

Introduction to Media and Communication Sciences Course

*Annual **Handouts** Designed for Common Core First-year
Students*

-Licence Degree-

*Prepared by: **Pr. Karim Belkaci***

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Foreword

Welcome to this comprehensive handout on "Introduction to Media and Communication Sciences." As the realms of media and communication continue to evolve at an unprecedented pace, it becomes increasingly crucial to understand the foundational principles and emerging trends that shape these dynamic fields.

This handout is designed to provide you with a thorough grounding in the core concepts and theories that underpin media and communication sciences. Whether you are a student embarking on your academic journey, a professional seeking to deepen your understanding, or simply an enthusiast eager to explore the intricacies of media and communication, this resource aims to cater to your needs.

The study of media and communication encompasses a vast array of topics, including the history and development of media, the role of media in society, the impact of digital technologies, and the critical analysis of media content. In this handout, you will find:

- Historical Context: An exploration of the evolution of media and communication concepts.
- Theoretical Frameworks: Theories in media and communication including systems theory and the connection between media and political philosophy.
- Areas of research specialization in media and communication sciences.
- The modern basics of media and communication theories.

Our goal is to equip you with the knowledge and analytical skills necessary to navigate and critically assess the media and communication landscape. By engaging with the content of this handout, you will gain a deeper appreciation of the complexities of media and communication sciences and be better prepared to contribute thoughtfully to discussions and debates in this field. We hope that this handout will serve as a valuable tool in your educational and professional endeavours, inspiring you to explore further and question more deeply the media that surrounds us.

Sincerely,
PR Karim Belkaci
Professor at the faculty of information and communication sciences
University of Algiers3
[06.06.2024]

DESCRIPTION

University of Algiers 3

Faculty: Information and Communication Sciences

Department: Communication Sciences

Course Information

- o **Program:** License Degree
- o **Type:** Common Core Human Sciences
- o **Target Audience:** First-Year Students
- o **Semester:** First & Second
- o **Teaching Unit:** Fundamental
- o **Subject:** Introduction to information and communication sciences
- o **Coefficient:** 2
- o **Credit Value:** 5
- o **Class Timing:** 1 hour 30 minutes per session
- o **Duration:** 14 weeks

Teacher Details

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OBJECTIVES

This course is designed to equip first-year students with a foundational theoretical framework in communication and information sciences, with a particular focus on key normative media theories, including the **authoritarian, libertarian, Soviet, and social responsibility** models. By examining these and other seminal theories, along with the contributions of pivotal scholars—such as Harold Lasswell, Kurt Lewin, Paul Lazarsfeld, and Carl Hovland—the curriculum explores how different paradigms have shaped media systems and communication practices.

Through structured study across the first and second semesters, students will:

1. Define and Analyze Core Concepts

- Comprehend the fundamental meaning of communication and its associated terminology.
- Examine the essential components of the communication process.

2. Explore Communication Models and Typologies

- Investigate the significance of communication and its theoretical models.
- Differentiate the characteristics of various communication types.

3. Assess the Societal Role of Communication and Information

- Evaluate the necessity of communication and information in contemporary contexts.
- Analyze the function of media and technology in shaping communication dynamics.

4. Examine Media and Mass Communication Theories

- Study foundational theories in media and mass communication, including normative frameworks such as authoritarian, libertarian, Soviet, and social responsibility theories.
- Interpret these theories using schematic representations for enhanced clarity.

5. Apply Theories to Modern Media Landscapes

- Assess the continued relevance of mass communication theories in the digital and social media era.

By engaging with these objectives, students will develop a robust understanding of communication theories, their historical evolution, and their practical applications across diverse media and technological environments

TABLE OF CONTENTS

FOREWORD

DESCRIPTION

OBJECTIVES

TABLE OF CONTENT

CHAPTER ONE Foundations of Communication and Media Studies

Unit 1: Core Concepts in Communication

STARTER

- 1.1 Defining Communication
- 1.2 Media and Information: Key Definitions
- 1.3 Distinguishing Between Information and Communication

PRACTICE EXERCISE

Unit 2: Related Concepts and Terminologies

STARTER

- 2.1 Rumour vs. Propaganda
- 2.2 Misinformation and Disinformation
- 2.3 Publicity, Advertising, and Public Opinion

PRACTICE EXERCISE

Unit 3: Communication as an Academic Discipline

STARTER

- 3.1 Historical Foundations of Media Research
- 3.2 Early Pioneers: Contributions to the Field

PRACTICE EXERCISE

CHAPTER TWO Normative Theories of Media and Political Philosophy

Unit 1: Authoritarian Press Theory

STARTER

- 1.1 Society, State, and Individual in Authoritarian Systems

- 1.2 Truth and Authority in Authoritarian Media
- 1.3 Ownership and Media Control Mechanisms

PRACTICE EXERCISE

Unit 2: Libertarian Press Theory

STARTER

- 2.1 Philosophical Foundations of Libertarianism
- 2.2 Core Postulates of Libertarian Media
- 2.3 Evolving Notions of Liberty

PRACTICE EXERCISE

Unit 3: Social Responsibility Theory

STARTER

- 4.1 Origins in Western Democratic Thought
- 4.2 Economic, Institutional, and Professional Influences
- 4.3 Media Ownership and Ethical Journalism

PRACTICE EXERCISE

Unit 4: Soviet Communist Press Theory

STARTER

- 3.1 Marxist-Leninist Media Philosophy
- 3.2 Society and State in Soviet Media Theory
- 3.3 The Concept of "Liberty" in Communist Systems

PRACTICE EXERCISE

CHAPTER THREE Research Specializations in Media and Communication

Unit 1: Emergence of Media Studies

STARTER

- 1.1 Political Factors: Propaganda and War
- 1.2 Economic Factors: Advertising and Audience Studies

- 1.3 Academic Factors: Shift to Empirical Research
- 1.4 Cultural Factors: Media's Role in Society

PRACTICE EXERCISE

Unit 2: Foundational Theories and Scholars

STARTER

- 2.1 Harold Lasswell's Model of Communication
- 2.2 Carl Hovland's Persuasion Studies
- 2.3 Kurt Lewin's Gatekeeping Theory
- 2.4 Paul Lazarsfeld's Two-Step Flow Model

PRACTICE EXERCISE

REFERENCES

Introduction:

Welcome to the handout on Introduction to Media and Communication. In this handout, we will explore the fundamental concepts and theories that form the basis of the field of media and communication studies.

Moving on to Chapter 2, we will explore the theories in media and communication, including systems theory and the connection between media and political philosophy. We will discuss authoritarian press theory, libertarian press theory, and social responsibility press theory, shedding light on the different perspectives on media and its role in society.

Additionally, we will delve into the areas of research specialization in media and communication sciences, as well as the modern basics of media and communication theories, including the theories proposed by Harold Lasswell, Carl Hovland, Kurt Lewin, and Paul Lazarsfeld.

By the end of this handout, you will have a solid understanding of the key concepts and theories in media and communication studies, setting the stage for further exploration and analysis in this dynamic field.

CHAPTER ONE

Foundations of Communication & Media Studies

In Chapter One, we will delve into the general concepts that underpin communication and media. We will define communication and media, as well as explore the difference between information and communication. Additionally, we will discuss similar concepts such as rumour, propaganda, misinformation, publicity, advertising, and public opinion, highlighting the distinctions between these terms. Furthermore, we will examine communication as an independent field of study and explore the historical foundations of media and communication research, including the early pioneers of media studies.

Unit 1

Core Concepts in Communication

Learning objectives: By the end of this topic, you should be able to:

1. Explain what is meant by the word «communication» in general;
2. Identify the main elements in the communication process;
3. The difference between communication and information
4. the relationship between communication and other concepts in the field.

STARTER

- Why Study Communication?
- What do you think about the words Hybels and Weaver (1992),?
 - *To live is to communicate.*
 - *To communicate effectively is to enjoy life more fully.*

1- Communication concept:

The term *communication* originates from the Latin word *communis*, meaning "common" or "shared understanding." As such, communication constitutes a deliberate endeavor to establish mutual comprehension between a sender and a receiver (Schramm, 1965). The shared elements may encompass knowledge, experiences, thoughts, ideas, suggestions, opinions, or emotions.

For the purposes of this discussion, communication is defined as *the process of exchanging or sharing information, ideas, and feelings between a sender and a receiver*. Communication plays a fundamental role in all human activities, as every action—or inaction—conveys meaning. Human interaction is fundamentally shaped by communication, making it a cornerstone of social existence. Indeed, communication serves as the pivotal mechanism around which human life revolves.

1-2 Purpose of Communication:

Communication fulfills five primary functions: **to inform, to express emotions, to imagine, to influence, and to meet social expectations**. Each of these purposes corresponds to distinct forms of communication. Based on the preceding discussion, it can be concluded that communication serves multiple functions, including **information dissemination, education, entertainment, persuasion**, and related processes.

1-3 Process of Communication:

Communication is a **dynamic, recursive, and continuous** process. It encompasses not only the transmission and reception of messages but also the cultural norms, conventions, beliefs, and social rules that shape human interactions. The communication process is inherently **cyclical**, beginning with the sender and concluding with feedback, thereby completing the loop (Sambe, 2005).

According to Sambe (2005), communication involves **action, reaction, and interaction**, which can be broken down into the following key stages:

a. Stimulation

This initial phase occurs when the sender perceives a need to communicate. An external or internal stimulus triggers the intent to convey a message.

b. Encoding

At this stage, the sender formulates the message by converting thoughts, feelings, opinions, or ideas into a structured format. This may involve the use of **symbols, words, or visual representations**. Effective encoding is critical, as errors at this stage can distort the intended meaning and undermine the communication process.

c. Transmission

The encoded message is then transmitted to the receiver via a selected **channel** or medium, such as radio, television, print media (e.g., newspapers, magazines), or digital platforms.

d. Reception

In this phase, the receiver **detects and receives** the transmitted message. Successful reception depends on the clarity of the message and the accessibility of the chosen medium.

e. Decoding

Decoding refers to the receiver's **interpretation and comprehension** of the message. This involves processing the information, analyzing its meaning, and converting it into understandable language. Accurate decoding is essential for effective communication, as misinterpretation can lead to communication breakdown.

The process culminates in **feedback**, where the receiver responds, thereby allowing the sender to assess the effectiveness of the communication. This cyclical exchange reinforces the **interactive and ongoing** nature of human communication.

MODELS OF COMMUNICATION

ARISTOTLE'S COMMUNICATION MODEL

Aristotle, the renowned Greek philosopher, pioneered one of the earliest models of mass communication, known as **Aristotle's Model of Communication**. Developed before 300 B.C., this model emphasized the **critical role of the audience** in the communication process. Unlike later

models that address interpersonal exchanges, Aristotle's framework primarily focuses on **public speaking and rhetorical persuasion**.

Key Elements of Aristotle's Model

The model consists of five fundamental components:

1. **Speaker** – The individual delivering the message.
2. **Speech** – The content and structure of the message.
3. **Occasion** – The context or setting in which communication occurs.
4. **Audience** – The recipients of the message, whose perceptions shape its effectiveness.
5. **Effect** – The intended outcome or emotional/behavioral impact on the audience.

Aristotle argued that effective communication requires speakers to **tailor their speeches** according to the audience, occasion, and desired effect. This adaptive approach ensures persuasive influence and audience engagement.

The Speaker's Role in Public Communication

In Aristotle's model, the speaker holds a central position. A skilled orator must:

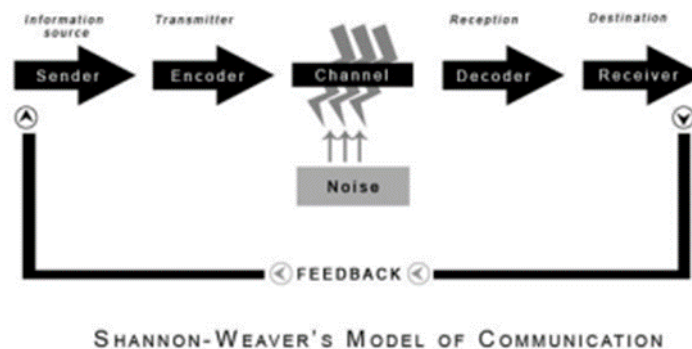
- **Prepare meticulously**, crafting speeches that align with audience expectations.
- **Analyze audience needs** to ensure relevance and persuasive power.
- **Employ rhetorical strategies** to shape audience perception and inspire action.

