” support is provided through each of the research and educational institutions. Within the United States, much of this support has come from the federal and state governments, but a considerable contribution has been made by industry. In Europe and elsewhere, support arises from cooperative international efforts and through national research organizations. During the course of its evolution, particularly after 1989, the Internet system began to integrate support for other protocol suites into its basic networking fabric. The present emphasis in the system is on multiprotocol interworking, and in particular, with the integration of the Open Systems Interconnection (OSI) protocols into the architecture.

Both public domain and commercial implementations of the roughly 100 protocols of TCP/IP protocol suite became available in the 1980’s. During the early 1990’s, OSI protocol implementations also became available and, by the end of 1991, the Internet has grown to include some 5,000 networks in over three dozen countries, serving over 700,000 host computers used by over 4,000,000 people.

A great deal of support for the Internet community has come from the U.S. Federal Government, since the Internet was originally part of a federally-funded research program and, subsequently, has become a major part of the U.S. research infrastructure. During the late 1980’s, however, the population of Internet users and network constituents expanded internationally and began to include commercial facilities. Indeed, the bulk of the system today is made up of private networking facilities in educational and research institutions, businesses and in government organizations across the globe.
The Coordinating Committee for Intercontinental Networks (CCIRN), which was organized by the U.S. Federal Networking Council (FNC) and the European Reseaux Associees pour la Recherche Europeenne (RARE), plays an important role in the coordination of plans for government-sponsored research networking. CCIRN efforts have been a stimulus for the support of international cooperation in the Internet environment.

Internet Technical Evolution
Over its fifteen year history, the Internet has functioned as a collaboration among cooperating parties. Certain key functions have been critical for its operation, not the least of which is the specification of the protocols by which the components of the system operate. These were originally developed in the DARPA research program mentioned above, but in the last five or six years, this work has been undertaken on a wider basis with support from Government agencies in many countries, industry and the academic community. The Internet Activities Board (IAB) was created in 1983 to guide the evolution of the TCP/IP Protocol Suite and to provide research advice to the Internet community.

During the course of its existence, the IAB has reorganized several times. It now has two primary components: the Internet Engineering Task Force and the Internet Research Task Force. The former has primary responsibility for further evolution of the TCP/IP protocol suite, its standardization with the concurrence of the IAB, and the integration of other protocols into Internet operation (e.g., the Open Systems Interconnection protocols). The Internet Research Task Force continues to organize and explore advanced concepts in networking under the guidance of the Internet Activities Board and with support from various government agencies.

A secretariat has been created to manage the day-to-day function of the Internet Activities Board and Internet Engineering Task Force. IETF meets three times a year in plenary and its approximately 50 working groups convene at intermediate times by electronic mail, teleconferencing and at face-to-face meetings.

The IAB meets quarterly face-to-face or by videoconference and at intervening times by telephone, electronic mail and computer-mediated conferences.

Two other functions are critical to IAB operation: publication of documents describing the Internet and the assignment and recording of various identifiers needed for protocol operation. Throughout the development of the Internet, its protocols and other aspects of its operation have been documented first in a series of documents called Internet Experiment Notes and, later, in a series of documents called Requests for Comment (RFCs). The latter were used initially to document the protocols of the first packet switching network developed by DARPA, the ARPANET, beginning in 1969, and have become the principal archive of information about the Internet. At present, the publication function is provided by an RFC editor.

The recording of identifiers is provided by the Internet Assigned Numbers Authority (IANA) who has delegated one part of this responsibility to an Internet Registry which acts as a central repository for Internet information and which provides central allocation of network and autonomous system identifiers, in some cases to subsidiary registries located in various countries. The Internet Registry (IR) also provides central maintenance of the Domain Name System (DNS) root database which points to subsidiary distributed DNS servers replicated throughout the Internet. The DNS distributed database is used, inter alia, to associate host and network names with their Internet addresses and is critical to the operation of the higher level TCP/IP protocols including electronic mail.

There are a number of Network Information Centers (NICs) located throughout the Internet to serve its users with documentation, guidance, advice and assistance. As the Internet continues to grow internationally, the need for high quality NIC functions increases. Although the initial community of users of the Internet were drawn from the ranks of computer science and engineering, its users now comprise a wide range of disciplines in the sciences, arts, letters, business, military and government administration.

Related Networks
In 1980-81, two other networking projects, BITNET and CSNET, were initiated. BITNET adopted the IBM RSCS protocol suite and featured direct leased line connections between participating sites. Most of the original BITNET connections linked IBM mainframes in university data centers. This rapidly changed as protocol implementations became available for other machines. From the beginning, BITNET has been multi-disciplinary in nature with users in all academic areas. It has also provided a number of unique services to its users (e.g., LISTSERV). Today, BITNET and its parallel networks in other parts of the world (e.g., EARN in Europe) have several thousand participating sites. In recent years, BITNET has established a backbone which uses the TCP/IP protocols with RSCS-based applications running above TCP.

CSNET was initially funded by the National Science Foundation (NSF) to provide networking for university, industry and government computer science research groups. CSNET used the Phonenet MMDF protocol for telephone-based electronic mail relaying and, in addition, pioneered the first use of TCP/
IP over X.25 using commercial public data networks. The CSNET name server provided an early example of a white pages directory service and this software is still in use at numerous sites. At its peak, CSNET had approximately 200 participating sites and international connections to approximately fifteen countries.

In 1987, BITNET and CSNET merged to form the Corporation for Research and Educational Networking (CREN). In the Fall of 1991, CSNET service was discontinued having fulfilled its important early role in the provision of academic networking service. A key feature of CREN is that its operational costs are fully met through dues paid by its member organizations.
Putting down language in the form of understandable symbols is only a part of the problem. Getting the written material across to the intended audience is an equally important and crucial function. Without the performance of this function there is not much point in putting things down in writing in any case.

When someone speaks, those within earshot can hear him. Earshot can vary from a few feet to a large hall depending of course on how loud is the speaker. The installation of a public address system considerably increases the reach of the voice. But even then in a monster meeting say about a 100,000 people can hear an address at the same time.

In the above example the person communicating the message and those receiving it are in the same place and at the same time. The Athenians had won at Marathon but they certainly had not destroyed the Persian army. They had made plans before the battle that if they won, they would get word back to Athens as soon as possible because they knew that the Persian fleet was sure to sail around Attica and attempt to take the city while it was undefended. The citizens were to man the walls and make it appear that Athens was strongly defended. Miltiades sent a young soldier (probably Phaedippas) to take word back to Athens. He ran the entire distance, 42.192 kms, shouted “We have won!” and fell dead of exhaustion. In memory of this event the Marathon Run was included among the contests since the first contemporary Olympic Games.

After gaining control of the rebellious Ionian Greeks in 495 BC, Darius I of Persia realized that they would be a perpetual bother as long as they could gain help and encouragement from the Greek mainland so he determined to conquer Greece proper, secure his western frontier and lay the groundwork for Persia’s expansion into Europe. He was also outraged that during the Ionian rebellion an obscure city-state (Athens) from mainland Greece had assisted in the expulsion of the Persians from Sardes, the capital of the Ionian Greek city-states. His anger was such that he vowed to punish them and every night at dinner he had a servant repeat to him “Lord, don’t forget the Athenians”

Rock Edicts of Ashoka, King of Behar
The following is a message on an edict of Emperor Ashok who converted to Buddhism and became repentant of his excessive use of violence. He was King from 269-232 B.C. After the battle of Kalinga, he tried to spread the message of peace and the tenets of Buddhism through the use of rock edicts. One of his messages is reproduced below. This was a form of mass communication since these edicts were meant to be read by many people.

“Beloved-of-the-Gods, King Piyadasi, speaks thus: In the past, state business was not transacted nor were reports delivered to the king at all hours. But now I have given this order, that at any time, whether I am eating, in the women's quarters, the bed chamber, the chariot, the palanquin, in the park or wherever, reporters are to be posted with instructions to report to me the affairs of the people so that I might attend to these affairs wherever I am. And whatever I orally order in connection with donations or proclamations, or when urgent business presses itself on the Mahamatras, if disagreement or debate arises in the Council, then it must be reported to me immediately. This is what I have ordered. I am never content with exerting myself or with despatching business. Truly, I consider the welfare of all to be my duty, and the root of this is exertion and the prompt despatch of business. There is no better work than promoting the welfare of all the people and whatever efforts I am making...
MEDIA EVOLUTION AND TRENDS

is to repay the debt I owe to all beings to assure their happiness in this life, and attain heaven in the next. Therefore this Dhamma edict has been written to last long and that my sons, grandsons and great-grandsons might act in conformity with it for the welfare of the world. However, this is difficult to do without great exertion."

The picture that you see here is a rock on which some writing has been carved out. The script used is Brahmi. This was the way he announced these ideas to the people. Some are still around today. The maps give the location of the surviving edicts giving an idea of the spread of the communication of Asoka.

Mauryan Art
The Mauryans excelled in the art of stone carving. Mauryan stone sculptures are characterized by a polished mirror-like surface, which has retained its luster to this day. This is evident in smooth-surfaced pillars, figural sculptures, such as the famous statue of a beautiful Yakshi, or a female figure with a flywhisk found at Didarganj in Patna. The smoothness was achieved by rubbing the surface of the stone with fine-grained sand buffing it with cloth or animal skin. The animal figures of lion, bull, or elephant, atop Mauryan pillars also have this highly polished surface. The most important pillar is the one that depicts four lions sitting back-to-back, which has been adopted by the Indian government as its national emblem. These magnificent monolithic pillars have been found in Sanchi, Sarnath, Vaishali, and some other places. They were erected to spread the gospel of Buddhism. The floral patterns on these pillars and the use of pillars themselves show Persian influence. It is said that the Persian palace at Persipolis was the inspiration behind these pillars. Mauryan artisans also carved out a number of rock-cut caves throughout the empire. The Buddhist caves in the Barabar hills near Gaya in Bihar are famous. They also built a number of Buddhist stupas. It is said that during the time of Ashoka 84,000 stupas were built in India.