Illustrative Example: Alexander the Great's War Speech

A historical application of Aristotle's model can be observed in **Alexander the Great's address to his soldiers** before battle:

- **Speaker:** Alexander
- **Speech:** A motivational discourse on conquest and victory.
- **Occasion:** The battlefield (a high-stakes, emotionally charged setting).
- **Audience:** Soldiers requiring morale boost.
- **Effect:** Persuasion to fight fiercely and defeat the Persian Empire.

This example underscores how Aristotle's principles remain relevant in analyzing **real-world persuasive communication**.



SHANNON AND WEAVER MODEL OF COMMUNICATION (Mr. Linus M. Ngantem, 2023)

Shannon and Weaver significantly contributed to the systematic approach to the study of communication. Both theorists were engineers who sought to explain information exchange through cybernetic processes. They were the first to effectively model information, as they sought to explain how to attain precise and efficient signal transmissions in the realm of telecommunications. In their theory of information, Shannon and Weaver (1949) showed that the need to reduce uncertainty motivates individual's communication behavior. This concept was later extended by Berger and Calabrese (1975) in the development of URT. Information theory provided the connections from information to uncertainty and uncertainty to communication that facilitated the development of URT.

"Shannon & Weaver's (1949) approach stressed the conclusion that information is the number of messages needed to totally reduce uncertainty" (Heath & Bryant, 2000, p. 145). Individuals have a desire to reduce uncertainty and they are able to fulfill this need by increasing information. Individuals increase information through communication (Shannon & Weaver, 1949). These concepts are further explored in the examination of information-seeking strategies in URT.

- The Shannon-Weaver model, often regarded as the "*mother of all communication models*," was developed by **Claude Shannon**, an American mathematician and electronic engineer, and **Warren Weaver**, an American scientist. Originally conceived to enhance *technical communication*, the model aimed to optimize the transmission of electrical signals between locations. Its principles were later broadly applied to human communication, establishing it as a cornerstone in communication theory.

Key Components of the Shannon-Weaver Model

1. **Sender (Information Source):** The originator of the message, responsible for initiating communication.
2. **Encoder (Transmitter):** Converts the message into signals suitable for transmission (e.g., binary data, electromagnetic waves).
Example: In telephony, the encoder transforms vocal sounds into electrical signals for transmission via cables.
3. **Channel:** The medium through which encoded signals travel (e.g., cables, satellites, or radio waves).
4. **Noise:** Any interference disrupting signal integrity during transmission. Noise can be:
 - **Physical** (e.g., background sounds, static).
 - **Technical** (e.g., signal distortion in the channel).
Example: A phone call where the message "come here I want to see you" is corrupted, and only "I want" is received.
5. **Decoder:** Reverses encoding by converting signals back into a comprehensible message for the receiver.
Example: A telephone deciphers electrical signals into audible speech.
6. **Receiver (Destination):** The intended recipient of the message.

Example: Disrupted Communication

Component	Example
Sender	Thomson
Encoder	Thomson's telephone
Channel	Cable network
Noise	Transmission error (lost words)
Decoder	Assistant's telephone
Receiver	Assistant
Feedback	"What do you want, Thomson?"

Engineering Perspectives on Noise

1. Entropy:

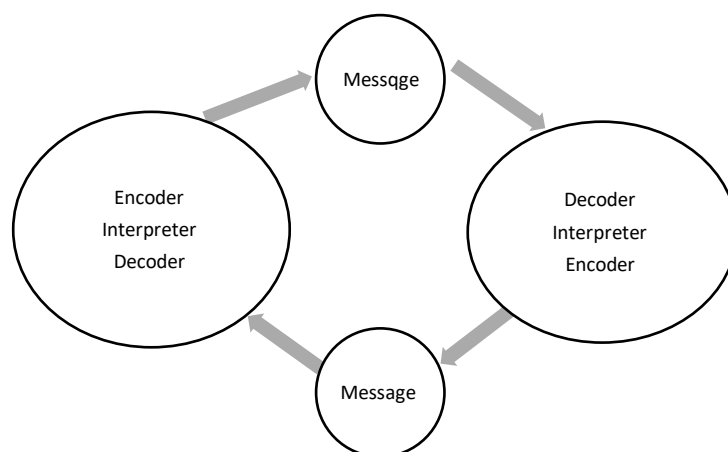
In mechanical systems, entropy refers to *unusable thermal energy* that introduces disorder, analogous to signal degradation in communication. For instance, overheating in electronic components can corrupt data transmission.

2. Redundancy:

- **Definition:** The deliberate duplication of critical system components to enhance reliability.
- **Application:** Aircraft hydraulic systems often triplicate parts to ensure fail-safe operation.
- **Paradox:** Excessive redundancy may *reduce* reliability by increasing system complexity, fostering neglect, or overburdening the system.

Critique and Legacy

While revolutionary, the model's linear structure (sender → receiver) has been critiqued for oversimplifying human communication, which often involves *simultaneous encoding/decoding* and cultural contexts. Nonetheless, its emphasis on **noise** and **signal fidelity** remains influential in fields ranging from telecommunications to cognitive science.



OSGOOD- SCHRAMM MODEL OF COMMUNICATION (Dr. Muhammadali. N, 2011)

It is a Circular Model, so that communication is something circular in nature

Encoder – Who does encoding or Sends the message (message originates)

Decoder – Who receives the message Interpreter – Person trying to understand (analyses, perceive) or interpret

Note: From the message starting to ending, there is an interpretation goes on. Based on this interpretation only the message is received.

This model breaks the sender and receiver model it seems communication in a practical way. It is not a traditional model.

It can happen within our self or two people; each person acts as both sender and receiver and hence use interpretation. It is simultaneously take place e.g. encoding, interpret and decoding.

Semantic noise is a concept introduced here it occurs when sender and receiver apply different meaning to the same message. It happens mostly because of words and phrases for e.g. Technical Language, So certain words and phrases will cause you to deviate from the actual meaning of the communication.

Note: When semantic noise takes place decoding and interpretation becomes difficult and people get deviated from the actual message

Advantages of the Osgood-Schramm Model

1. **Dynamic Nature** The model illustrates the non-linear, evolving process of communication, demonstrating how interpretations and contexts can shift during interaction.
2. **Emphasis on Redundancy** It highlights the importance of message repetition and reinforcement to ensure clarity and mutual understanding between communicators.
3. **Unified Sender-Receiver Roles** Unlike linear models, this framework posits that participants simultaneously encode and decode messages, reflecting the reciprocal nature of human communication.
4. **Circular Communication Process** The model conceptualizes communication as a continuous loop, emphasizing ongoing exchanges rather than a one-way transmission.

5. Centrality of Feedback Feedback is integral to the process, enabling real-time adjustments and co-creation of meaning between parties.

Limitations of the Osgood-Schramm Model

1. Omission of Semantic Noise The model does not account for semantic noise (e.g., misunderstandings due to language differences or cultural nuances), which can disrupt communication.
2. Assumption of Simultaneous Encoding/Decoding It presupposes that encoding and decoding occur seamlessly, overlooking potential asynchronies or delays in real-world interactions (e.g., in written or mass communication).

LASSWELL'S MODEL

Harold Dwight Lasswell, the American political scientist states that a convenient way to describe an act of communication is to answer the following questions:

- Who
- Says What
- In Which Channel
- To Whom
- With what effect?

This model is about process of communication and its function to society, According to Lasswell there are three functions for communication:

1. Surveillance of the environment
2. Correlation of components of society
3. Cultural transmission between generation

Lasswell model suggests the message flow in a multicultural society with multiple audiences. The flow of message is through various channels. And also, this communication model is similar to Aristotle 's communication model.

In this model, the communication component who refers the research area called Control

Analysis||,

Says what is refers to —Content Analysis‖,

In which channel is refers to —Media Analysis‖,

To Whom is refers to —Audience Analysis‖

With What Effect is refers to —Effect Analysis‖.

Types of Communication:

1. Verbal Communication

Verbal communication refers to the use of language governed by established grammatical and syntactic rules to convey emotions, express thoughts, and transfer information and meaning. Based on the modality of language use—whether spoken or written—verbal communication can be categorized into two primary forms: oral and written communication.

Oral Communication

Oral communication involves the transmission of messages through spoken language. It encompasses direct interpersonal exchanges (e.g., face-to-face dialogue), mediated interactions (e.g., telephone calls, video conferencing), and broadcast or digital communication (e.g., television, radio, or internet platforms such as Skype and WhatsApp).

Oral language is the most commonly employed mode of communication for several reasons:

- ✓ **Universality and Innateness:** Unlike written communication, oral expression does not necessitate literacy. All human beings possess an inherent capacity to acquire and use spoken language. This ability is attributed to what Noam Chomsky termed the Language Acquisition Device (LAD)—a hypothetical neurological mechanism that enables language learning through immersion in a socio-cultural environment.
- ✓ **Natural Language Acquisition:** Children acquire spoken language naturally through imitation and social interaction, without formal instruction.
- ✓ **Efficiency:** Speech is typically more immediate, rapid, and cost-effective than writing, making it suitable for spontaneous communication.

Advantages of Oral Communication:

1. Promotes transparency and mutual understanding
2. Enables instantaneous feedback and dynamic interaction
3. Offers flexibility and adaptability in dialogue
4. Conserves time and material resources
5. Facilitates collaborative and team-based activities
6. Supports confidential exchanges due to its ephemeral nature
7. Allows for swift conflict resolution
8. Engages participants through non-verbal cues (e.g., facial expressions and gestures)

Limitations of Oral Communication:

1. Lacks a permanent record, reducing verifiability of decisions
2. Susceptible to communication breakdowns due to individual speech impairments (e.g., stammering), limited language proficiency, or incoherence
3. Considered less reliable for formal documentation
4. May be time-consuming, especially in prolonged meetings
5. Requires high levels of attentiveness and active listening
6. Generally holds limited legal validity

Written Communication

Written communication involves encoding messages in textual form. This form of communication requires literacy and is typically acquired through structured educational systems. It provides a durable, verifiable record of information, making it suitable for formal, legal, or organizational contexts.

Visual and Audiovisual Communication

These modalities integrate visual elements (e.g., graphs, charts, images) and/or auditory stimuli to enhance the communication process. Audiovisual media are particularly effective in educational and mass communication contexts, combining the strengths of both oral and visual modes.

Silence as Communication

Silence, though often overlooked, constitutes a significant communicative act. It can convey emotions, establish boundaries, or signal disagreement, consent, contemplation, or resistance, depending on the context.

b. Written communication

- Communication is written in words or symbols and is transmitted via e-mail, letter, memo, etc.
- Many social media platforms based on Internet are available, where written communication is posted.
- Meant for mass circulation, instead for an individual written communication is most commonly used in business and its contents, vocabulary, style, precision and clarity are very important achieving its objective.

Advantages of Written Communication

- Permanent record and can be used as reference in future.
- Sender can write and re-write to make it error free before sending.
- Presence of the sender and the receiver is not required.
- Sometimes there are complex matters that cannot be talked over in a satisfactory manner.

In the written communication, complex matters can be explained.

- Being a written document, there are no chances of misconception.
- Message can be sent to a large number of people.

Disadvantages of Written Communication

- Time consuming.
- Require good command on the language
- Poorly written communication may create poor impression.
- Feedback is not instant.
- No personal touch.

2. Non-Verbal Communication

Communication is not exclusively dependent on spoken or written language. In many instances, meaning is conveyed without the use of words, through body movements, gestures, facial expressions, posture, and other non-verbal cues. These behaviors constitute **non-verbal communication**, which plays a central role in human interaction. Empirical studies suggest that non-verbal elements may constitute up to 93% of total communication, emphasizing their critical importance in interpreting messages accurately.

The primary categories of non-verbal communication include:

- **Kinesics:** the study of body movement, facial expressions, gestures, and posture.
- **Proxemics:** the use of physical space in interpersonal interactions.
- **Chronemics:** the role of time in communication (e.g., punctuality, pace).
- **Haptics:** the use of touch as a communicative tool.
- **Paralanguage:** vocal elements such as tone, pitch, volume, and intonation that accompany speech.
- **Silence:** the intentional or unintentional absence of verbal expression, often rich in communicative value.
- **Sign Language:** a fully developed system of visual communication, often used by individuals with hearing impairments.