Following is one of his rock edicts titled The Prompt Dispatch of Business.

"Thus says His Sacred and Gracious Majesty the King: - For a long time past it has not happened that business has been dispatched and that reports have been received at all hours. Now by me this arrangement has been made that at all hours and in all places - whether I am dining, or in the ladies’ apartments, in my bedroom, or in my closet, in my carriage, or in the palace gardens - the official Reporters should report to me on the people’s business, and I am ready to do the people’s business in all places. And if, perchance, I personally by word of mouth command that a gift be made or an order executed, or anything urgent is intrusted to the superior officials, and in that business a dispute arises or a fraud occurs among the monastic community, I have commanded that immediate report must be made to me at any hour and in any place, because I never feel full satisfaction in my efforts and dispatch of business. For the welfare of all folk is what I must work for—and the root of that, again, is in effort and the dispatch of business. And whatsoever exertions I make are for the end that I may discharge my debt to animate beings, and that while I make some happy here, they may in the next world gain heaven. For this purpose, have I caused this pious edict to be written, that it may long endure, and that my sons and grandsons may exert themselves for the welfare of all folk. That, however, is a difficult thing save by the utmost exertion."

But these were one-time productions that were meant to survive through the ages, not something like today’s newspapers, magazines or television whose shelf life is much shorter.

The Fruit of Exertion: Communication with a Human Face
Centuries later there developed the practice of having town criers in Europe. John Smith is first modern day Scottish crier to be registered with the Loyal Company Of Town Criers. He is Town Crier of Kilwinning in Ayrshire, and since taking up the role in 2000 he has preceded 8,500 pipers and drummers along Princes Street in Edinburgh, raising money for Marie Curie Cancer Care. John was privileged to lead two hundred and ninety pipe bands down the Avenue of the Americas in New York City on April 6 (Tartan Day) 2002. John was adopted as town crier by Prestonpans, East Lothian in 2003.
Drums of Destiny

The concept of the drum is probably as old as intelligent man. The idea of banging on something to make noise is second nature to us (watch children doing it to their plates or anything close to them). Drums were not always used for music. In Africa, where music is simply an interpretation of everyday life in sound, drums were used as speech. Simply a pattern of beats played in a certain way could communicate vast amounts of information.

The concept of the drum is probably as old as intelligent man. A drum is a membranophone, or an instrument that is played by beating on a stretched membrane. It consists of a body, or a hollowed-out piece, a membrane, or a piece of animal skin or synthetic material placed over the top, tuning pegs, or pegs placed into the sides of the membrane to tighten or release the pressure on the membrane (and affect the sound), and the striking object, usually a stick of some sort. While most people may think that a sound is produced in the body of the drum, sound is actually produced by the membrane and its vibration. Sound can be changed by the amount of tension in the membrane, or by how tightly it is stretched over the body of the drum. The oldest drums were probably hollowed sections of tree trunks, with a piece of animal skin over the top. Gourds are other hollow vegetables and fruits are also prime candidates for early drums.

The Printed News Sheet

Of some regularity was the Acta Diurna of Caesar’s time in Rome. The Acta Diurna was written on a tablet and posted on a wall after each meeting of the Senate. In the 17th Century came what were called Corantos – one-page news sheets about specific events though with no regular appearance. They were printed in Holland and England. Englishmen Nathaniel Butter, Thomas Archer and Nicholas Bourne eventually began printing the occasional news sheets using the same title for consecutive editions. The struggle between Parliament and Monarchy resulted in the establishment of the Oxford Gazette and later the London Gazette (1665) which became the model for the first colonial newspapers.

These newspapers were distributed first by horse carriage to begin with. This in effect meant that it could take from days to weeks to get them across long distances. The invention of the railways quickened the pace. Later newspapers were distributed by rail and by road slowly increasing the hinterland of the publishing centres. The aeroplane further spread the distance over which newspapers could be distributed.

The next development in the world of print, which now had to compete with the instant reach of radio and later of television, was the introduction of multi-edition dailies. This in effect was the publication of a single newspaper from several centres. Some of the content would be similar but some of it, including the front page might be different.

The scene completely changed in the late 1980’s and early 1990’s when satellite technology which made it possible to transmit from a single location the contents of a newspaper to several centres where it would be printed and distributed. The same newspaper, could, therefore be

In the case of radio, transmission did not present much problems particularly with the shortwave AM variety as they bounced back on their own from the ionosphere. They only needed boosters along the network to keep up the strength of the signals. The case with television, was however different as the signals were of a kind that did not bounce back from the ionosphere. So receivers had to be stationed within sight of the transmitters. Satellite technology of the 1960’s changed all that and the TV signals could now be reflected back to the earth from satellites and the signals could be received by the special receivers. Cable connections made it possible to relay these signals to a large number of homes from a single satellite signal receiver. Thus it did not require the installation of expensive equipment to receive satellite signals any more. In this way almost the entire surface of the earth has been covered by the cable and satellite system.
LESSON 22:
EMERGENCE OF PENNY PRESS AND THE CONCEPT OF ADS
(ADVERTISING AND MEDIA)

There is no doubt that the quick reproducing printing press made for the exchange of ideas that were thrown in the market place of thought. Apart from the lack of mass literacy, the main problem encountered was about who would foot the bill. Printing copies quickly was not yet a cheap process. A solution was found in the form of advertisement. The newspapers or information sheets were sought by readers who were interested in its content. Those who had goods to sell, on the other hand, wanted consumers (who also happened to be readers). What better way of getting consumers than by letting people get information about their products. They paid for the space required for putting out the information in the newspaper. This secured for the newspapers a source of revenue in addition to the money earned from readers who bought the papers. In fact they could now afford to reduce the price for subscribers to such low levels that the readership increased phenomenally.

Was the entry of advertisement a good thing for the media or a bad thing? Some say it put the mass media on its feet while others feel that it was a complete disaster. To make up one’s mind on this score one needs to have all the information on the development of advertising.

What needs to be kept in mind, however is that it has been observed that the overall performance of the economy has important implications for business performance and prospects of firms in all sectors, including media. The fortunes of our media firms are highly sensitive to the ups and downs of the economy as a whole. Many media firms rely on advertising as a primary source of income. Analysis of the long-term trends in advertising shows that there is a strong association between the performance of the economy as a whole and levels of advertising.

Early Advertising

Babylonian merchants were hiring barkersto shout out goods and prices at passersby in 3000 B.C. We can still see the use of this technique in the clothes stalls on Janpath. The vegetable vendor or the khabriwala who pass by our houses almost every day advertise their wares by shouting. The same happens in the weekly hat markets that are a feature of virtually every town in India.

By the 15th century ads as we know them now were abundant in Europe. Tradespeople promoted themselves with shophills which were attractively laid out business cards. Taverners and other merchants were hanging eye-catching signs about their businesses. If we look at copies of Treasure Island by R.L. Stevenson we find pictures of the pub Admiral Benbow with the sign hanging outside.

In 1625 the first newsbook containing ads, The Weekly News, was printed in England. From England advertising spread to the colonies of North America. But what made advertising really big business was the Industrial Revolution. When the economies of Europe and America were predominantly rural advertising was mostly by local retailers and the medium was the local newspaper. The situation changed with the emergence of manufacturing and the appearance in the market of hundreds of types of products and a number of brands. With more producers chasing the growing purchasing power of consumers, manufacturers were forced to differentiate their products from all others.

In India, manufacturing was rather late in taking off and till well into the 20th century it was retailers who purchased advertisements. Thus you would find advertisements about cars, ointments, astrologers and hair oils and body balms.

The Medium

What advertisers needed now was a medium in which to tell people about these brands. They found such a medium in the growing business of popular magazines in the late 19th century. In the United States for example, the founder of the Ladies Home Journal had this to say about the magazine and its purpose to a group of manufacturers: "The editor of the Ladies' Home Journal thinks we publish it for the benefit of American women. This is an illusion, but a very proper one for him to have. The real reason, the publisher's reason, is to give you who manufacture things American women want, a chance to tell them about your product." Well, he may have been serious about what he said or he may have said it to please the manufacturers so that they would give him advertisements. But soon advertising became the main revenue earner for magazines rather than the readers. Aspects of advertising that are common today like creativity in look and language, mail-order ads, seasonal ads, and placements of ads in proximity to content of related interest were already in use.