Visual and Audiovisual Communication

The adage "*A picture is worth a thousand words*" underscores the power of **visual and audiovisual communication**. This mode combines imagery and sound to facilitate more effective message delivery, particularly in educational, promotional, and mass communication contexts.

Advantages:

- Broad popular appeal across demographics
- Enhances and supports spoken communication
- Facilitates the presentation of complex or abstract information
- Accessible and useful for low-literacy or rural populations
- Promotes efficiency and time-saving in information dissemination
- Accelerates the decision-making process
- Effective in public awareness campaigns

Limitations:

- Typically associated with higher production and dissemination costs
- Development and usage can be time-intensive
- May involve technical complexity
- Infrastructure-related challenges may limit accessibility

Silence as a Communicative Act

Though often overlooked, **silence** serves as a meaningful communicative tool. It may arise from emotional states such as anxiety, hesitation, or fear of negative consequences. Silence can express a range of intentions including agreement,

dissent, frustration, or contemplation. In certain contexts, it serves as a strategic form of communication—sometimes being more powerful than words.

Advantages:

- Helps prevent interpersonal conflict or embarrassment
- Demonstrates self-discipline and emotional restraint
- Can command respect and appreciation
- Provides time for reflection and thoughtful response
- May enhance message impact when used deliberately

Limitations:

- Risk of misinterpretation as social anxiety or shyness
- May be perceived as lack of confidence or competence
- Can invite ridicule or negative judgment
- May be seen as evasiveness or hidden intent

3. Non-Verbal Communication:

Non-verbal communication involves the transmission of messages without the use of spoken or written words. This mode of communication encompasses a wide range of behavioral cues such as gestures, posture, facial expressions, touch, spatial distance, and even silence. It frequently functions in conjunction with verbal communication to reinforce, substitute, or contradict spoken messages. Leaders and communicators often utilize non-verbal elements—particularly gestures and body language—to enhance their expressive effectiveness and influence audience perception.

Key Forms of Non-Verbal Communication:

1. **Kinesics (Body Language)**
2. **Facial Expressions**
3. **Posture**
4. **Gestures**
5. **Haptics (Touch)**
6. **Proxemics (Use of Space)**
7. **Eye Contact**
8. **Personal Appearance**

1. Kinesics (Body Language)

Kinesics refers to the study of body movements and physical behavior used to convey messages. It is a central component of non-verbal communication, encompassing posture, gestures, and other bodily cues. These movements can be deliberate or unconscious and often reveal emotional states, attitudes, and interpersonal dynamics. For example, a simple nod of the head typically signifies agreement or acknowledgment. Body language, being immediate and often involuntary, serves as a highly revealing mode of communication.

2. Facial Expressions

The face is the most expressive part of the human body. Facial expressions are capable of conveying a wide range of emotional states including **happiness, sadness, fear, anger, and surprise**. Observers often infer psychological states such as confidence, anxiety, fatigue, or confusion based on facial cues. For instance, a slack or expressionless face during a speech may suggest discomfort or disinterest. Because facial expressions are largely universal, they play a key role in cross-cultural communication.

3. Posture

Posture refers to how individuals position and hold their bodies while standing, sitting, or walking. It reflects one's emotional and psychological state. For example:

- An **open posture** (relaxed shoulders, direct orientation) often conveys friendliness, attentiveness, and confidence.
- A **closed posture** (crossed arms, downward gaze) may indicate defensiveness, disinterest, or negativity. Changes in posture can reflect nervousness, impatience, or engagement and are interpreted accordingly during interpersonal exchanges.

4. Gestures

Gestures are deliberate movements, primarily of the hands, arms, or face, used to communicate messages either alongside or in place of speech. Gestures fall into three primary categories:

- **Adaptors:** Self-directed or object-directed movements often associated with stress or anxiety (e.g., fidgeting).
- **Emblems:** Conventional gestures with direct verbal equivalents (e.g., a thumbs-up to indicate approval).

- **Illustrators:** Gestures that accompany speech to visually represent the spoken message (e.g., showing size or direction). These gestures may be conscious or unconscious, but even in unseen contexts (e.g., phone conversations), individuals often gesture instinctively.

5. Haptics (Touch)

Haptics pertains to communication through physical contact. Touch can convey emotions such as empathy, encouragement, support, or dominance. In educational or interpersonal contexts, for example, a pat on the back from a teacher can communicate encouragement more effectively than verbal praise. However, touch also carries ethical and cultural implications, requiring sensitivity to context and boundaries.

6. Proxemics (Use of Space)

Proxemics is the study of how physical space influences communication. Introduced by Edward T. Hall (1966), it categorizes spatial zones that reflect different types of interpersonal relationships:

- **Intimate Space (0 – 18 inches):** Reserved for close family, partners, or very close friends. Communication here involves physical contact like hugs or handshakes.
- **Personal Space (1.5 – 4 feet):** Used in interactions with friends, colleagues, and peers. The tone is usually relaxed and informal.
- **Social Space (4 – 12 feet):** Employed in more formal or professional contexts such as interviews, meetings, or conferences.
- **Public Space (12+ feet):** Utilized for public speaking, lectures, and official events (e.g., a political address).

Spatial behavior communicates a wealth of information about relationship dynamics, comfort levels, and social norms.

7. Eye Contact

Oculistics, or eye behavior, is a crucial aspect of non-verbal communication. Eye contact can regulate turn-taking in conversation, indicate interest or attention, express emotion, and establish dominance or submission. Sustained eye contact often reinforces verbal content, while lack of eye contact may be interpreted as insecurity, discomfort, or dishonesty. In many cultures, appropriate eye contact is fundamental to building trust and rapport.

8. Personal Appearance

Initial impressions are frequently shaped by **personal appearance**, which includes clothing, grooming, accessories, and overall presentation. The way an individual presents themselves can signal professionalism, confidence, and social belonging. In modern contexts, attire transcends functional needs to serve as a medium of self-expression and cultural affiliation.

Written Communication

- Any written message that two or more people exchange.
- Written communication is typically more formal but less efficient than oral communication.
- Examples
 - Letters
 - Emails
 - Notes
 - Texts
 - Billboards, etc.

4. Visual Communication

- Visual communication is delivering information, messages, and points by way of graphical representations, or visual aids.
- Using visual communication in addition to verbal, nonverbal, and written communication, create an effective way for message to be heard and understood.
- Examples
 - Slide presentations
 - Diagrams
 - Physical models
 - Drawings
 - Illustrations

PRACTICE EXERCISE

Compare and contrast information and communication with real-world examples.

Unit 2

Related Concepts & Terminologies

STARTER

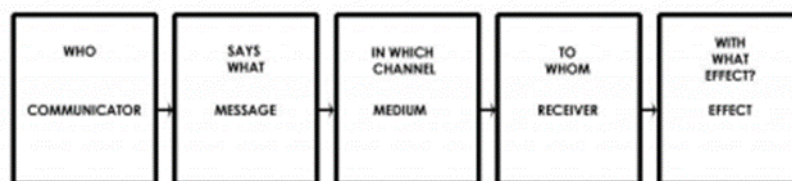
How Do Media Shape Perceptions?

2- information concept:

Information is a fact, thought or data conveyed or described through various types of communication, like written, oral, visual and audio communications. It is knowledge shared or obtained through study, instruction, investigation or news and you share it through the act of communicating, whether verbally, nonverbally, visually, or through written word. Information has different names, including intelligence, message, data, signal or fact. Knowing what type of information, you need or how to share it can help you save time, stay organized and establish best practices for divulging information.

In 1948, Shannon was an American mathematician, Electronic engineer and Weaver was an American scientist both of them join together to write an article in —Bell System Technical Journal‖ called —A Mathematical Theory of Communication‖ and also called as —ShannonWeaver model of communication‖. This model is specially designed to develop the effective communication between sender and receiver. Also they find factors which affecting the communication process called —Noise‖. At first the model was developed to improve the Technical communication. Later it's widely applied in the field of Communication.

The model deals with various concepts like Information source, transmitter, Noise, channel, message, receiver, channel, information destination, encode and decode.



Sender: The originator of message or the information source selects desire message.

Encoder: The transmitter which converts the message into signals.

Note: The sender's messages converted into signals like waves or Binary data which is compactable to transmit the messages through cables or satellites. For

example: In telephone the voice is converted into wave signals and it transmits through cables.

Decoder: The reception place of the signal which converts signals into message. A reverse process of encode

Note: The receiver converts those binary data or waves into message which is comfortable and understandable for receiver. Otherwise receiver can't receive the exact message and it will affect the effective communication between sender and receiver.

Receiver: The destination of the message from sender.

Note: Based on the decoded message the receiver gives their feedback to sender. If the message distracted by noise, it will affect the communication flow between sender and receiver.

Noise: The messages are transferred from encoder to decoder through channel. During this process the messages may distracted or affected by physical noise like horn sounds, thunder and crowd noise or encoded signals may distract in the channel during the transmission process which affect the communication flow or the receiver may not receive the correct message.

Note: The model is clearly deals with external noises only which affect the messages or signals from external sources. For example: If there is any problems occur in network which directly affect the mobile phone communication or distract the messages

LEVELS OF COMMUNICATION

Communication as a human and social process has been systematically categorized based on both the **social context** in which it occurs and the **technological mediums** utilized to facilitate its transmission. The primary types of communication encompass **intrapersonal**, **interpersonal**, **group**, **public**, and **mass communication**, each characterized by distinct interactional patterns, scope, and feedback mechanisms.

1. Intrapersonal Communication

Intrapersonal communication refers to the internal process of meaning-making that occurs within an individual. In this context, the communicator assumes a dual role as both sender and receiver of the message. This form of communication includes cognitive activities such as reflection, meditation, self-

talk, and internal dialogue. It is integral to self-awareness, identity construction, decision-making, and emotional regulation.

Communication theorist Leonard Shedletsky conceptualizes intrapersonal communication using the classic communication model (source, receiver, message, channel, feedback, environment, context, interference), highlighting its **transactional nature**—though all processes are confined within the individual (Shedletsky, 1989). For example, internal deliberation about whether to complete work or socialize with friends may involve the imagined voices of authority figures or peers.

Scholars Pearson and Nelson (1985) further note that intrapersonal communication encompasses strategic planning, problem-solving, internal conflict resolution, and evaluation—cognitive operations fundamentally shaped by prior social and linguistic experiences. Thus, even personal thoughts are constructed using the symbolic systems (language, norms, values) internalized through socialization.

2. Interpersonal Communication

Interpersonal communication involves direct interaction between two or more individuals. It is marked by **mutual influence**, **shared meaning**, and **reciprocal feedback**. This form of communication may be **verbal or non-verbal**, occurring in various relationships—familial, professional, educational, or casual.

While traditionally perceived as dyadic (e.g., teacher-student, employer-employee), interpersonal communication also extends to **small relational groups**. It is characterized by immediacy, emotional depth, and high feedback frequency, making it one of the most **effective and adaptive** forms of human communication. With the advent of digital platforms, interpersonal communication now occurs in both **face-to-face** and **mediated environments** (e.g., social media, messaging apps).

Core Elements:

- **Communicators:** All participants actively encode and decode messages in real-time.
- **Message:** Includes both linguistic content and non-verbal cues such as tone, facial expressions, and gestures.

- **Feedback:** Immediate and dynamic, ranging from verbal clarifications to subtle non-verbal indicators.
- **Noise:** Encompasses both physical and psychological barriers (e.g., environmental sounds, cultural misalignments, emotional distractions).

3. Group Communication

Group communication occurs within a collective of individuals—typically ranging from **5 to 20 members**—who interact to achieve shared objectives. Examples include families, work teams, committees, and social groups. This form of communication is situated between interpersonal and public communication in terms of scope and structure.

As group size increases, communication can shift from dialogic to **monologic**, diminishing individual participation and direct feedback. Factors such as **group dynamics**, **hierarchical roles**, **physical setting**, and **social relationships** shape the openness and effectiveness of communication within groups.

Essential Features:

- **Clarity of Purpose:** Ensures focus and alignment around goals.
- **Active Listening:** Fosters mutual understanding and collaborative synergy.
- **Openness and Transparency:** Builds group cohesion and trust.
- **Collaborative Problem-Solving:** Leverages diverse perspectives for innovation and conflict resolution.