J Walter Thompson India

Major Clients: Apollo Hospital (Apollo Hospital & healthcare); Bridgestone Corporation (Bridgestone/tyres); Cargill India (Cargill/edible oils & ingredients); Currys & Curves (Vandana Luthra Curls & Curves/health); DSP Merrill Lynch (Investment banking); Hero Honda (CBZ/automobiles); I-Flex Solutions (Flex-cube/financial solution software); Indian Army; Indian Navy; News Television India Pvt Ltd (Star news/Media); Standard Chartered (Personal Banking & Cards); Ministry of Finance (VDIS); Ministry of Defence (Indian Army - recruitment); Pepsi Foods (7 UP, Mirinda, soft drinks); Satyam Infoway (Software); Star TV Network (Star Plus, Star Movies, Star News); Omega (watches); ESPN (Channel promo); 20th Century Fox (film releases); Madura Garments (Van Heusen, garments); Hero Motors (Hero Winner, automobile); Parle (Monaco, biscuit); Hughes Ispat (telecommunication) Mattel Co
McCann-Erickson India Ltd
Senior Executive:Sorab Mistry, Chairman & CEO
Major Clients:Coca Cola india(Coca-Cola/ carbonated beverages); TTK (LIG) (Kohinoor, Fista/ condoms);Bacardi India(Bacardi ready to drink beverages);Johnson &Johnson India(Savlon,Band-Aid/ woundcare);Gillette India(Duracell Plus/ alkaline batteries,Fashion Razor 2001,Mach III Cool Blue / razors);Perfetti India(Happy Dent/ chewing gum);TVS-Suzuki (corporate/TVS Max, TVS Scooty, TVS XL, TVS Sport, TVS Super, TVS Champ/ motorcycles & mopeds);C.Rishniah Chetty (jewellery store);Thinkstream Technologies (software development);Virgin Atlantic (Virgin Atlantic/ airline);Delphi Automotive Systems (Delphi/ automobile components);ACCEL ICIM (Accel-ICIM/ ERP packages);UPS (UPS/ courier services);Times FM (Radio Mirchi FM radio);Sundar Tajmab Hotel (Taj Tristar/ hotels); Concept Foods (JLT/ snack food);Eduquito(educational testing services);Reckitt & Colman(Cherry Blossom/ shoe polish); Usha Martin Telecom(telecom);Nes tte(sunrise/ coffee); BPL (Gas tables);Kheitan (Fans); Nestle (Media buying); Straca (Corporate); Goodyear India (Goodyear - tyre); Travel Corporation Of India (tourism); MasterCard (credit cards)

RK Swamy/BBDO Advertising Ltd
Gross Income:441.59 million
Major Clients: Cisco System(network solution); Abbott Laboratories India Ltd(Healthcare); Mercedes Benz (Automobiles); MTNL(telecommunication); Sony India Ltd(Sony/ TV); Fujitsu ‘O’ general(Airconditioners); SSL Star International Ltd(Computer education); Dalma Cement (Cement); Wrileys India (Wrileys Juicy Fruit chewing gum); Dena Bank (Banking);GE Countrywide Consumer Financial Services (GE/ financial services);Nav Bharat Media Services (Nav Bharat/ publication); Reserve Bank of India(RBI/ financial services); Unit Trust Of India (TCI/transport services)

Grey WorldWide (I) Pvt Ltd
Major Clients: SmithKline Beecham (Viva, maltova/ health drink); Hughes Software (Software); General Motors (Opel Astra - automobiles); Oracle India Ltd (Oracle - software); United Agencies Ltd (Pernod - liquor); Bhartiya Janata Party (BJP - political); Philips Communications (Savvy - cellular phones); Britannia Industries (Zip-Sip, Tetrapak - health drink); Kinetic Engineering (Luna, V2, Brat - mopeds) Directorate of Income Tax (income tax); Big Leap Academy (Big Leap/ software);ITC Cards (Expressions/ greeting cards); Jobstreet.com(Jobstreet/ website);Gautier India(Gautier/ readymade furniture);Wipro Group (Wipro/ computers and consumer products); Transport Corporation Of India (TCI/ transport services)

O & M
Ogilvy & Mather Pvt Ltd
Gross Income:Rs 1258.74 million
Major Clients: SBI Mutual Fund(Mutual Fund); TTK Textiles (Tantex/Textile); J K Tyres(Tyres); Pantaloons Fashion India Ltd(Garments); Levers, Cadbury, Louis Philippe (corporate); UTI (MIP ’97/ Financial); TVS Suzuki (corporate); Tata Telservices (corporate), Tata Communications Ltd (corporate); Hindustan Lever Ltd (Brooke Bond, Lipton - tea and health); Discovery Channel Inc (Discovery Channel - television channel); ITC Ltd (corporate); MIRC Electronics Ltd (O nida - television); The Chase Manhattan Bank (corporate); Birla 3M Ltd (Scotch Brite - cleaning aid); J M Morgan Stanley (J M Morgan Stanley - investment bank); Hero Honda Motors Ltd (bikes); United Television (television media); Castrol India Ltd (Castrol - lubricants); Hutchison Max Telecom Ltd (Max Touch - cellular operator); TELCO (Tata Safari, Sierra, Sumo - sports utility vehicle),Prasar Bharati Broadcasting (Doordarshan/ TV Channel); Aand Bazar Patrika (Business World/ weekly magazine)

FCB-Ulka Advertising Ltd
Gross Income:Rs 864.84 million

Rediffusion-DY&R
Gross Income:Rs 752.04 million
Major Clients: Pioma Industries(soft drinks); Zee TV channel; Tata Tetley(tea); Tide Water Oil(lubricants);ING Vysya Life Insurance(life insurance); Hindustan Paper; Corp(paper and pulp);Rat & sons (establisteds);IFFCO Tokyo(non-life insurance);HMT(tractors)Godfrey Philips (Four square/ cigarette); Haldia Petrochemicals(Petrochemicals); Evian (Mineral Water); Ericsson Mobile (Cellphones); SAIL (Corporate); CitiBank (Corporate); Cannon (printers, calculators); Bharati BT Ltd (Internet service); Exide Industries Ltd (Exide - automotive batteries); SBI Funds Management Ltd (SBI - mutual funds)
**Media Evolution and Trends**

**Leo Burnett India Pvt Ltd**
Major Clients: Birla Sun Life Insurance Company (Birla Sun Life/ life insurance); Fiat Auto (Fiat Palio/ automobiles); Somany Tiles (Somany/ceramic tiles); Bajaj Electricals (Bajaj/ fans & luminaries); La O pala RG (La O pala/Crockery, Solitaire/crystalware); Lin Pen & Plastic (Lin/ writing instruments).

**Contract**
Major Clients: Bajaj Ltd (spirit scooterettes); Indian Express (matrimonial); Cadbury India Ltd (picnic, milk treat/Cocolate); Dabur foods Ltd (real/ fruit juice); MTN (corporate);
Healthscribe/Next (medical transcription/ TRG); SAP Labs (IT-DM service); Bazaar (website); LT Overseas (basmati); Computer Associates (corporate); DHL (courier Services); Blue Star (airconditioners); JK Industries (tyres); Templeton (mutual funds); Luxor Writing Instruments (Luxor, Pilot, Papermate, Waterman/Writing Instruments); MP Jewellers (jewellery retail); Ozone Pharmaceuticals (pain reliever/ marks reliever); Grasim Industries (Graviera/textiles); Sony India (LCD projectors & PC monitors).

**Euro RSCG**
Major Clients: HD FC Securities (HD FC/ securities); Dell Computers (Dell/ computers); Hindustan Lever (Sangam Direct/ grocery retail); HD FC Bank (HD FC/ credit cards); Danone (Evain/bottled water); Bata (Bata/footwear); Hero Punch (Hero Punch/ scooterettes & mopeds);Cavin Kare (Meera soaps); Sara lee TTK (Kwai Klean Flush/ toilet cleaners); Parry Fertilizers (Pary Super/ Fertilizers); Parry EID Sanitaryware (Parryware/ Sanitaryware); GlaxoSmithKline (Phexin/ anti-infective); Janssen Cilag (Retino A/ acne-treatment Creams); UNICEF (UNICEF/ public service); Navneet Publications (Navneet/ study books & note books); Caligier (CalVox one/ business messaging); Golden Park Hotels & resorts (The London Pub/ pub); Elind Computers (Elind/ transaction of software); IVega (IVega/ infotech services).

**Pressman**
Major Clients: Mother Dairy (Mother Dairy/ dairy products); IBP Co (IBP Red/ lubricants); KVIC (KVIC/ Sarvodaya/ FMCG); BSNL (services/ telecom).

**MAA**
Gross Income: 267.60 million

**IB&W**
Major Clients: Milma (milk marketing); JIVE (juices and so on); SUPPLYCO (civil supplies); Orient Ceramics (ceramic manufacturing); A.P. Tourism (tourism)

**Triton**
Major Clients: Sanket Industries (No 1 Pan Masala/pan masalas); Dr Batra's Positive Health Clinic (healthcare); Marico Industries (Mediker/ shampoos, Shanti Amla/ hair oils); Millennium Breweries & Allied Products (Sandpiper/ beer); Lawrence & Mayo (corporate/ opticals); Hiperworld Cyber (software); Techinic Holding (leather goods); The Home Store India (retail chain); The Central Park Hotel (hotels); Niran Kumar Association (developer); Essel Housing (housing); HUDCO (home finance); E.I.Dupont India (crop protection products).

**Ambience D'Arcy**
Major Clients: Goodlass Nerolac (Nerolac/paints); Tata Infomedia (Tata Press/ Yellow Pages, Touch/ Stone services); Saboo Sodium Chloro (Surya Salt/ salt); Western Union Financial Services Inc (Money Transfer/ financial service); Hindustan Lever (Lakme/ skincare); Raymond (Raymond Be/ readymade garments); Philips India (Philips/ luminaires).

**Bates**
Major Clients: Hyundai Motor (Hyundai Accent/ automobiles); Kirlloskar (KOEL Green/ gensets); Morepen Laboratory (Dr Morepen/ OTC healthcare); Star TV Group (Kaun Banega Crorepati)/ TV game show); Le Meridien (Le Meridien/ hotels); MTDC (MTDC/ tourism); Hindustan Coca-Cola/ beverages).