Contexts of Use:

- **Team Meetings:** Coordination and decision-making.
- **Brainstorming Sessions:** Creative exploration of ideas.
- **Project Collaborations:** Cross-functional coordination and execution.

4. Public Communication

Public communication refers to the dissemination of messages from a **limited number of speakers** to a **large, physically present audience**. It is typically **one-directional**, with minimal direct interaction or feedback from the audience.

Feedback, when present, is generalized and indirect (e.g., applause, facial expressions).

Public speaking serves **informative**, **persuasive**, or **entertainment** purposes and is central to fields such as **education**, **politics**, **business**, and **public relations**. Events such as speeches, lectures, and ceremonial addresses exemplify this mode of communication.

Significance and Regulation:

Public communication has evolved significantly in the digital era. Regulatory bodies like the **Federal Elections Commission (FEC)** and the **Federal Communications Commission (FCC)** oversee the ethical and legal dimensions of public communication, particularly in political and commercial contexts. Communication via mass mailing, radio, TV, websites, or billboards may require disclaimers and adherence to content guidelines to ensure transparency and protect public interest.

5. Mass Communication

Mass communication is the process of creating and distributing messages to **large, diverse, and geographically dispersed audiences** through **mass media channels** such as newspapers, television, radio, the internet, and social media. This form of communication is largely **impersonal**, with messages often crafted by professionals and disseminated through technological infrastructures.

As a multidisciplinary field, mass communication intersects with journalism, advertising, public relations, health communication, political communication, and strategic media. Professionals in this domain are responsible for shaping public opinion, delivering information, and influencing behavior on a broad scale.

Distinctive Characteristics:

1. **Mass Medium:** Uses scalable platforms (TV, radio, digital media) to reach global audiences.
2. **Anonymity:** Communicators and receivers are typically unknown to each other.
3. **Delayed Feedback:** Interaction is indirect and often delayed, except in interactive platforms like social media.

4. **Gatekeeping:** Media professionals (e.g., editors, producers) regulate message flow and content.
5. **Limited Sensory Channels:** Primarily visual and auditory; lacks the richness of face-to-face interaction.
6. **Universal Access:** Intended for public consumption without demographic exclusion.
7. **Speed and Reach:** Capable of disseminating information globally in real-time.
8. **Mass Audience:** Messages are directed to vast, heterogeneous audiences.
9. **Transience:** Media content is ephemeral and rapidly replaced by new information.

Conclusion

The various forms of communication—ranging from internal dialogues to global media transmissions—represent a continuum of interaction shaped by **context, medium, intent, and audience size**. Understanding the theoretical and functional distinctions among **intrapersonal, interpersonal, group, public, and mass communication** is essential for researchers, practitioners, and students seeking to navigate and analyze human communicative behavior across personal, social, and institutional domains.

What are the main differences between communication and information?

These are the most prominent:

- ☐ The information is intended to publicize data, news or improve knowledge among users. Communication goes a step further, since in addition to transmitting messages, what is intended is that there is an interaction and a pooling for it to take place.
- ☐ Communication is a fundamental human need. It is the way you have to convey your emotions, thoughts or doubts, with the aim of reaching agreements that allow you to solve your problems or concerns.
- ☐ The information provides knowledge and data in order to obtain more critical thinking when dealing with and talking about certain topics.

- The information must always be up-to-date and be truthful when it is released to the public. On the other hand, with communication, all kinds of issues can be revealed regardless of whether they are novel facts or not.
- Communication is a process that allows human interaction to take place on a constant basis. If two or more people are not involved, it is not possible to carry it out.
- The information is intended to influence the opinions and behavior of the public to whom the message is directed.
- Communication improves social relationships. Its implementation means that norms, rules and agreements are established to be able to live in a balanced and organized way.
- Information is modern concept linked to means of new technology (press, radio, TV) what led it to be technology phenomenon (creation/content) opposite of communication, which has a social meaning linked to interaction concept that led it to be social phenomenon.
- The goals of information are limited, such as the goals of technological means, while the goals of communication are multiple and differ based on the multiplicity and difference of means.
- Communication is wide then information as technological phenomenon, therefore information is part of communication that it contains it and include it.
- Communication requires interaction between sender and receiver, which called feedback while information don't require the momentaneous interaction.

3- definition of media:

This is a term which covers all the means of communication which have functions such as informing, raising awareness, education, socialization, entertainment and agenda setting, including all kinds of oral, written and visual images.

The media is best defined by the roles they play in society. They educate, inform and entertain through news, features and analysis in the press. They also produce documentaries, dramas, current affairs programmes, public service announcements, magazine programmes and other forms of programming for radio and television. The media is a conduit through which voices, perspectives and lives are brought into the public sphere.

4- definition of some concepts related to communication and information:

4-1 Rumour definition:

Unverified piece of information which is not necessarily false; may turn out to be true also False information spread under the guise of being authentic news usually spread through news outlets or internet with an intention to gain politically or financially, increase readership, biased public opinion.

Consequences of Rumors

Rumors can have significant consequences at various levels, including personal, organizational, and societal. At a personal level, rumors can damage reputations, relationships, and emotional well-being. In organizations, rumors can disrupt productivity, erode trust among employees, and harm the overall work environment. On a larger scale, rumors can fuel panic, lead to social unrest, and even have political implications. It is crucial to address rumors proactively to mitigate their potential negative impact.

Prevention of Rumors

Preventing the spread of rumors requires a multi-faceted approach involving both individuals and organizations. Here are some strategies for rumor prevention:

1. **Promote Open Communication:** Foster an environment where open and transparent communication is encouraged. Establish channels for employees, community members, or stakeholders to express their concerns and seek accurate information.
2. **Educate and Raise Awareness:** Educate individuals about the consequences of rumors and the importance of verifying information before sharing it. Promote media literacy and critical thinking skills to help people evaluate the credibility of sources.
3. **Swiftly Address Misinformation:** Actively monitor and identify rumors as they emerge. Provide timely and accurate information to counter false narratives. Utilize official communication channels, such as press releases, social media announcements, or public statements, to address rumors promptly.
4. **Engage with the Community:** Establish a presence in the community and engage with key stakeholders. Build relationships based on trust and

credibility, so that when rumors arise, there is an established foundation for effective communication.

Management of Rumors

When rumors do arise, it is essential to manage them effectively to minimize their impact. Here are some strategies for rumor management:

1. **Listen and Understand:** Pay attention to the concerns and fears expressed by individuals affected by the rumor. Actively listen to their perspectives and address their questions and doubts empathetically.
2. **Verify and Provide Accurate Information:** Conduct thorough investigations to verify the accuracy of the rumor. Once verified, provide clear and accurate information to dispel misinformation and present the facts. Communicate the information through various channels to reach a wide audience.
3. **Engage with Influencers:** Identify key influencers within the community or organization who can help spread accurate information and counteract rumors. Engage them in the communication process to amplify the message and promote trust.
4. **Monitor and Respond:** Continuously monitor the conversation surrounding the rumor. Address any new developments or emerging concerns promptly and transparently. Being proactive in communication can help regain control of the narrative.
5. **Learn and Improve:** After managing a rumor, reflect on the experience and identify areas for improvement in communication processes and crisis management strategies. Use the lessons learned to strengthen future prevention and management efforts.

4-2. Definition and Dimensions of Propaganda

Scholars have broadly conceptualized propaganda as a deliberate and strategic process aimed at influencing, directing, and shaping individuals' opinions, attitudes, behaviors, and actions. This process may involve various techniques such as persuasion, manipulation, promotion, and indoctrination. Nevertheless, Bayer et al. have warned against overly inclusive definitions that tend to blur the distinction between legitimate persuasion—such as political campaigning—and manipulation, which implies coercion or deception.

Propaganda can thus be understood as a relatively systematic and intentional effort to shape or alter public beliefs and behaviors through symbolic

means. These symbols may include language, images, music, attire, monuments, gestures, or media artifacts such as stamps and currency. A key feature that differentiates propaganda from spontaneous communication lies in its purposive and manipulative nature. Propagandists operate with clear objectives and selectively present information and symbols in ways designed to maximize persuasive impact. This often involves omitting, distorting, or fabricating facts to maintain control over audience perception and attention.

Historical and Semantic Connotations

The term "propaganda" originates from the Roman Catholic Church's Congregatio de Propaganda Fide, established in 1622 to advance missionary activities. While the term may carry positive connotations within ecclesiastical contexts, in modern usage it often bears negative implications. It is frequently associated with deceitful political rhetoric, misleading advertising, and manipulative communication strategies, especially those employed during the World Wars or under totalitarian regimes, such as the Nazi Ministry of Public Enlightenment and Propaganda.

In Marxist-Leninist discourse, propaganda carries a distinct ideological significance. Russian theorists Georgy Plekhanov and Vladimir Lenin distinguished between *propaganda* and *agitation*. Lenin, particularly in his work *What Is to Be Done?* (1902), defined propaganda as the dissemination of rational, theoretical arguments intended for the educated classes, while agitation involved emotionally charged slogans and simplified messages directed at the broader, less informed public. The fusion of both strategies gave rise to the term agitprop, which became a cornerstone of communist communication structures.

Components of Propaganda Campaigns

Contemporary theories rooted in behavioral science propose a systematic framework for analyzing propaganda efforts. This framework consists of the following critical dimensions:

1. Goals – Determining the desired changes in opinion or behavior, as well as identifying the target audience and timeline.
2. Global Conditions – Evaluating the broader social and political environment.
3. Subsystem Conditions – Assessing specific contexts such as nations, regions, or social groups.

4. Disseminators – Identifying who should deliver the propaganda: originators or intermediaries.
5. Symbolism – Choosing effective signs and symbols.
6. Media Channels – Selecting the most appropriate communication media.
7. Target Audiences – Defining and segmenting the intended recipients.
8. Evaluation – Establishing methods to assess the impact.
9. Opposition and Resistance – Anticipating and responding to countermeasures.
10. Effectiveness of Countermeasures – Measuring the efficacy of resistance efforts.

Despite the structured approach, the effectiveness of major propaganda campaigns often remains uncertain, even with extensive research resources. Nonetheless, such a framework allows propagandists to make informed and strategic decisions.

Typologies of Propaganda

Propaganda manifests in various forms and can be classified based on its objectives, transparency, and fidelity to truth. According to Szanto (1978), it may serve either agitative purposes—mobilizing audiences toward specific political or social actions—or integrative aims, which seek to create conformity, passivity, or acceptance.

In terms of disclosure and accuracy, propaganda can be divided into three main types:

- **White Propaganda:** This type originates from an openly identified source and typically contains factual information. It is commonly employed during peacetime by official state broadcasters such as Voice of America (VOA) or Radio Moscow, where the aim is to build long-term credibility and align the audience with the sender's ideological stance.
- **Black Propaganda:** Here, the source is hidden or falsely attributed, and the information disseminated is intentionally deceptive. A historical example is Nazi Germany's use of a fake British radio station to demoralize the British public during WWII by broadcasting fabricated news and messages under the guise of domestic dissent.

- **Gray Propaganda:** This category falls between white and black propaganda. The origin may be ambiguous, and the content may blend truth and misinformation. During the Bay of Pigs invasion in 1961, the U.S. government's denial of involvement—despite CIA coordination—illustrates gray propaganda. Similarly, both Radio Free Europe's fundraising campaigns and Soviet portrayals of the Afghan conflict relied on partially truthful but misleading narratives to sway public opinion.

Gray propaganda is often instrumental in damaging an adversary's image without overtly revealing the source or intent. For example, Radio Moscow highlighted civil unrest and assassinations in the U.S., while American media did the same regarding Soviet actions in Eastern Europe and Afghanistan.

4-3 disinformation definition:

Deliberately deceptive information with a predefined intention

Disinformation: Definition and Context

Disinformation refers to intentionally false or deceptive information, often disseminated strategically by governments or intelligence agencies as part of covert political operations aimed at manipulating public opinion or weakening adversaries. According to Shultz and Godson (1984, p. 41), disinformation comprises false, incomplete, or distorted data deliberately transmitted to individuals, groups, or states with the intent of influencing their perceptions and behaviors.

This phenomenon is closely associated with propaganda, which involves the strategic dissemination of information—whether accurate or not—designed to advance specific ideological or political agendas. Totalitarian regimes, such as that of North Korea, are known for employing propagandistic disinformation to enhance internal legitimacy and discredit external opponents. A notable contemporary example includes the U.S. State Department's accusation against China, alleging that the latter orchestrated a digital disinformation campaign during the COVID-19 pandemic, falsely attributing the virus's origin to the United States.

Historically, disinformation has also been embedded within journalistic practices. For instance, Walter Duranty, a New York Times correspondent in Moscow during the Stalin era, was implicated in systematically spreading false narratives aligned with Soviet interests. Despite being awarded a Pulitzer Prize

in 1932, Duranty was later criticized for minimizing and denying the Ukrainian famine of 1933, which led to the death of over six million people, thus exemplifying the ethical dangers of disinformation masquerading as credible journalism.

Misinformation: Definition and Scope

Misinformation, in contrast, denotes false or inaccurate information shared without the intent to deceive. It typically results from human error, misinterpretation, or cognitive biases, and is often propagated unknowingly. For instance, individuals may repeat information they have misheard or misremembered from media sources or social platforms. While unintentional, such information can still produce significant harm, particularly when disseminated widely and uncritically.

Unlike disinformation, misinformation does not arise from malicious intent but from innocent mistakes or epistemological limitations. This distinction is crucial, particularly in contemporary academic efforts to analyze the origins and effects of false information in society.

Scholarly Review of Misinformation and Its Effects

To address the broader implications of misinformation, a comprehensive interdisciplinary analysis is needed. While some attempts have been made to map its effects across domains, the academic literature remains fragmented. Current reviews draw from diverse fields such as computer science, journalism, law, psychology, philosophy, and political science, utilizing keywords like “misinformation,” “fake news,” “hoax,” “rumor,” “satire,” and “disinformation.”

In examining the societal consequences of misinformation, researchers have identified four primary domains of impact:

1. Media

The media's vulnerability to misinformation is contingent upon the audience's ability to discern factual content from falsehoods and biased narratives. Empirical research has shown that although some individuals can detect misinformation, many are susceptible to confirmation biases and partisan framing, which hinders accurate information processing.

2. Politics

Misinformation poses a profound threat to democratic governance, as an uninformed or misinformed electorate undermines informed policy-making and civic engagement. Scholars such as Kuklinski et al. (2000) argue that democracy cannot function effectively when public discourse is based on inaccurate or misleading premises.

3. Science

Within scientific discourse, misinformation—particularly in health communication (e.g., vaccine hesitancy) and climate change denial—can distort public understanding and erode trust in scientific authorities. Studies by Lewandowsky et al. (2017) and Kahan (2017) highlight how ideological beliefs and motivated reasoning influence the reception of scientific information.

4. Economics

The economic implications of misinformation are both direct and indirect. Financial markets can be destabilized by rumors and false claims (Kogan et al., 2021), while public and private sectors incur costs through efforts to debunk falsehoods, combat digital fraud, and regulate online content (Gradón, 2020; Southwell & Thorson, 2015).

Psychological and Behavioral Impacts of Misinformation

At the individual level, the psychological processing of misinformation is central to understanding its societal influence. Cognitive psychology research explores how belief formation, memory biases, and reasoning errors contribute to the internalization of falsehoods. Experimental studies confirm that misinformation can significantly alter beliefs, although the direct translation of belief into behavior is complex and not always linear.

Scholars caution against simplistic causal assumptions that equate belief with behavior. The interaction between cognition, intention, and contextual factors must be considered, as proposed by theorists such as Ajzen (1991), whose Theory of Planned Behavior suggests that beliefs influence behavior only in combination with attitudinal, normative, and control-related variables.

Thus, while misinformation undoubtedly shapes perceptions, its behavioral effects require further empirical exploration, especially in high-stakes domains like health compliance, voting behavior, and economic decision-making.

4.5 Advertising definition:

The term advertising is derived from the Latin word, „advertere“ which means to turn attention towards a specific thing.¹ Advertising simply means a public announcement. But, nowadays, the functions of advertisements go beyond announcements as they persuade the prospective buyer, remind the existing buyers, create demand, brand preference and brand loyalty; apart from neutralising the effects of the advertisements of the competitors. Advertising is aimed at a group of persons and not an individual. These groups of persons are not the general public; but the target audience who are also the potential customers. In advertising, unlike personal selling, immediate feedback cannot be taken. Thus, it is a paid form of non-personal way of communication with a group of target audience through mass media like television, newspapers, magazines, radio, internet et al.

Definitions:

1. American Marketing Association: Advertising is a paid form of non-personal presentation and promotion of goods, services or ideas by an identified sponsor.
2. Philip Kotler: Advertising is a non-personal form of communication conducted through paid media under clear sponsorship.
3. John J. Myers: Advertising is dissemination of information concerning an idea, service or product to compel action in accordance with the interest of the advertiser.
4. John Kennedy: Advertising is the substitute of human salesman.
5. David Ogilvy: Advertising means to develop favourable brand image to enlarge market share and to increase the profits of the organisation in the long run.

Features of Advertising:

1. **Paid form:** Advertising is never free of cost. The company issuing an advertisement has to pay the media. The scale of payment depends on media-circulation, type of media and media popularity.

Advertisements appear in newspapers, radio and television because the advertisers have purchased the space or time to communicate information to the target audience or, in other words, prospective customers.

2. Non-personal: Advertising has no face to face contact with the buyers; and as such it is called non-personal salesmanship. Here, the message is transmitted to the target audience with the help of mass media like newspapers, magazines, radio, television or internet; and not through direct inter-personal communication.

3. Promotion of ideas: Advertising is not only the promotion of goods and services, but also of ideas.

4. Identified sponsor: Advertising is done by an identified sponsor. The sponsor could be the producer or the trader. The identity of the sponsor is mentioned in the advertisement. This indicates that the advertisement attributes the source for the ideas and opinion it presents.

5. Influence buyer's behaviour: Advertisements influence the attitudes and behaviour of the buyers in favour of the advertised products or services.

6. Element of marketing mix: The four major elements of marketing mix are product, promotion, price and place. Advertising is an important part of „promotion“. Without proper promotion, other elements of the marketing mix cannot achieve their desired objectives.

7. Promotion mix: Advertising is one of the four elements of promotion mix; the other three being personal selling, sales promotion and publicity. It is the most cost-effective method of promotion as it creates demand, stimulates sales and reaches the target audience quickly and effectively.

Forms of Advertising Media

Advertising utilizes a broad range of media formats to disseminate its messages. Common forms include:

- **Print media**, such as newspapers and magazines;
- **Broadcast media**, including radio and television;
- **Circulated promotional materials**, whether distributed by mail, hand-delivery, through sales representatives, or enclosed within product packaging;

- **Dealer support tools**, which assist intermediaries in promoting the brand;
- **Point-of-sale displays**, such as window arrangements and counter visuals;
- **Retail signage** and **advertising films** or motion pictures designed for commercial messaging.

Main Objectives of Advertising

Advertising serves three core functions, each contributing to the achievement of broader marketing and organizational goals:

1. To Inform

The primary function of advertising is to **create awareness** about a brand and its offerings. By introducing new products, services, or features to the target audience, advertising helps potential customers become familiar with the brand, thereby laying the foundation for market engagement.

2. To Persuade

A central objective of advertising is to **influence consumer behavior**. This may involve encouraging individuals to purchase or try a product, shaping a positive brand image, or fostering a favorable attitude toward the brand. Persuasive advertising aims to position the brand competitively within the market.

3. To Remind

Advertising also serves to **reinforce brand recognition and loyalty**. It reminds existing and prospective customers of the brand's values and presence, helping maintain customer engagement and reduce the risk of losing market share to competitors. This continual reinforcement can also support **word-of-mouth promotion**.

Other aims of advertising—often considered extensions of these three pillars—include:

- *Brand development*
- *Sales growth*
- *Demand creation*
- *Customer engagement*
- *Market expansion*

- *Shaping consumer attitudes*

Specific Objectives of an Advertising Program

In practical terms, an advertising strategy may seek to achieve the following:

1. **Stimulate Sales:** Targeted at current, former, and potential consumers, advertising aims to generate or renew purchase interest. This includes strategic decisions regarding the most suitable advertising media (e.g., television vs. print).
2. **Facilitate Communication:** Advertising delivers key messages to consumers, which entails decisions about the content, tone, and style of the advertising copy.
3. **Foster Loyalty:** Advertising can reassure existing customers that their purchasing decisions were sound, thereby strengthening brand loyalty and encouraging repeat patronage.
4. **Enhance Organizational Support:** Well-crafted advertising can improve morale among sales teams and distribution partners (wholesalers and retailers) by projecting confidence and momentum in the brand.
5. **Promote Corporate Image:** Advertising is also used to build a **positive public image** of the organization. This form of institutional advertising targets not only consumers but also stakeholders such as investors, government bodies, and the wider public, fostering perceptions of credibility and trustworthiness.

Mass Communication: An Academic Overview

Definition and Scope Mass communication refers to the process of disseminating messages to a vast, dispersed, and heterogeneous audience through mechanical or technological means. It typically involves communication tools such as books, newspapers, magazines, cinema, radio, television, and the internet. These tools enable communication on a scale far exceeding interpersonal or group communication. Scholars like Daniel Lerner described mass media as "mobility multipliers," while Wilbur Schramm referred to them as "magic multipliers" for their power to extend communication reach exponentially.

Conceptual Definitions

- **DeFleur & Dennis:** Mass communication is a process where professional communicators utilize media to transmit messages widely, rapidly, and continuously to evoke intended responses from a broad and diverse audience.
- **Orlik:** It entails the rapid dissemination of identical content to large, dispersed audiences using mechanisms capable of such distribution.
- **Berge:** Mass communication uses print and electronic platforms to convey information to vast audiences distributed across varied geographical locations.

Key Features

1. Communication targets large audiences.
2. The audience is heterogeneous and generally anonymous.
3. Messages are publicly transmitted.
4. There is minimal or delayed feedback.
5. The cost per exposure is relatively low.
6. The source is usually an institution or professional communicator.
7. Typically one-way communication.
8. Involves selection mechanisms—media select audiences and vice versa.
9. Media have wide-reaching capabilities.
10. Operates within societal institutions responsive to environmental dynamics.

Elements of the Process

- **Source:** Often an institution or expert initiating the message.
- **Message:** Reproduced in communicable formats—articles, talks, plays, documentaries, etc.
- **Channel:** Includes both print (books, newspapers) and electronic (radio, TV, internet) media.

- **Receiver:** The mass audience—diverse individuals unified by shared interest in the content.
- **Feedback:** Primarily indirect—through surveys, audience reactions, and expert reviews.
- **Gatekeeping:** Content undergoes selection and editorial processes to meet institutional or audience standards.
- **Noise:** Can be channel-related (technical issues) or semantic (language and cultural barriers).

Types of Mass Communication

- **Advertising:** Seeks to induce purchasing behaviors.
- **Journalism:** Involves news reporting and analysis.
- **Public Relations:** Influences public opinion regarding organizations or products.
- **Broadcasting:** Provides informative and entertaining content via audio-visual means.

Functions of Mass Communication

1. **To Inform:** Disseminates global and local information to keep the public updated.
2. **To Entertain:** Provides amusement and mental relaxation through music, films, comics, etc.
3. **To Persuade:** Promotes products, services, or ideas, often influencing public opinion.
4. **Transmission of Culture:** Shares societal norms and values across generations.

Functions of Mass Media

- **Surveillance:** Collects and disseminates information about societal and global events.
- **Correlation/Interpretation:** Helps citizens make sense of information via editorials and analysis.
- **Socialization:** Transmits cultural values and social norms.

- **Entertainment:** Offers content for amusement and stress relief.
- **Marketing:** Serves as a platform for advertisements, influencing consumer behavior.
- **Watchdog Function:** Exposes societal issues, corruption, and malpractices.
- **Status Conferral:** Grants recognition and legitimacy to individuals and ideas.
- **Message Reinforcement:** Stabilizes existing beliefs and supports social continuity.

Mass communication is a complex, institutionalized process with extensive reach and impact. It plays a critical role in informing, persuading, entertaining, and educating society, while also reinforcing cultural values and driving social change. As such, understanding its mechanics, functions, and implications is essential in today's information-driven world.