**Percept**
Gross Income: Rs 207.66 million

**Saatchi & Saatchi**
Major Clients: Alembic Glass Industries (Yera Glass/ crockery); Apteche (Apteche Computer Education/ computer education); Ameya Trading Co (Superclass Coffee/ coffee); Bayer India (Gaicho and other products/ agro chemicals); Grasim Industries (Birla Plus Cement/ cement); Indian Hotels Co (Taj Group of Hotels, Delhi/ hotels); Shaw Wallace (Royal challenge/ beer); TVS-Suzuki (Victor, Fiero/ two-wheelers); Zee Telefilms (Playwin/ lottery); Zandu Pharmaceutical Works (Zandu Chyavanprash, Zandu Honey/ ayurvedic products).

**TBWA Anthem**
Major Clients: Yamaha Motor India (Yamaha Crux, Yamaha Crux RY/ YAMAHA YZF/ motorcycles); Sundaram Mutual Fund/ mutual funds); Jagajjit Industries (Perfect 10/ liquor); Foster's India (Foster's/ beer); Nutricia India (Anik Ghee/ food); Sanjivani Remedies (Sanjivani/ healthcare); NIIT India (NIIT/ infotech).

**Everest**
Major Clients: Ajanta Pharma (Pinkoo Cough Syrup/ Cough Syrups); Pinkoo Gripe Water/ gripe water; Trimol Pain balm/ pain balms); Parle Agro (Frooti/ soft drinks, Bailey/ bottled water); Honda Siel Cars (I)/Honda City/ cars).

**Madison**
Major Clients: Godrej Sara Lee; TBZ; Zaveri Bazar; Godrej Soaps; Godrej Sara Lee; BPL Group; Maruti; Perfetti; Kinetik; Indiandotors.com; FDC; Empire Institute of Learning; ACC.

**SSC & B Lintas**
Major Clients: Hyundai Motors (Hyundai Santro, Hyundai Sonata/ cars); Hindustan Lever (Kwalitty Walls Max/ confectionery, Modern/ bread); Zee Interactive (Zed Career Academy/ computer education, Zed TV/ TV Channel, Zee Learn.com/ website); Grand Hyatt (Grand Hyatt/ hotels); Hyatt Regency (Hyatt Regency/ hotels); Knoll Pharmaceuticals (Prothiaden,
Epilex, Insulin/anti-depressant, anti-epilepsy, anti-diabetic drugs; Hero Cycles (Hero Yankee/kids cycles); Sonata Software (Sonata/corporate); Mascot Systems (Mascot/corporate); Deccan Chronicle (Deccan Chronicle/daily newspaper); Minerva Coffee Shop (Minerva/restaurant); Blue Fox (Blue Fox/restaurant); Tanning Technology India (Network Servicing/infotech); Netplane Network Technology (infotech/embedded software); Deccan Ayurvedashram Pharmacy (DAP/ayurvedic medicine).

**Publicis**

Major Clients: Star TV Network (Star Gold / TV Channel); Nestle India (Nestle Pure Life/bottled water); Coca-Cola India (Schweppes Soda/carbonated beverages); Hewlett-Packard (Hewlett-Packard/computers); Mayfair (Zodiac Shirts/garments)

**Top 10 Agencies (India)**

1995

**G in $ Equity**

1. Hindutan Thompson Associates, $24,846 MN Bombay
2. Ammirati Puris Lintas, India, 16,451 MN Bombay
3. Mudra Communications (DDBN), 12,671 MN
4. Ogilvy & Mather, Bombay 11,150 MN
5. Ulka Advertising (JWT), Bombay 8,410 MJ
6. Contract Advertising (JWT), 6,862 MJ Bombay
7. Trikaya Grey, Bombay 6,128 MN
8. R.K. Swamy/BBDO Advertising, 5,870 MN Madras
9. MAA Group (Bozell), Bangalore 5,149 MN
10. Rediffusion-Densor, 4,605 MN Young & Rubicam

Soon advertising agencies started doing more than just brokering space in newspapers and magazines like the first American firm started by Volney B. Palmer in 1841. By 1869 V. Wayland Ayer (now the oldest ad agency in the United States) began his “full service” advertising in which the firm provided clients with ad campaign planning, created and produced ads with his staff of artists and writers and place them in the most appropriate media. During the period from the middle of the 19th century to the first world war professional standards were established in the world of advertising and regulation was introduced.

It was after the first world war that commercial radio was started though there were many people who were uncomfortable with the idea of commercial support for radio programmes. Private companies not just inserted ads on radio, they sponsored series for broadcast. Money now poured into the industry and this allowed them to expand research and marketing on a national scale, allowing advertisers access to sophisticated nationwide consumer and market information for the first time. The wealth that the advertising industry made during this time stood it in good stead during the Great Depression of the 1930’s. The Depression did have its effect on advertising and by 1933 the industry had lost nearly two thirds of its revenues. Among the responses were the hard sell - making direct claims about why a customer needed a product - and a tendency to move away from honesty.

**Advertising and Television**

Advertising got a major boost with the spread of television and consumerism after the second world war. The big advantage was the radio formats, stars and network structure simply moved to television. Being an audio-visual medium, it was possible to advertise on television in a way that was not possible in the earlier media since it could show action. Thus on television it is possible to show the strength of cement (Ambuja) by demonstrating the unbreakable character of a wall built using this cement. This gave rise to the concept of unique selling proposition (USP) which could be highlighted in a television commercial. This in turn led to ads that were emphasizing USP exclusively to the exclusion of information about the product.

As we have seen the reach and influence of advertising have become virtually inescapable. Over the last 50 years an increased willingness on the part of firms to invest in building awareness of themselves and of their wares has given rise to the rapid development of advertising, marketing and public relations sectors. Advertising agencies have generated catchphrases, jingles and images to make brands familiar to audiences both across the globe and across generations. In the year 2000 the estimated global expenditure on advertising was 330 billion dollars (about Rs. 15000 billion). There is additional advertising on the internet.

Firms spend money on advertising in the hope of persuading consumers to buy their products. The general aim behind advertising expenditure is to try and increase sales and to reinforce consumer loyalty to particular brands. Advertising is a form of competitive behaviour and is one of the main tools that firms can use to compete to entice consumers to switch to their own products rather than that of their rival. Other tactics a firm might use to gain advantage over competitors include making changes in the quality of the product so as to increase its attractiveness or to lower prices or undercut. Advertising, therefore takes place in a market situation where firms have an incentive to engage in competitive behaviour. More simply, more the competition; that is present in a market, the greater the need to advertise. Due to globalisation, most sectors of industry are now operating in a much more competitive environment than at any time in the past.

But American economist John Kenneth Galbraith has put forward a rather unconventional view about why firms spend on advertising. He suggests that firms are advertising to control their own markets. Galbraith points out that firms have to make sizeable investments in developing and launching new products but despite market research they cannot be entirely certain how well these new products will be appreciated by consumers and how profitable they will turn out to be. Firms are exposed to and threatened by unpredictability of future
events, especially changes in patterns of demand or fashions or technology. So, to make the future less unpredictable, firms invest vast sums of money in advertising.

According to Galbraith, expenditure on advertising is intended to manipulate market demand and to guard against sudden unexpected shifts in public tastes. Advertising expenditure enables companies to sell what they themselves want to produce rather than what consumers would want to buy. At the same time, firms decide not to produce some new products that consumers might actually like to buy. This allows them to cut the risks and expenses involved in launching untried products which, even if they are successful, might well simply undermine the market for existing products.

Do you agree with this view? Can you find instances where things have not worked the way Galbraith has described.

Does growth in advertising have something to do with the size of the economy or the way it is performing? Advertising growth is cyclical and it reflects in an exaggerated way the ups and downs of the economy at large. In periods of economic expansion the proportion of GDP spent on advertising increases; the converse is true in recession.

**Public Service Broadcasting versus Advertisement Supported Broadcasting**

While print production of mass media organs was somewhat expensive, production of television and radio production is prohibitive. It is for this reason that there has always been a controversy over how this cost will be met - through advertising or from public funding. The advertising model has been mostly followed in the United States but it has several serious shortcomings. Advertising is a faulty funding mechanism in that it creates an incentive for the broadcaster to maximize not overall viewer welfare but the supply of whatever mix of programming yields the audiences that advertisers particularly want to reach.

The public service model is represented largely by the organization of the broadcasting media in the United Kingdom where BBC’s public service output is funded through a compulsory license fee imposed on all homes where a television set is owned regardless of whether the owner watched BBC services or not. A similar model existed in India many years back with respect to radio broadcasting where a license fee was charged on every radio owned. But one of the main drawbacks of public funded broadcasting is that support from public funding denies consumer sovereignty.

But with the television and cable explosion had brought a predominance of funding of broadcasting by private advertising though governments usually retain control of some channels. In India the television expansion occurred partly in the 1980s after the introduction of satellite and colour while the cable became popular during the 1990’s. Advertisement first shifted to state controlled television (Doordarshan) which put out more an more entertainment programmes and then to a host of private channels that jumped into the fray on the back of cable tv.

What about newspapers? Newspapers are the original mass medium. Newspaper publishing gained importance as an economic activity during the latter half of the 19th century when improvements in printing technology and the spread of literacy made possible the introduction of newspaper titles with very large or mass circulations. The industry flourished during the 1920s and 1930s in the UK, Europe and the USA. The arrival of commercial television in the 1950s marked the beginning of a period of gradual decline for newspaper publishing and ever since then many firms in the industry have been forced to adjust to increasingly difficult market conditions.

Newspapers participate in what was referred to earlier as a dual product market. Newspaper content is produced by journalists and editors in order to attract readers. Access to readers is then priced and sold to advertisers. Some newspapers rely entirely on advertising income though a vast majority of newspaper titles are supported by a combination of revenue from copy sales and from advertising.
As the mass media came to be an established fact the question arose about how “mass” was each media. It is not so difficult to check out in the case of the print media since one only has to take a count of the number of copies printed and perhaps multiply it with the readership per copy. Such data is published by the Indian Newspaper Society (INS) as well as by the Information and Broadcasting Ministry. The one published by the government is brought out annually and it titled ‘Press in India.’ But when it comes to radio or television it is rather more difficult to find out since one cannot tell how many radio or tv sets are on when a programme is on the air. How then would advertisers come to know where to place their ads and in what time slot without have a clear picture of what population segment watches what programme.

Pollsters have devised a means of checking out the viewer-ship of television programmes. They make the use of small equipment known as people meters that can be installed on television sets in people’s homes. These meters record the channels that are tuned into, the duration for which they are viewed, the time when the sets are switched on or switched off. In fact they can record the activity of the television set over an entire day.

But installing such meters in every home would be a very expensive business and there may be many people who would not like this intrusion into their privacy. The poll companies choose a sample from a given population and install their meters in the TV.

This is how a Nielsen Media Research carry out research to find out TV ratings for programmes in the US. Nielson measures the number of people watching television shows and makes its data available to the television and cable networks, advertisers and the media.

Nielsen uses a technique called statistical sampling to rate the shows - the same technique that pollsters use to predict the outcome of elections. Nielsen creates a “sample audience” and then counts how many in that audience view each program. Nielsen then extrapolates from the sample and estimates the number of viewers in the entire population watching the show. That’s a simple way of explaining what is a complicated, extensive process. Nielsen relies mainly on information collected from TV set meters that it installs, and then combines this information with huge databases of the programs that appear on each TV station and cable channel.

To find out who is watching TV and what they are watching, the company gets around 5,000 households to agree to be a part of the representative sample for the national ratings estimates. Nielsen’s statistics show that 99 million households have TV’s in the United States, so Nielsen’s sample is not very large. The key, therefore, is to be sure the sample is representative. Then TV’s, homes, programs, and people are measured in a variety of ways.

To find out what people are watching, meters installed in the selected sample of homes track when TV sets are on and what channels they are tuned to. A “black box,” which is just a computer and modem, gathers and sends all this information to the company’s central computer every night. Then by monitoring what is on TV at any given time, the company is able to keep track of how many people watch which program. Small boxes, placed near the TV sets of those in the national sample, measure who is watching by giving each member of the household a button to turn on and off to show when he or she begins and ends viewing. This information is also collected each night.

The national TV ratings largely rely on these meters. To ensure reasonably accurate results, the company uses audits and quality checks and regularly compares the ratings it gets from different samples and measurement methods.

Participants in Nielsen’s national sample are randomly selected. Every U.S. household with a TV theoretically has a chance to be a part of the sample. The sample is also compared to the general population, and at times Nielsen calls thousands of households to see if their TV sets are on and who is watching. This research is worth billions of dollars. Advertisers pay to air their commercials on TV programs using rates that are based on Nielsen’s data. Programmers also use Nielsen’s data to decide which shows to keep and which to cancel. A show that has several million viewers may seem popular to us, but a network may need millions more watching that program to make it a financial success. That’s why some shows with a loyal following still get cancelled.
The Radio People Meter is an audience measurement system that tracks what consumers listen to on the radio, and what consumers watch on broadcast television, cable and satellite TV. The meter is a pager-sized device that consumers wear throughout the day. It works by detecting identification codes that can be embedded in the audio portion of any transmission.

The Meter system consists of four components:

- Encoder: installed at the programming or distribution source to insert an inaudible identification code into the audio stream;
- People Meter: worn by a consumer to detect and record the inaudible codes in the programming that the consumer is exposed to;
- Base station: where each survey participant places the meter at the end of the day to recharge the battery and to send collected codes to a household collection device known as a “hub”;
- Household hub: collects the codes from all the base stations in the survey household and transmits them to the poll company via the telephone during the overnight hours.

### The Encoder

The encoder is installed at the distribution source. It fits into a standard studio equipment rack and provides continuous, real-time stereo encoding of programme material as it is broadcast. This equipment is self-monitoring to ensure continuous operation and noninterference with the broadcast.

### The People Meter

Following several stages of miniaturization, People Meter is now a “pager-sized” 65 cubic centimeters and 75 grams (four cubic inches, 2.6 ounces). It consists of a specially sensitive audio transducer, digital signal processing (DSP) circuitry to analyze input for code detection, extensive memory accommodating at least one day of event codes, and a rechargeable battery. The battery operates for at least one day without recharging.

The People Meter is also equipped with a motion detector, which is linked to a small green light that is visible to the survey participant. The motion detector is a key component in our ability to track whether the survey participant is carrying the meter throughout the day. As long as the meter is being carried, the motion detector senses the smallest movement and keeps the green light illuminated. The green light is a visible cue to survey participants that they are fulfilling our request to carry the meter with them throughout the day.

### The Base Station

The base station extracts data - both the collected identification codes and the motion data from the motion detector - from the Portable People Meter. It also receives data from all of the base units and passes these data to the central computer system over the household telephone line. Both the base unit and the hub have been designed for ease of installation and ease of use by participants.

It is based on the science of “psychoacoustic masking,” which, simply explained, makes it possible to “hide” tiny bits of sound energy in the normal audio output of electronic media signals. This added sound energy creates a “fingerprint” which corresponds to a specific series of digits - this is the “code” in audio encoding - which in turn identify the specific source of the encoded signal. While present in the audio stream, the embedded code cannot be heard.

Each encoder puts out a specific series of audio codes so that (by installing an encoder in the transmission path of a television station, cable service, radio station, etc.) the signal can be effectively tagged with the assigned code.

### The Household Hub

Data from each base unit are transmitted to the household data collector (or “hub”) through the household wiring. No extra wiring is required. The hub receives data from all of the base units in the household and passes these data to the central computer system over the household telephone line. Both the base unit and the hub have been designed for ease of installation and ease of use by participants.

Television Audience Measurement Terms

- **Universe Estimate (U.E.)**: Total persons or homes in a given population, e.g. TV households in Canada.
- **Rating**: % The estimate of the size of television audience relative to the total universe, expressed as a percentage. The estimated percent of all TV households or persons tuned to a specific station.

In the example below, three of the 10 homes in the universe are tuned to channel 9. That translates to a 30 rating.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Households Using TV</th>
<th>Total TV households</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
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<td>3</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Or Rating** = Share x HUT

**Audience Rating % = Universe Estimate**

**Share (of Audience)** The percent of Households Using Television (HUT) or Persons Viewing Television (PVT) which are tuned to a specific program or station at a specific time.

Using the example above, channel 9 is being viewed in three of the six homes using television. That means it has a 50 share of audience. Rating Share = HUT

**Average Audience (AA)** The estimated average audience of a program during a time increment of its duration.
**Duration Averaging**

Duration Averaging Averaging programs together by weighting according to the length of each program.

**Coverage** The percent of TV households that could receive a program. It's the ability to view, not actual viewing.

**Coverage Area Rating** % Average Audience in percent of homes able to receive an individual cable network or specialty channel.

- Average Audience %
- Coverage Area Rating % = Coverage Area
- Universe Estimate

**Station Count** The number of stations transmitting the program.

Television Audience Measurement Terms

Audience Measurement and Abbreviations in Common Use

Average Hours of Viewing HUT/PVT converted to the average hours of viewing per home or per person. The two measurements are simply different ways to express the same statistic.

\[ \text{Avg. Hours} = \text{Duration of the period} \times \text{HUT\%} \]

For example, the Mon-Sun 7-11pm duration is 7 days x 4 hours or 28 hours.

If we assume a 70% HUT...

- 28 Hours x .70 = 19.6 hours/week.
- Average Hours: Minutes would be:
  
  \[ 19 + (.6 \times 60\text{min.}) = 19 \text{ hours 36 minutes} \]

**Gross Average Audience**

*(GAA Rating)*

The estimate which reflects the sum of all tuning and viewing minutes to a program. Tuning and viewing to the same minute of a program (or its repeat telecast) are counted each time.

**Gross Rating Points**

*(GRPs)*

The sum of all ratings for all programs in a schedule. The illustration below shows reach and frequency:

Each home shows which days the set was in use during the time a commercial or spot aired. Since each home comprises 10% of the universe of 10 homes, each represents a 10 rating every time the spot airs. By adding these ratings we arrive at the total of 150 Gross Rating Points.

- M,T,W M,Th W,F
- T W,Th Th,F T,W,F
- Monday = 20 Thursday = 30 Rtg
- Tuesday = 30 Friday = 30 Rtg
- 4 GRPs
- Wednesday = 40 Total = 150 GRPs
- 7 Channel 9 households 5 Reach 10 Total TV households = 70
- 150 GRPs 6 Frequency 70 Reach = .21

**Television Audience Measurement Terms**

- **Gross Impressions (IMP)** The GRPs expressed in numeric rather than percent form.
- **Impressions** = GRPs x Universe
- **Reach** The number of different or unduplicated homes/people that are exposed to a television program or commercial at least once across a stated period of time. Also called the cumulative (cume) or unduplicated audience. During the course of the schedule shown in the illustration above, seven different households were exposed to the commercial at least once. Since each home represents 10% of the universe, this makes the reach or cume 70%
- **Average Frequency** The average number of times a household or person viewed a given television program, station or commercial during a specific time period. In our example, the Gross Rating Points achieved (150) is divided by the percent of homes reached (70) to determine the frequency of 2.1.
- **Frequency Distribution** Number or percentage of households or persons that are exposed to a given program, station, or commercial on time, two times, three times etc.
- **Cost Per Thousand**
  
  *(CPM)*
  
  The cost to deliver 1,000 people or homes.
  