PRACTICE EXERCISE

Analyze a news piece to identify potential misinformation or propaganda techniques

Unit 3

Communication as an Academic Discipline

STARTER

The Birth of Media Studies

The History of Communication and Media Studies

Definition and Scope Mass communication denotes the systematic process by which information, ideas, and messages are transmitted to large, dispersed, and heterogeneous audiences through various technological and institutional media. These include print (e.g., books, newspapers, magazines) and electronic channels (e.g., radio, cinema, television, internet). Scholars such as Daniel Lerner described mass media as "mobility multipliers," while Wilbur Schramm characterized them as "magic multipliers" due to their expansive communicative reach.

Conceptual Foundations

- **DeFleur & Dennis:** Mass communication involves professional communicators employing media channels to transmit messages broadly, swiftly, and repeatedly to elicit intended responses from vast and diverse audiences.
- **Orlik:** Defines it as the swift transmission of identical content to geographically and demographically diverse audiences via technology.
- **Berge:** Emphasizes the utilization of print and electronic platforms to distribute information to audiences scattered across large areas.

Core Characteristics

1. Targets extensive audiences.
2. Audiences are heterogeneous and largely anonymous.
3. Content is publicly disseminated.
4. Feedback is minimal or temporally delayed.
5. Economically efficient on a per-recipient basis.
6. Messages originate from professional institutions or individuals.
7. Largely unidirectional flow of information.
8. Incorporates selection mechanisms—media select content and audiences reciprocally select platforms.

9. Channels possess broad outreach capabilities.
10. Operates within dynamic socio-institutional frameworks.

Constituent Elements

- **Source:** Typically an institution or specialist initiating the communicative process.
- **Message:** Material conveyed in textual, audiovisual, or symbolic form.
- **Channel:** Print (books, newspapers) or electronic (television, radio, digital media) conduits.
- **Receiver:** Mass audiences—diverse individuals connected through shared interest or exposure.
- **Feedback:** Indirect and primarily assessed via surveys, audience metrics, or critical evaluations.
- **Gatekeeping:** Editorial selection and regulatory filtration of content.
- **Noise:** Encompasses technical disruptions or semantic/cultural misalignments.

Domains of Mass Communication

- **Advertising:** Aims to influence consumer behavior and generate demand.
- **Journalism:** Concerned with factual reporting, analysis, and information dissemination.
- **Public Relations:** Seeks to construct favorable public perception of entities or causes.
- **Broadcasting:** Delivers audiovisual content for information and entertainment purposes.

Functional Dimensions

1. **Informative:** Disseminates timely and relevant knowledge.
2. **Entertainment:** Offers leisure and recreational content.
3. **Persuasive:** Attempts to modify attitudes, beliefs, or behaviors.
4. **Cultural Transmission:** Facilitates intergenerational transfer of societal norms and values.

Mass Media Functions

- **Surveillance:** Gathers and reports societal and global developments.
- **Correlation/Interpretation:** Frames and contextualizes events and issues.
- **Socialization:** Reinforces shared cultural standards and societal integration.
- **Entertainment:** Provides distraction, pleasure, and emotional relief.
- **Marketing:** Acts as a medium for commercial advertising and branding.
- **Watchdog Role:** Investigates and publicizes systemic failures or corruption.
- **Status Conferral:** Affords legitimacy and visibility to individuals, ideas, or movements.
- **Message Stabilization:** Reinforces dominant ideologies and belief systems.

Historical Evolution of the Field

1. Pre-Institutional Phase (1870–1939) The scholarly exploration of communication originated in the late 19th century, with roots in political economy and early sociology. Newspapers and emerging media became focal points of inquiry in Germany, France, and the United States. Early thinkers examined the interplay between communication, mass society, and infrastructure. Contributions included Max Weber's theoretical project on the press, A.A. Tenney's content analysis at Columbia University, and Robert Park's sociological investigations at the University of Chicago.

In 1916, Bücher founded the first academic press institute at the University of Leipzig, integrating political economy, sociology, and historical methods. American journalism schools, although established, primarily focused on professional training rather than academic inquiry.

World War I and the Russian Revolution foregrounded propaganda research. In the U.S., Harold Lasswell conducted empirical studies while John Dewey and Walter Lippmann contributed philosophical perspectives. Concurrently, film studies gained traction, with projects sponsored by the League of Nations and the Payne Fund.

Significant figures like Rudolf Arnheim, Kurt Lewin, and George Herbert Mead laid foundations for group communication and media psychology. The Austrian sociologist Paul Lazarsfeld pioneered empirical audience studies, while the Frankfurt School—represented by Theodor Adorno and colleagues—offered critical-theoretical alternatives. Lazarsfeld’s Bureau of Applied Social Research at Columbia, supported by philanthropic and government funding, catalyzed the emergence of “communications research.”

Literary scholars also turned attention toward media. In the U.S., the field of speech communication diverged from English departments by 1915. F.R. Leavis and Queenie Leavis, based in Cambridge, analyzed media through literary criticism. Their influence extended to figures such as Marshall McLuhan and Raymond Williams, who would later revolutionize media theory.

2. Institutionalization Phase (1940–1968) World War II accelerated the formalization of communication studies. U.S. scholars engaged in wartime information agencies, refining methodologies such as content analysis, focus groups, surveys, and experimental designs. This effort extended into the Cold War, with communication studies positioned as a strategic domain in global ideological contests. Funding from U.S. foundations like Rockefeller and Ford supported academic development at home and abroad.

Wilbur Schramm, heavily influenced by Lazarsfeld, founded leading research institutes at the University of Illinois (1948) and Stanford University (1956), producing influential anthologies and graduate training programs. Institutions such as the University of Chicago and University of Pennsylvania (via the Annenberg School, est. 1959) emerged as prominent academic centers.

Internationally, Louis Guttman established the Israel Institute of Applied Social Research (1947), and Elihu Katz became instrumental in Israeli communication scholarship from 1956. In Europe, researchers revived prewar traditions and launched new ventures: Finland inaugurated a chair in newspaper science in 1947; Kurt Baschwitz initiated the Dutch Institute for the Science of the Press (1948); and Germany institutionalized Publizistik in major universities. The Hans Bredow Institute (Hamburg, est. 1950) became a critical hub for media research.

Diverse methodological perspectives coexisted. While Lazarsfeld’s empirical, quantitative approach dominated, critical theorists like Adorno and Elisabeth Noelle-Neumann (Allensbach Institut, 1947) applied sociological and

philosophical lenses. Jürgen Habermas, influenced by Adorno, published his foundational work *The Structural Transformation of the Public Sphere* in 1962 following early empirical studies.

Mass communication has evolved through complex, interdisciplinary trajectories—merging empirical social science with critical cultural analysis. From its origins in early political economy to its global institutional presence post-WWII, the field has developed as a pivotal site for understanding media, culture, and society. Its ongoing relevance lies in addressing contemporary challenges in democratic participation, cultural exchange, and technological transformation.

Who are the forefathers of mass communication theory?

Harold Lasswell, Paul Lazarsfeld, Kurt Lewin, and Carl Hovland

- Each contributed to future researchers and communication studies
- Their research methods are still studied today

How/what did Harold Lasswell contribute to mass comm?

- Established content analysis (qualitative and quantitative)
- Political scientist
- Focused on war propaganda
- Saw it as a way to avoid violence and coercion
- Also found it to be a way for powerful people to expand their reach
- Made ppl question the future of politics and pay close attention to trends

According to Lasswell, communication need a long-term well developed campaign strategy

1. Harold Lasswell and the Strategic Function of Communication

Harold Lasswell, a pioneering figure in communication studies, emphasized the necessity of a meticulously structured and long-term communication campaign strategy. According to Lasswell, effective communication—particularly in the form of propaganda—extends beyond the simplistic manipulation of media to temporarily mislead the public. Instead, he argued that enduring influence requires a gradual preparation of the audience to accept transformative ideas and behaviors.

Lasswell introduced the concept of the "multiplication of stimuli," wherein new messages and symbols are systematically introduced and cultivated over time. He maintained that communicators should not only disseminate information but also actively shape the emotional and cognitive frameworks of their audiences.

Central to Lasswell's theory is the idea of the "master symbol," a symbol deeply associated with strong emotional responses. When strategically developed and deployed, these symbols can mobilize large-scale and constructive mass actions. To achieve this, communicators must design symbols and methodically associate them with specific emotions, such as love, loyalty, or hate. If these associations are cultivated successfully, they give rise to what Lasswell called master or collective symbols (Lasswell, 1934).

Lasswell further asserted that these influential symbols could be conveyed through a variety of expressive forms—spoken, written, pictorial, or musical. The range of possible media channels for communicating these stimuli is virtually limitless, reinforcing the idea that propaganda can be effectively transmitted through diverse formats.

His framework laid the foundation for strategic communication practices adopted by major institutions. For instance, the U.S. Office of War Information implemented Lasswell's propaganda-for-good strategy during World War II, illustrating the practical application of his theories in shaping public opinion and national morale.

Lasswell's contributions underscore the importance of emotional resonance, symbolic meaning, and strategic planning in mass communication, positioning him as a foundational theorist in the study of propaganda and political communication.

How/what did Paul Lazarsfeld contribute to mass comm?

- Impacted the organization of social research
- Founded Columbia University's Bureau of Applied Social Research
- His work determined how social research could be done effectively

2- Paul Lazarsfeld:

- The study of the 1940 election campaign:

In 1940, Lazarsfeld , Berelson and Gaudet conducted the first full-scale investigation of the effects of political mass communication. Their research focused on the 1940 Presidential election campaign and their findings were published in 1944 in *The People's Choice* after more research had been conducted.

- The importance of social influence

Their research was originally based on something like the simplistic hypodermic needle model of media influence, whereby it was assumed that a message would be transmitted from the mass media to a 'mass audience', who would absorb the message. However, their investigations suggested that media effects were minimal, that the conception of a 'mass audience' was inadequate and misguided and that social influences had a major effect on the process of opinion formation and sharply limited the media's effect.

- Limited effects

The study by Lazarsfeld et al concluded that only some 5% of people changed their voting behaviour as a result of media messages. Their exposure to election broadcasts turned out to be a relatively poor predictor of their voting behaviour, particularly when compared with other factors such as their interpersonal communication with friends, union members, business colleagues and the political tradition they had grown up in. This view of media effects was confirmed in a variety of other investigations and came to be known as the 'limited effects paradigm' of media influence.

How/what did Kurt Lewin contribute to mass comm?

- Considered founder of social psychology
- Someone who studied behaviors and interactions within a social group
- Redefined how small group interactions can help organizations work effectively to achieve goals.

Kurt Lewin: Group dynamics is the study of groups, and also a general term for group processes. Relevant to the fields of psychology, sociology, and communication studies, a group is two or more individuals who are connected to each other by social relationships.

Because they interact and influence each other, groups develop a number of dynamic processes that separate them from a random collection of

individuals. These processes include norms, roles, relations, development, need to belong, social influence, and effects on behavior. The field of group dynamics is primarily concerned with small group behavior. Groups may be classified as aggregate, primary, secondary and category groups.

In organizational development (OD), or group dynamics, the phrase "group process" refers to the understanding of the behaviour of people in groups, such as task groups, that are trying to solve a problem or make a decision. An individual with expertise in 'group process, such as a trained facilitator, can assist a group in accomplishing its objective by diagnosing how well the group is functioning as a problem-solving or decision-making entity and intervening to alter the group's operating behaviour.

Because people gather in groups for reasons other than task accomplishment, group process occurs in other types of groups such as personal growth groups (e.g. encounter groups, study groups, prayer groups). In such cases, an individual with expertise in group process can be helpful in the role of facilitator.

Groups and Political Attitudes: Those study showed a strong tendency for people to vote the same way as the members of their primary groups. The family is one of the most important of those primary groups. The influence of the family is indicated by the fact that 75 percent of the first voters in the Elmira study voted the same way their father did.

How/what did Carl Hovland contribute to mass comm?