  Media Cost CPM = Impressions x 1,000
- **Cost Per Rating Point**
  
  *(CPP)*
  
  The cost to deliver a single rating point.
  
  Average Unit Cost CPP = Rating %
  
  Or
  
  Total Schedule Cost GRPs
Public service broadcasting is based on the principles of universality of service, diversity of programming, provision for minority audiences including the disadvantaged, sustaining an informed electorate, and cultural and educational enrichment. The concept was conceived and fostered within an overarching ideal of cultural and intellectual enlightenment of society. The roots of public service broadcasting are generally traced to documents prepared in support of the establishment of the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) by Royal Charter on 1 January 1927. This corporation grew out of recommendations of the Crawford Committee appointed by the British Postmaster General in August of 1925. Included in those recommendations was the creation of a public corporation which would serve as a trustee for the national interest in broadcasting. It was expected that as public trustee, the corporation would emphasize serious, educational, and cultural programming that would elevate the level of intellectual and aesthetic tastes of the audience. The conception of the BBC was that it would be insulated from both political and commercial influence. Therefore, the corporation was a creation of the crown rather than parliament, and funding to support the venture was determined to be derived from license fees on radio (and later television) receivers rather than advertising. Under the skillful leadership of the BBC’s first director general, John Reith, this institution of public service broadcasting embarked on an ethical mission of high moral responsibility to utilize the electromagnetic spectrum - a scarce public resource - to enhance the quality of life of all British citizens.

Within the governance of national authorities, public service broadcasting was recreated across western European democracies and beyond in various forms. At the core of each was a commitment to operating radio and television services in the public good. The principal paradigm adopted to accomplish this mission was the establishment of a state-owned broadcasting system that either functioned as a monopoly or at least as the dominant broadcasting institution. Funding came in the form of license fees, taxes or similar noncommercial options. Examples of these organizations include the Netherlands Broadcasting Foundation, Danish Broadcasting Corporation, Radiodiffusion Television Francaise, Swedish Television Company, Radiotelevisione Italiana, Canadian Broadcasting Corporation and Australian Broadcasting Corporation. While the ideals on which these and other systems were based suggested services that were characterized by universality and diversity, there were notable violations to these ideals, especially in Germany, France and Italy. In some cases the state-owned broadcasting system became the political mouthpiece for whomever was in power. Such abuse of the broadcasting institutions’ mandate made public service broadcasting the subject of frequent political debates.

Contemporary accounts of public service broadcasting worldwide often include the U.S. Public Broadcasting Service and National Public Radio as American examples. However, unlike the British model which was adopted across Europe, the U.S. system came into being as an alternative to the commercially financed and market driven system which has dominated U.S. broadcasting from its inception. Whereas 1927 marked the beginning of public service broadcasting in Britain, the United States Radio Act of 1927 created the communication policy framework that enabled advertiser supported radio and television to flourish. Language contained within this act explicitly mandated broadcasting stations to operate “in the public interest, convenience or necessity,” but the public service ideals of raising the educational and cultural standards of the citizenry were marginalized in favor of capitalistic incentives. When the Radio Act was replaced by the Communications Act of 1934, the Federal Communications Commission (FCC) recommended to Congress that “no fixed percentages of radio broadcast facilities be allocated by statute to particular types or kinds of non-profit radio programs or to persons identified with particular types or kinds of non-profit activities.” It was not until 1945 that the FCC created a license for “noncommercial educational” radio stations. But even though these stations were envisioned to be America’s answer to the ideals of public service broadcasting, the government’s failure to provide any funding mechanism for noncommercial educational stations for nearly 20 years resulted in a weak and undernourished broadcasting service. Educational radio in the United States was referred to as the “hidden medium.” Educational television was authorized by the FCC’s Sixth Report and Order adopted 14 April 1952, but the creation of a mechanism for funding educational radio and television in the United States had to wait for passage of the Public Broadcasting Act on 7 November 1967. Funding levels never approached the recommendations set forth by the Carnegie Commission on Educational Television in its report, Public Television: A Program for Action, in which the term “public television” first appeared.

During the 1970s and 1980s public service broadcasting worldwide came under attack, as the underlying principles on which it was based were called into question. The arrival of new modes television delivery - cable television, satellites, video cassettes - had created new means of access to broadcast services and thus changed the public’s perception about the importance and even legitimacy of a broadcasting service founded on the principle of spectrum scarcity. From an ideological perspective, questions were being raised about the very notion of a public culture by conservative critics, and charges that public service broadcasting was a closed, elitist, inbred, white male institution were put forward by liberal critics. Movement toward a global economy was having an ever increasing impact on the way policy-makers saw the products of radio and television. The free
market viability of educational and cultural programming as successful commercial commodities seemed to support the arguments of critics that public service broadcasting was no longer justified. Deregulation of communication industries was a necessary prerequisite to the breakdown of international trade barriers, and the shift toward increased privatization brought new players into what had been a closed system. The growing appeal of economic directives derived from consumer preferences favored the substitution of the American market forces model for the long-standing public trustee model that had been the backbone of public service broadcasting. Adding to this appeal was the growing realization that program production and distribution costs would continue to mount within an economic climate of flat or decreasing public funding.

By the early 1990s, the groundswell of political and public dissatisfaction with the privileged position of public service broadcasting entities had reached major proportion. Studies were revealing bureaucratic bungling, cost overruns, and the misuse of funds. One commission after another was recommending at least the partial dismantling or reorganization of existing institutions. New measures of accountability demanded more than idealistic rhetoric, and telecommunication policy makers were turning a deaf ear to public service broadcasting advocates.

Communication scholars who had been reticent on these issues for the most part, began to mount an intellectual counterattack, based largely on the experiences of public broadcasting in the United States. Critiques of American communications policy underscored concerns about the evils of commercialization and the influence of the open marketplace. Studies pointed to the loss of minority voices, a steady decline in programs for segmented populations and a demystification of the illusion of unlimited program choices introduced by the new television delivery systems of 500 channel cable networks and direct broadcast satellites. Content analyses revealed program duplication, not diversity, and the question of just how far commercial broadcasters would venture away from the well-proven formulas and formats was getting public attention. A concerned electorate was beginning to ask whether the wide scale transformation of telecommunications was not without considerable risk; that turning over the electronic sources of culture, education, and political discourse to the ever-shifting forces of the commercial marketplace might have profound negative consequences.

By the mid-1990s telecommunications policy issues ranged from invasion of privacy, depictions of violence on television, the manufacturing of parent-controlled TV sets, revisions in technical standards to finding new funding alternatives to sustain public service broadcasting in some form. These issues were also firmly embedded in the public discourse. Communication corporations appeared and disappeared daily. The environment of electronic communications was in a state of flux as the new technologies vied for a piece of a quickly expanding and constantly evolving marketplace. Public service broadcasters were reassessing their missions and were building new alliances with book publishers, computer software manufacturers, and commercial production houses. In the United States, public radio and television stations were experimenting with enhanced underwriting messages that were looking and sounding more and more like conventional advertising. The relative success of these and other new ventures worldwide was still an unknown. Whether public service broadcasting will continue well into the 21st century remains a topic for robust debate.

U.S. public television is a peculiar hybrid of broadcasting systems. Neither completely a public service system in the European tradition, nor fully supported by commercial interests as in the dominant pattern in the United States, it has elements of both. At its base this system consists of an ad hoc assemblage of stations united only by the fluctuating patronage of the institutions that fund them, and in the relentless grooming of various constituencies. The future of public broadcasting in America may in fact be assured by the range of those constituencies and by public television’s malleable self-definition. It may come to be as much an electronic public library as a broadcaster. Given its perpetually precarious arrangements, public television has had a significant cultural impact since it became a national service in 1967. Through its programming choices, it has not only introduced figures such as Big Bird and Julia Child into national culture, and created a home for sober celebrities such as Bill Moyers and William Buckley, but it has also pioneered new televiral technologies such as closed captioning and uses such as distance learning and on-line services.

U.S. public television programming has evolved to fill niches that commercial broadcasters have abandoned or not yet discovered. Children’s educational programming, especially for preschoolers; “how-to” programs stressing the pragmatic (e.g. cooking, home repair, and painting and drawing); public affairs programming and documentaries; upscale drama; experimental art; community affairs programming all contribute to the tapestry of public television. In the course of a week, more than 100 million American television viewing homes turn to a public television program for at least 15 minutes, and overall, the demographics describing viewers of public TV more or less match those of the nation as a whole. However, based on an annual average, its prime-time rating hovers at a low 2.2% of the viewing audience, and demographics for any particular program are narrowly defined. Overall they are weakest for young adults. Lesser heralded, but increasingly important in public television’s rationale, is its extensive instructional programming and information-networking, most of which is non-broadcast.

In the critical design period of American broadcasting (1927-34), which resulted in the Communications Act of 1934, public service broadcasting had been rejected out of hand by legislators and their corporate mentors. A small amount of spectrum space on the UHF (the more poorly received Ultra High Frequency) band was set aside for educational television in 1952. This decision was modelled after the 1938 set-side for educational (not public or public service) radio stations that had ensued upon rampant commercialization of radio. In TV, as in radio, much of that spectrum space went unused, and most programming was low-cost and local (e.g., a broadcast lecture).
After mid-century, the situation had changed to some degree. The Public Broadcasting Act of 1967 reflected in part the renewed emphasis placed on mass media by major foundations such as Carnegie and Ford, as well as the concern of liberal politicians and educators. The historic 1965 Carnegie Commission on Educational Television, willed into being by President Lyndon Johnson in search of a televisual component to the Great Society, claimed that a “Public Television” could “help us see America whole, in all its diversity,” and “help us know what it is to be many in one, to have growing maturity in our sense of ourselves as a people.” Many legislators and conservatives, however, openly feared the specter of a fourth network dominated by Eastern liberals. Commercial broadcasters did not want competition, although they supported the notion of a service that could relieve their public interest burden.

The service was thus deliberately created as the “lemon socialism” of mass media, providing what commercial broadcasters did not want to offer. The only definition of “public” was “noncommercial.” Mere token start-up funds were provided. And the system was not merely decentralized but balkanized.

The current complex organization of public television reflects its origins. The station, the basic unit of U.S. public TV, operates through a nonprofit entity, most commonly a university. Of about 1500 stations in the United States, there are about 360 public television stations (about 150 of these are repeaters), and almost everyone in the U.S. can receive a public TV signal. About two-thirds of the public TV stations are UHF, still a significant limiting factor in reception.

Stations are fiercely independent, cultivating useful relationships with local elites, though they often form consortia for program production and delivery and to shape more general policy. A handful of wealthy, powerful producing stations contrasts with a great majority of small stations that produce no programming. (Three stations produce 60% of the original programming for all the stations.) In most large markets there are several stations, with much duplication of PBS programming, but stations may also establish some distinctive services catering to minorities and showcasing independent and experimental productions.

The 1967 law, however, also created a Corporation for Public Broadcasting (the CPB) as a private corporation to provide support to the stations. The governing board of the CPB is politically-appointed and balanced (along partisan lines), and is funded by tax dollars. The CPB was designed to assist stations with grants to upgrade equipment and services, with research, with policy direction, and eventually with a small programming fund. But the CPB was banned from distributing programs. This minimized the threat that the member stations would ever constitute a true fourth network. The Corporation has, over the years, acted as the lightning rod for Congressional discontent, since it is the funnel for federal tax dollars. Congress has usually removed the board’s discretionary authority over funds rather than cut them. As a result most of CPB’s funds are now set up to flow directly to local stations.

Despite governmental intent to keep public broadcasting local, centralized programming services of several kinds quickly sprang up. Public affairs services centered, just as political conservatives had feared, on the Eastern seaboard. Resulting programs enraged then-President Richard Nixon, who tried to abolish the service and did succeed in weakening it.

Out of this conflict grew, by 1973, today’s Public Broadcasting Service, the first and still premier national programming service for public television. Shaped in part by station owners who, like Nixon, disliked Eastern liberals, it is a membership organization of television stations. Member stations pay dues to receive up to three hours of prime-time programming at night, several hours of children’s programming during the day, and other recommended programs. Since 1990 stations have accepted a programming schedule designed by a PBS executive. This policy replaced a previous system in which programs were selected by a system driven by majority vote. Stations were persuaded to cede power because overall ratings for public television were declining. Although not obliged to honor the prime-time schedule, stations are urged to do so. This version of a common schedule assists in enlarging the audience and enables them to benefit from national advertising. Other programming services abound, both regionally and nationally, but none has the imprimatur of PBS.

While CPB and PBS both provide funds for the development and purchase of programs, they do not make programs. Television stations (especially the “big three” in New York, Boston and Los Angeles) produce the bulk of programming. Public television also depends heavily on a few production houses, both commercial and non-commercial—notably Children’s Television Workshop for children’s programming. Independent television and film producers chronically complain that the service, which should depend on them, slight them. Their complaints, coordinated over a decade, finally convinced Congress in 1988 to create the Independent Television Service, as a wing of the CPB, with the specific mission to fund innovative work for underserved audiences.

Public TV’s funds come from a variety of sources. These include, (for fiscal year 1993) federal (19%), state and local (30%), and private funders, subscribers (23%), and corporations (17%). Each of these three major sources of funding comes with its own set of constraints. The federal appropriation (accounting for an average 13% of the budget) brings controversy virtually on an annual basis. Even so, the Corporation’s budget has, with few exceptions (notably the first Reagan presidency and 1995, with a new 1994 Republican Congressional majority), been regularly increased to keep its total amount roughly steady with 1976 levels measured in 1972 dollars. State and local governments have cut funds in the 1990s consistent with funding crises. Public affairs programming has consistently been the target of Republican and conservative legislators’ ire, and has caused public TV to be hypercautious in such programs. This may explain why public TV never developed an institutional equivalent of National Public Radio’s daily news reporting.

The majority of funds for public television come from the private sector. Viewers are the single largest source of funding; their contributions come, effectively, without strings and so are especially valuable. These funds are often raised during “pledge drives” in which special, highly popular programming is
MEDIA EVOLUTION AND TRENDS

presented in conjunction with heartfelt pleas for funds from station staff, prominent local supporters, and other celebrities. These pledge drives are supplemented, in many markets, with other fund raising efforts such as auctions or special performances. The tenth of viewers who become donors tend to be culturally and politically cautious, and the need to cultivate them skews programming to what venerable broadcast historian Erik Barnouw calls the “safely splendid” - the bland, the middle-brow, the stamped- and-approved. Re-runs of Lawrence Welk programs have historically been some of the most successful shows for pledge week.

Business contributes not quite a fifth of the funding, but its contributions tend to shape programming decisions, because business dollars are usually given in association with a particular program. Public broadcasters openly market their audience to corporations as an upscale demographic, one that businesses are eager to capture in what is known as “ambush marketing”—catching the attention of a listener or viewer who usually resists advertising. The hallmark PBS series Masterpiece Theatre was designed from logo to host by a Mobil Oil Co. executive looking to create an image for Mobil as “the thinking man’s gasoline.” Conflict of interest issues ensue, as do questions of allowing corporations to set programming and production priorities. (If stations hadn’t aired Doing Business in Asia, a series sponsored by Northwest Airlines, which has Asian routes, what else might they have been able to do with their time and money?)

These pressures in combination have made the service vulnerable to political attack both from the left and right as elitist. After Nixon accused the service of being dangerously liberal, many broadcasters scanted public affairs and presented “safe” cultural programming, only to be accused by the Reagan administration in 1981 of providing “entertainment for a select few.” Reagan’s attempt to cut funds also failed, although the administration succeeded in rescinding advance funding that had been designed as a political “heat shield” after Nixon’s attack. In 1992, Sen. Bob Dole (R-Kansas) threatened to hold up funding for public broadcasting on charges that it was too liberal, and succeeded in making broadcasters nervous and forcing CPB to spend a million dollars on surveys and studies that changed nothing. In 1994, following on the Republican victory in Congress, House of Representatives leader Newt Gingrich (R-GA) and Dole both targeted CPB for rescission, on grounds that it was both elitist and liberal.

At the same time, the variety of funding sources has made it advantageous for public TV bureaucrats to resist bringing into focus public television’s purpose as either primarily an entrepreneurial niche service or one that upholds public service. Changes in corporate media have precipitated anguished discussion over mission within public TV, and have brought new opportunities and challenges. Cable TV has not been the challenge it was once thought, both because some 40% of the population does not receive it, and because public TV continues to program unique, non-commercial material and to have the reputation for quality and decency. But commercial investors, hungry for content, have increasingly invested in public TV, eroding public/commercial lines. The largest cable operator, TeleCommunications Inc., became part-owner of the MacNeil-Lehrer news production company in 1994, and in 1995 the long-distance telephone service provider MCI invested $15 million in PBS’s on-line and other new technologies services.

The digitalization and convergence of electronic media, developments which also bring the possibility of tailoring media to consumer desires, drive broadcasters to rethink their role. CPB and PBS planners see the manipulation of content provision as the key to future survival. They imagine future public television as a community public information resource. Because stations with satellite hookups exist in virtually every community, they could become a here-now version of an information superhighway or network for public uses (and in the process justifying the ubiquity of stations and their high-tech, federally-funded satellite links). PBS has already developed pilot on-line services as well as distance learning. This visionary perspective on public television’s role is ahead of most station managers, who continue to see public TV as a broadcast service competing for viewers by offering “better” programming.

An improbable, many-headed creature, public TV is unlikely to disappear even under steady political assault. It is also unlikely to suddenly become a service that a plurality of Americans would expect to turn to on any given evening. It is likely to become more commercial in its broadcast services and more entrenched - and defensible as taxpayer-funded - in its infrastructural and instructional services.

Source: http://www.museum
LESSON 25:
OLYMPICS AND TELEVISION

Since their first telecast in 1960, the Olympic games have enjoyed a mutually beneficial relationship with television. TV has popularized the event to the point that the global audience is now estimated at one billion viewers. Over the years, however, American television networks have become mired in a high-stakes bidding war for broadcast rights. The stiff competition has kept rights fees inordinately expensive and, as a result, America contributes much more money than any other country to support the Olympics. In 1996, the Summer games in Atlanta were priced at $456 million, a figure that did not include the cost of the production itself, which has been estimated at another $150 million. All of the Western European nations combined paid $250 million in fees for the same games. It can also be argued that network coverage of the games has expanded to the point of excess in the attempts to recoup spiraling costs by selling more commercial time. Nevertheless, the ratings, advertising revenue, and prestige associated with broadcasting the games have established the Olympic rights as among the most coveted and expensive in all of television. Simultaneously, the International Olympic Committee (IOC) has become increasingly dependent on income derived from American television. Even the scheduling of the games has been changed, in part, to accommodate the U.S. media. In 1994, the IOC adopted a two-year staggered schedule; the Winter Olympics in Lillehammer were followed by the 1996 Summer games in Atlanta. This eased the strain on corporations who were beginning to find the price of quality Olympic advertising prohibitive. At hundreds of thousands of dollars for a thirty-second spot, or hundreds of millions for a sponsorship package, neither the Committee nor the networks could afford to lose these clients. Spacing the Summer and Winter Olympics two years apart thus allowed sponsors to spread out their costs and also to invest in more high-profile packages. The revised schedule also granted the IOC more time to effectively allocate the revenue.