- Psychology who studied attitude change and persuasion
- Worked for U.S. government and studied the 'Why We Fight' training films and how they affected motivation and morale in soldiers
- Created program at Yale where he studied presenting arguments, behavior influences, attitude change
- Discovered sleeper effect relating to persuasion
- Defined as a delayed increase of the effect of a message accompanied by a discounting cue after an initial message has been received

Carl Hovland:

Carl Hovland is a research psychologist, and one of the great founders of the science of communication (along with Harold Laswell, Paul Lasswell, and

Kurt Lewin, who were mentioned previously). He worked in the field of persuasion and attitude change at Yale University. During World War II, the American government asked Karl Hovland to study the impact of political propaganda and evaluate the impact of American propaganda films (Why Do We Fight?) on American soldiers.

Hovland and his colleagues' research focused on studying attitudes and their role in shaping behavior, and its impact on the persuasion process.

What is the trend?

Attitude: An individual's relatively long-term evaluation of a particular idea, issue, or person.

For example, the attitude of a Algerian citizen towards China and the Chinese industry, or the direction of an American person towards Islam and Muslims, or the direction of a Algerian citizen towards America, Britain, Russia, etc.

Hovland says: If what is required is to change the behavior of a particular person, the attitude must be changed first.

In the studies of Hovland and his colleagues at Yale University, there was a focus on four factors that could affect the success of the persuasion process.

These are the four main elements of communication:

The source, the message, the medium, and the receiver.

The most important results are the following:

1- the source: The probability of persuasion increases if the source is reliable (i.e. has high credibility and has experience in the subject), and if it is likable, attractive, and close in its characteristics to the receiver.

2- the message: the probability of persuasion increases in the following cases:

A- Presenting the opinion and the opposing opinion, then responding to the opposing opinion. Meaning that presenting only one opinion, ignoring the existence of an opposing opinion, and responding to it, weakens persuasion.

B - Presenting the strong arguments first or last, and the weak arguments in the middle. That is, it is better than starting or ending with weak arguments.

C - Do not resort to excessive intimidation: presenting emotional arguments that are moderately frightening. Meaning that inciting fear in a strong and exaggerated way is counterproductive, and the same goes for emotionally weak arguments.

PRACTICE EXERCISE

1. What were the key historical events that contributed to the emergence of communication studies as an academic discipline?
2. How did the goals of communication research evolve from the early 20th century to the post-World War II period?
3. Compare the differences between early empirical approaches to communication (e.g., behaviorist models) and later cultural approaches (e.g., representation and ideology).

CHAPTER TWO

Normative Theories of Media & Political Philosophy

Moving on to Chapter two, we will explore the theories in media and communication, including systems theory and the connection between media and political philosophy. We will discuss authoritarian press theory, libertarian press theory, and social responsibility press theory, shedding light on the different perspectives on media and its role in society.

Unit 1

Authoritarian Press Theory

STARTER

Media Under Control—Historical Cases

Introduction:

This unit discusses about the four theories of press in detail. Western theories of the mass media (particularly of the news media) were first propounded by Fred Siebert, Theodore Peterson and Wilbur Schramm in their ‘four theories of the Press’. These theories have now come to be termed ‘normative’ in the sense that they ‘mainly express ideas of how the media ought to, or can be expected to, operate under a prevailing set of conditions and values.

THEORIES OF PRESS/MEDIA

The ‘original’ four theories of the press/media are: authoritarian theory, libertarian theory, social responsibility theory, and soviet media theory. Each of them suits political and economic circumstances and focuses not so much on the relationship between the press and Government. The major concern is with ownership and control rather than with different perspectives of Journalism or the people’s right to information.

During the 16th and 17th centuries, European societies were stratified into three distinct estates: the clergy, aristocracy, and commoners. This period was characterized by the prevailing belief in the divine right of rulers, a theological doctrine asserting that monarchs derived their authority directly from God. The ruling classes instrumentalized this ideology to legitimize absolute governance, thereby institutionalizing authoritarian political structures. To critically examine the role of media under authoritarianism, four foundational elements must be analyzed: (1) the ontological conception of human nature, (2) the teleology of the state, (3) the citizen-state relationship, and (4) the epistemology of knowledge production and dissemination.

Core Tenets of Authoritarian Theory

1. **Anthropological Assumptions:** Authoritarian frameworks posit humans as inherently dependent entities incapable of self-actualization without state intervention. This perspective views individuals as requiring paternalistic guidance to achieve developmental completeness.
2. **State Ontology:** The state assumes a custodial role, tasked with facilitating human development through the imposition of structured policies, objectives, and ideological frameworks. This reflects a Platonic

conceptualization of governance, where philosopher-kings regulate societal enlightenment.

3. **Epistemological Hierarchy:** Knowledge production operates as an exclusionary mechanism, with truth claims derived either through divine revelation or elite intellectualism. Consequently, cognitive authority resides with a select cadre empowered to curate and distribute sanctioned knowledge to the masses.

Media Control Mechanisms

Authoritarian regimes historically—and contemporarily—employ multilayered strategies to regulate press freedoms:

- **Juridical Suppression:** Legal instruments including sedition laws, licensing systems, and pre-publication censorship.
- **Extrajudicial Coercion:** Tactics ranging from imprisonment to forced exile or capital punishment for dissident journalists.
- **Ideological Subjugation:** Media institutions are construed as state-conferred privileges rather than democratic rights (Karthik, n.d.), necessitating perpetual alignment with governmental agendas.

Media Functionality in Authoritarian Systems

The press serves as an institutional apparatus for:

- **Ideological Propagation:** Disseminating state-sanctioned narratives to reinforce hegemonic power structures.
- **Social Control:** Maintaining societal equilibrium through the suppression of counter-hegemonic discourse.
- **Surveillance:** Implementing advance censorship protocols wherein all journalistic output undergoes state vetting, justified through the Hobbesian primacy of state security over individual liberties. This censorship intensifies during periods of declared emergencies, whether military or civil.

Contemporary Manifestations

Authoritarian media control persists beyond explicitly dictatorial regimes. Democratic states exhibit analogous tendencies through stringent enforcement of legislation like the Official Secrets Act (e.g., in Britain and India), demonstrating

how national security paradigms can legitimize press restrictions. This phenomenon underscores the theory's enduring relevance in media-political analyses.

The relationship between the state and the media in an authoritarian system can be illustrated as such:

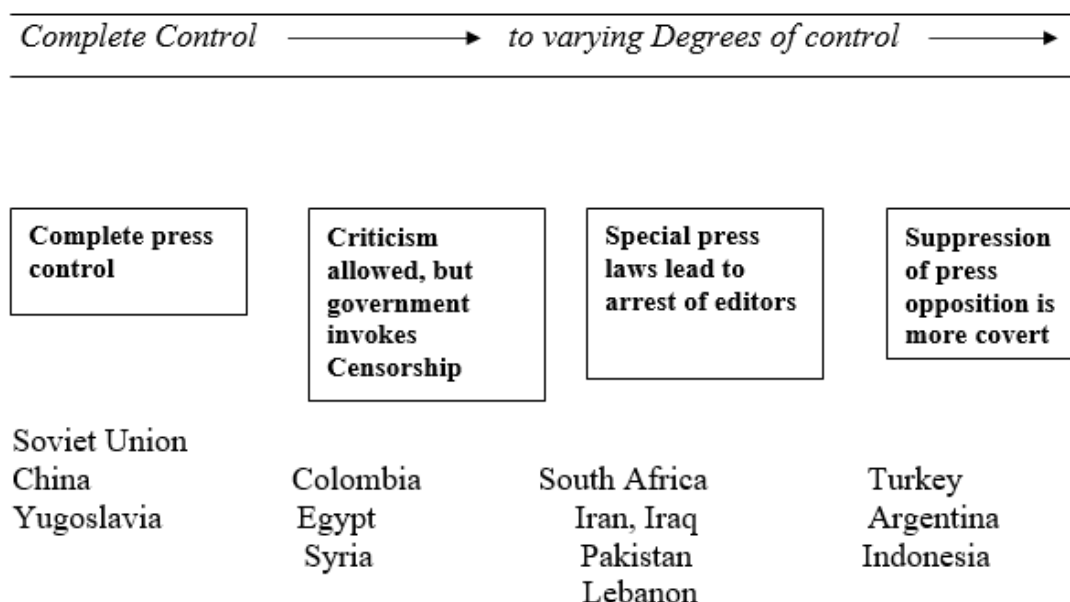


The Authoritarian theory of the press can be traced to the very beginning of printing. At that time, truth was thought to reside in those who held power—that is, the governing agency. Thus there was strict control of the press through the licensing of printers by the throne. Censorship was practiced if the ruler thought that information should be withheld from the masses. Therefore, although the government did not necessarily own the press, it was looked on as being an advocate of the state. Today many nations will not admit that their countries are governed according to authoritarian principles, they publicly espouse libertarian concepts, but behind the scenes authoritarian practices are carried out.

This term was first used by Siebert refers to an arrangement in which the press is subordinated to state power and the interests of a ruling class. The theory justifies advance censorship and punishment for deviation from externally set guidelines. Unacceptable attack on authority, deviation from official policy, or offences against moral codes should be criminal offences. Under certain circumstances, media are subjected to authoritarian tendencies in democratic regimes as well, especially in times of war and during internal and external emergencies. Other media like film, video, etc are subjected to censorship. Even the press, which is free, lost its independence and freedom during the emergency (1975-77). The authorities can and do use the provisions of official secrets act to deny free access to information, thereby hampering the freedom of press.

The table below will highlight the practice of this theory:

The table below will highlight the practice of this theory:



This Theory Envisages :

- i. The government consists of a very limited and small ruling-class and media are not allowed to print or broadcast anything which could undermine the established authority of the government.
- ii. Any offense to the existing political values should be avoided and the government may punish anyone who questions the state's ideology.
- iii. The government is infallible and the media professionals are therefore not allowed to have any independence within the media organization.
- iv. Foreign media are subordinate to the established authority, in that all imported media products are controlled by the state.

Steps were taken to control the freedom of expression. The result was advocacy of complete dictatorship. The theory promoted zealous obedience to a hierarchical superior and reliance on threat and punishment to those who did not follow the censorship rules or did not respect authority. Censorship of the press was justified on the ground that the State always took precedence over the individual's right to freedom of expression.

This theory stemmed from the authoritarian philosophy of Plato (407 - 327 B.C), who thought that the State was safe only in the hands of a few wise men.

Thomas Hobbes (1588 - 1679), a British academician, argued that the power to maintain order was sovereign and individual objections were to be ignored. Engel, a German thinker further reinforced the theory by stating that freedom came into its supreme right only under Authoritarianism. The world has been witness to authoritarian means of control over media by both dictatorial and democratic governments.

This theory essentially applies to authoritarian societies, but can surface in less authoritarian societies (particularly in times of war, terrorism). It depends on the medium/ media of press subject to a greater control in some countries. There are certain assumptions attached to the Authoritarian approach, which are as follows:

- a) Press should do nothing to undermine vested power and interests;
- b) Press should be subordinate to vested power and authority;
- c) Press should avoid acting in contravention of prevailing moral and political values;
- d) Censorship justified in the application of these principles;
- e) Criminalisation of editorial attacks on vested power, deviations from official policy, violation of moral codes.
- f) Media is an instrument/ mouthpiece to publicise and propagandise government ideology and actions.
- g) Absolute power of state versus subservience of the individual ã press.

PRACTICE EXERCISE

Compare state-controlled media in two authoritarian regimes.

Unit 2

Libertarian Press Theory

STARTER

The Free Press Ideal

Historical Emergence and Intellectual Context

The libertarian theory of the press crystallized during the 17th century, a period marked by transformative geographic and scientific advancements. These developments precipitated a paradigm shift in conceptions of human nature, state authority, and epistemic access. Championed by Enlightenment thinkers including John Milton, John Locke, and John Stuart Mill, this framework rejected authoritarian dogmas in favor of rational individualism and empirical inquiry.

Core Theoretical Propositions

1. **Anthropological Foundations:** The theory posits humans as autonomous, rational agents capable of self-determination without divine or state tutelage. Individual flourishing is conceptualized as an intrinsically personal pursuit rather than a collective endeavor orchestrated by national institutions.
2. **State Teleology:** Governmental authority is circumscribed to a facilitative role—existing solely to safeguard individual liberties and create conditions conducive to personal actualization. This reflects Lockean social contract theory, wherein state legitimacy derives from consent of the governed.
3. **Epistemological Paradigm:** Knowledge production is democratized as an inherent human right rather than an elite privilege. As Siebert et al. (1956, p. 41) emphasize, individuals must "achieve awareness of his own surroundings through his own efforts." This epistemic egalitarianism underpins the theory's cornerstone principle: truth emerges through unfettered competition of ideas in the public sphere (the "marketplace of ideas" doctrine).