The conditions now surrounding the televised contests derive from increased attention to the Olympics that began in the late 1960s. The games first attracted a significant television audience during the 1968 Summer games when Roone Arledge was at the helm of ABC Sports. The combination of his in-depth, personalized approach to sports broadcasting (embodied by ABC’s Wide World of Sports) and the technological advances in the field, such as satellite feeds and videotape, set the standard for Olympic telecasts. Utilizing inventive graphics and personal profiles of the athletes, Arledge slotted forty-four hours of coverage, three times as many hours as the previous Summer games. He packaged a dramatic, exciting miniseries for the television audience and successive producers have continued to expand on his model.

Munich Olympics

The 1972 Summer Olympics in Munich, West Germany showed further growth in costs and coverage. However, the drama of the games was overshadowed by the grisly murder of eleven Israeli athletes at the hands of Palestinian terrorists. Viewers watched in horror as the events of the 5th and 6th September massacre unfolded, and television turned into an international forum for the extremist politics of the Black September Organization. This event provided the single worst tragedy in the history of sports broadcasting. The Olympics have also given television sports some of its most glorious moments and endearing heroes. Few will ever forget the U.S. hockey team’s thrilling victory over the Soviets in 1980, Nadia Comenici’s perfect performances, or the dedication and perseverance of athletes like Mark Spitz, Carl Lewis and Dan Janssen. Typically, the top American athletes become media celebrities, winning lucrative endorsement and commercial deals along with their medals.

Aside from catapulting the athletes to media stardom, the Olympic games are a ratings boon for their host network. Customarily, that network captures 50% of the television audience each night for the two-and-a-half weeks of the Olympic telecast. Furthermore, this habitual pattern establishes a relationship between the viewers and the network which translates into increased ratings for regularly scheduled programming. This springboard into the new season, along with the hefty sums commanded by Olympic advertising time are the reasons that the broadcast rights are so sought after and so expensive.

Possibly, however, the situation has gotten out of control. For example, the Squaw Valley games in 1960 cost CBS only $50,000 in rights fees. Twenty years later, NBC bid an astonishing $87 million for the 1980 summer games in Moscow. This price was almost four times the fee for the previous summer rights. Unfortunately for NBC, the U.S. boycott of the games destroyed hopes of a windfall and sabotaged the scheduled 150 hours of planned coverage. Still, rights fees have continued to climb. The Summer broadcast rights almost tripled from 1980 to 1984 ($87 million to $225 million) and both Winter and Summer rights have gone for $300 million or more since 1988.

Traditionally, networks lose money on the Olympics. Bids are made knowing that the result will be millions of dollars lost. The games have become such an emotionally charged part of a network’s inventory, however, that profit is no longer the chief concern. Broadcasting the Olympics, much like broadcasting professional sports, is more about network prestige than about making sound business decisions. These exploding costs have sent networks looking for alternative strategies to ease the financial burden. In 1992, NBC made an ill-fated attempt at utilizing pay-per-view subscriptions. The
“Olympic Triplecast” was organized in conjunction with Cablevision and intended to sell packages of commercial-free, extensive programming. The plan was a failure, mainly due to viewers’ reluctance to pay to see some events when network coverage of others was free of charge.

CBS has had more success in reducing their outlay by joining forces with TNT (Turner Network Television). The Winter Olympics of 1992 began the collaboration between the two networks which gave TNT 50 hours of programming in exchange for $50 million towards rights fees. The arrangement was so successful that it was renewed in 1994 for the Lillehammer games. The sharing of broadcast duties and costs seems to hold a promising future for both the quality and cost of Olympic coverage.

Sponsorship in India picked up from late eighties. This expansion was caused by a number of real constraints facing advertisers, but it quickly became very fashionable. Earlier it signified a situation of uncertainty for advertisers, which slowly turned into opportunity offering greater opportunities for their communication policy. Now sponsorship has become the magic communication potion and every one is using it without understanding it. The basic conclusion to be drawn from this article is that sponsorship is a complementary, non-substitutive alternative to traditional media, and should be addressed within the overall communication strategy of the sponsoring company. Weather it is effective or not will depend on how the different variables are selected.

**Why Sponsorship has Grown**

The increasingly prohibited cost of media advertising and the growing in difference from the public to traditional communication techniques; leads to a decreasing efficiency of media advertising. Which makes

- Media look for new events to pay attention to
- Companies look for alternate ways to communicate with their target groups and a marriage of these interests quite often results in a sponsorship

**Sponsorship a Growth Market**

Nowadays it is difficult to think of a Cricket organization, Cricket club, team, federation or committee that does not have a (number of) sponsor(s).

The sponsorship market is a seller’s market but even now it has not gotten the professional approach into it. Most of the time they are selling wrong product to the wrong person. They were only selling and not marketing their product. and more often then not they did have the faintest idea about what the buyer expects from the sponsorship, the product on sale. Many potential sponsored body still do not know how to deal with sponsors, how to approach them; they do not understand what information the potential sponsor needs to take a decision.

A typical letter sent to a potential sponsor will nearly always contain a description of the activity to be sponsored, immediately followed by: either

A description of the reasons why the sponsor is being looked for, or

A description of the reasons why the one to be sponsored thinks the potential sponsor approached should sponsor.

In the second case a complete lack of understanding of the needs of the potential sponsor is often apparent. The language used is peppered with terms like:

- Unique
- Once in a life time opportunity
- A decision at short notice
- Your competitor X has already shown interest

But the information a potential sponsor really needs to take a decision such as how many visitors, what media coverage, what is the image and target group of the event’s nearly always lacking.

Ever-increasing price of potential sponsorships, the general lack of understanding of what realistically a sponsorship can achieve for the sponsor, and the often disappointing results obtained in reality, have all led to a situation in which the potential sponsor is more critical about entering a sponsorship deal.

**A Definition of Sponsorship**

For most of the people the general concept /idea of sponsorship is discerned as diffuse, vague and unclear. The meanings attributed to sponsorship are multiple ambivalent, which adds even more to its conceptual vagueness. So let us look at one of the many definition of sponsorship: -

“Commercial sponsorship is (1) Buying and (2) Exploiting an association with an event, a team, a group, etc., for specific marketing communication purposes.” Sponsorship is different from advertising, for example, it is centered upon an activity outside the company’s operation; it is a business agreement built up on the basis of an event, a team, a personality, and/or an organization; an association which will, it is hoped, benefit both the sponsor and the sponsored body.

Sponsorship is different from advertising, sales promotion; product PR, publicity, etc. but at the same time it requires close cooperation with all of these marketing communication elements in order to achieve proper exploitation.

**Sponsorship Strategy**

Sponsorship will be positive or negative depending on how it is done in each specific case. Or, put another way, attitudes to sponsorship cannot be generalized, and because of this it is fundamental to pay careful attention to the sponsorship strategy. There should be a sponsorship strategy in which the place of sponsorship in the marketing (communication) mixes should be defined. Other important elements to be considered while formulating the strategy are

- Objective of sponsorship in general and how these relate to other communication activities.
- A proposal of how much will be spent on sponsorship in order to achieve the stated objectives.
- A sponsorship guidelines and do’s and don’ts
- The main outline of a long-term (four-six) sponsorship plan.
These objectives/strategies should not be changed after first disappointment. Sponsorship asks for a long-term view (continuity) and the will to make it a success (perseverance).

Exploitation makes an association become better known to the target group: not only does the exploitation of sponsorship goes beyond the responsibility and activities of the sponsorship department, it actually requires that all sponsor activities are actively integrated into the total marketing and marketing communication. Mix; into a proper marketing (Communication) plan. Exploitation therefore requires commitment, timely planning and integration. All of these elements are the key ingredients of a successful sponsorship.

**The Need for Objective Setting**

What do companies look for in sponsorship? Not surprisingly most surveys done in this area reveal the following objectives to be high on the list:

a. To increase awareness
b. To improve image

**Future Trends**

Looking at the sponsorship scenario in the country and the way it has moved in last few years, the following trend seems emerging:

a. More events will be created keeping sponsorship in mind.
b. Increasing vertical integration between 'events', 'organization', and 'media' set up by 'operators' with interest in all these elements.
c. More exciting events being 'made' suitable for sponsorship with greater commercialization.
d. Growing professionalism within companies that are looking for sponsorship opportunities

This will lead to

a. Better understanding of the nature of the phenomenon 'sponsorship'
b. More realistic expectation and objectives about what a sponsorship can mean for a sponsor
c. More realistic expectation and prices of sponsorship contracts
d. Continuing but decelerating, growth of sponsorship.
e. In sports there will be trend away from the top 10 well-established mass sports to newer ones
f. Sponsorship of the arts will continue to grow
g. Within companies below the line activities and sponsorship activity will probably be merged into one activity/department

**Highest Paid Sportsmen in the World**

Tiger Woods is the world's highest-paid athlete. He earned $80.3 million last year, according to Forbes magazine's "Celebrity 100" issue.

Woods was second overall on the Celebrity 100 power ranking list, behind only actor-director Mel Gibson.

The list takes into account yearly earnings, press clippings, magazine covers and Internet presence.
“The lesson content has been compiled from various sources in public domain including but not limited to the internet for the convenience of the users. The university has no proprietary right on the same.”