Media-State Relations

The libertarian model institutes strict governmental non-interference in press operations, establishing media as an independent "Fourth Estate." However, this freedom is bounded by:

- **Legal Constraints:** Prohibitions against defamation, obscenity, and incitement (Siebert et al., 1956)
- **Normative Functions:**
 - *Accountability:* Serving as governmental watchdog (Introduction to Mass Communication, n.d.)
 - *Public Service:* Informing and entertaining citizens
 - *Economic Autonomy:* Revenue generation through commercial mechanisms

Contemporary Manifestations

While predominantly operationalized in Western democracies, libertarian principles increasingly influence media systems in select African, Asian, and Latin American contexts. Key characteristics include:

- **Press Immunity:** Protection for publications involving matters of national security (e.g., Pentagon Papers precedent in US jurisprudence)
- **Epistemic Pluralism:** Institutionalized mechanisms for diverse viewpoint expression to facilitate the "marketplace of ideas"
- **Transparency Imperative:** Emphasis on public right-to-know principles (e.g., Freedom of Information statutes in UK/US)

Structural Independence

The theory mandates complete institutional separation between media and government apparatuses. This is exemplified by:

- Constitutional safeguards against prior restraint
- Absence of state-mandated licensing systems
- Judicial prohibitions on content-based regulation

Key Theoretical Distinctions

Dimension	Authoritarian Model	Libertarian Model
Human Nature	Dependent on state guidance	Autonomous rational agents
State Role	Custodial control	Facilitative minimalism
Truth Paradigm	Elite-monopolized knowledge	Emergent through open discourse
Media Function	State propaganda conduit	Governmental watchdog

Critical Considerations

1. **Empirical Tensions:** While advocating absolute press freedom, real-world applications often reveal contradictions (e.g., post-9/11 media restrictions in liberal democracies).
2. **Cultural Variability:** Exportation of libertarian models to non-Western contexts frequently encounters hybridization with local communicative norms.
3. **Digital Age Challenges:** Social media platforms complicate traditional libertarian assumptions about editorial accountability and truth discovery.

Philosophical Underpinnings

The libertarian press theory remains anchored in two seminal Enlightenment concepts: the "open marketplace of ideas" and the "self-righting process" of truth. John Milton's 17th century polemics established the theoretical baseline, positing human rationality as capable of distinguishing truth from falsehood through unfettered discourse. This intellectual tradition, further developed by John Stuart Mill, Thomas Jefferson, and others, coalesces around four core principles:

1. **Epistemic Optimism:** Truth emerges from competitive idea exchange
2. **Negative Liberty:** Absence of state interference in expression
3. **Natural Rights:** Inherent human entitlement to free speech
4. **Institutional Autonomy:** Press independence as democratic safeguard

Operational Manifestations

In contemporary practice, libertarian media systems exhibit seven defining characteristics:

1. **Viewpoint Pluralism:** Institutionalized mechanisms for competing perspectives (e.g., op-ed sections, adversarial reporting)
2. **Governmental Watchdog Function:** Normative expectation of power scrutiny (e.g., Watergate investigative tradition)
3. **Editorial Sovereignty:** Decentralized content decisions resistant to corporate or state influence
4. **Structural Separation:** Constitutional firewalls between media and government (e.g., First Amendment protections)
5. **Ex Post Accountability:** Legal liability limited to post-publication adjudication (no prior restraint)
6. **Market-Based Curation:** Content diversity determined by consumer demand rather than state mandate
7. **Limited Exceptions:** Common law constraints on defamation, obscenity, and national security breaches

Constitutional Embodiments

The theory finds its purest legal expression in the U.S. First Amendment's categorical prohibition against congressional press regulation. However, as de Sola Pool (1973) observes, this absolutism encounters practical limits when confronting:

- **Moral Hazard:** Potential for speech to undermine social cohesion
- **Security Dilemmas:** Tension between transparency and national interest
- **Property Paradox:** Conflation of speech rights with capitalist ownership structures

Theoretical Tensions

Four critical contradictions emerge in application:

1. **The Miltonian Paradox:** While advocating complete press freedom, Milton himself acknowledged necessary bounds when speech threatens social order

2. **The Ownership Problem:** Media autonomy often privileges proprietor interests over journalist autonomy or audience rights
3. **The Market Fallacy:** Assumption that payment ability correlates with viewpoint validity
4. **The Security Exception:** Persistent state encroachment during crises (e.g., Pentagon Papers case)

Comparative Framework

Principle	Libertarian Ideal	Practical Compromise
Regulation	Absolute prohibition	Ex post liability
Truth Discovery	Marketplace competition	Algorithmic curation
State Relationship	Total separation	Embedded reporting access
Diversity Mechanism	Consumer choice	Corporate consolidation

Contemporary Relevance

While most prominently institutionalized in Anglo-American contexts, libertarian principles face three modern challenges:

1. **Digital Disruption:** Social media platforms bypass traditional editorial controls
2. **Epistemic Crisis:** Algorithmic amplification distorts marketplace dynamics
3. **Globalized Media:** Transnational platforms evade national legal frameworks

The theory's enduring value lies in its normative insistence that, as Mill argued, "complete liberty of contradicting our position is the very condition which justifies us in assuming its truth."

PRACTICE EXERCISE

Debate: Should media have absolute freedom?

Unit 3

Social Responsibility Theory

STARTER

Can Media Self-Regulate?

The emergence circumstances of the social responsibility theory in the Western:

This theory came about in the early twentieth century at a time when the libertarian notion that that man was born with a natural ability to make rational and moral decisions when faced with a challenge was proving to be untrue, as evidenced by the poor management of the press.

The scientific and industrial revolution led to an increase in the ubiquity of the press, making it harder for people to get into the business of mass media, resulting in the ownership of the press to falling into the hands of a few men. This destroyed the concept of the free marketplace of ideas, the backbone of libertarianism. In addition to this, there was a lot discontent with the material that was distributed by the press – more often than not it was shallow and an endangerment to public morals.

People felt that even though the press was free from the control of the government, it was not free from the control of advertisers and the business class. It was therefore not possible for one to truly know when the press was being objective, and when it was skewing the news to reflect the viewpoints of the advertisers and business class. The overall feeling was that the press was not performing its role efficiently for the benefit of the people.

The Role and the function of media in this system:

Thus, the Social responsibility theory emerged, redefining the roles and duties of the press. This excerpt from (Siebert et al. 1956 p. 74) outlines the line of thought that was becoming the norm during this period. “Freedom carries concomitant obligations and the press which enjoys a privileged position under our government is obliged to be responsible to society for carrying out certain essential functions of mass communication in contemporary society”. The press was now expected to take responsibility for their actions. The roles of the media transformed from simply informing, entertaining and selling, and acting as a watchdog of the government; to raising conflict to the plane of discussion.

The media was to be free, but it was also expected to live up to a code of ethics and regulate itself.

The nature of news processing:

These same tenets are still applied by members of the press today. In the social responsibility theory, the press is first and foremost controlled by community opinion and ethics. This means that one cannot disseminate the information that the public will find distasteful and disturbing without considering their views first. Journalists are no longer expected to simply be objective reporters, but their reports must also be pluralistic (to reflect the dynamic society in which they exist) and investigative.

This theory also strongly states that the press cannot violate people's rights in the name of freedom. They are not allowed to invade your privacy in the name of searching for a story, or tap phones – as in common with tabloids in the West when dealing with high profile cases. The press is expected to be comprehensive and objective in their reports with journalists are not being allowed to skew their reports in favor of advertisers or political politicians.

McQuail's Theoretical Framework

Building upon libertarian foundations, McQuail's social responsibility model articulates ten normative principles for media systems:

1. Democratic Functionality: Media must actively sustain democratic processes through:

- Information dissemination
- Pluralistic forum creation

2. Institutional Obligations

- Maintain editorial independence while ensuring societal accountability
- Adhere to professional standards of:
 - Truthfulness
 - Accuracy
 - Objectivity
 - Balanced representation

3. Self-Regulatory Mechanisms

- Ethical content filters (avoiding incitement or minority discrimination)
- Internal oversight protocols

4. **Representational Mandates**

- Comprehensive social group inclusion
- Multivocal perspective representation
- Guaranteed public access channels (e.g., letters to editor)

5. **Interventionist Proviso:** Societal right to impose regulatory measures when media fail benchmark standards

Contrastive Analysis: Libertarian vs. Social Responsibility Models

Dimension	Libertarian Theory	Social Responsibility Theory
Epistemology	Truth emerges from competition	Interpretive truth construction
Regulation	Absolute prohibition	Conditional intervention
Ownership	Private sector dominance	Mixed economy preference
Accountability	Market mechanisms	Professional ethics
Content Standards	Ex-post legal liability	Pro-active quality control

Marxist-Leninist Media Theory: Key Tenets

The socialist paradigm presents seven counter-principles:

1. **Class-Centric Control:** Media as proletariat apparatus
2. **Anti-Commodification:** Prohibition of private ownership
3. **Socialization Functions**
 - Normative education
 - Mass mobilization
4. **Party-Line Epistemology:** Worldview construction through dialectical materialism
5. **Global Solidarity:** Support for international communist movements

Critical Perspectives on Western Media Theories

Political Economy Critique

1. **Hegemonic Reproduction**
 - Media as ideological state apparatus (Althusser, 1971)

- "Objectivity" as bourgeois myth masking class interests

2. **Structural Constraints**

- Ownership concentration (Bagdikian, 2004)
- Erosion of public service media

3. **Professional Paradoxes**

- False neutrality undermining critical journalism
- Institutionalized biases (racism, patriarchy)

4. **Commodification Effects**

- Cultural products as exchange-value commodities
- Audience fragmentation through market logic

Operational Deficiencies

- **Democratic Deficit:** Exclusion of marginal voices
- **Epistemic Limitations:**
 - Governmental opacity
 - Methodological value-ladenness
 - Critical perspective erosion through "balanced reporting" norms

Theoretical Implications

1. **The Libertarian Paradox:** Absolute press freedom enables corporate capture (McChesney, 2015)
2. **Social Responsibility Dilemma:** Self-regulation proves inadequate against structural power asymmetries
3. **Socialist Contradiction:** Party control negates genuine working-class representation

PRACTICE EXERCISE

Evaluate a modern news outlet using social responsibility criteria.

Unit 4

Soviet Communist Press Theory

STARTER

Media as a Tool for Revolution

1. the philosophy dimension of soviet communist system:

The Soviet communist/workers theory is closely tied to a specific ideology; the communist. Siebert traces the roots of this theory back to the 1917 Russian Revolution based on the postulates of Marx and Engels.

It was based on Hegel's thesis/antithesis struggle, which was subsequently modified by Marx to represent the constant class struggles.

Thesis + Antithesis = Synthesis

Working class + Bourgeoisie = Classless society

In the opinion of Marx, even though the revolutions had brought to an end the total domination by the aristocrats and clergy, the nouveau rich of the society (those who had taken advantage of the scientific and industrial revolutions to get their wealth) were no better than the monarchy, because they were merely interested in promoting their own interests. His objective was to deliver a society run completely by the proletariat or the working class.

2. the postulates of soviet communist system

The soviets perfected this theory of the press when the USSR existed, and it survives today in a slightly altered state in China, Cuba and North Korea. The chief purpose of the media then was to contribute to the success and continuance of the socialist movement. Today, the press is still used as an instrument of the state that aids it in achieving its ideals, goals and objectives. The state is merely a custodian of the press of the people, until the time when a classless society comes into existence and the mass media is completely state owned. In the former USSR there had been surveillance that ensured only state approved information reached the masses, with loyal and orthodox party members allowed regular access to the media.

3. The nature of society, individual and stat in the soviet communist perspective

Editors and senior member of the press were selected based on political affiliations rather than merit (Severin et al. 2010). The needs of the individual

expected to be those of the state – and therefore by working with the government for the betterment of the nation, the individual found freedom. Criticism of the party was not allowed, and was punishable by law.

The above mentioned practices and codes of conduct are still required of citizens in the few remaining communist one-party states where the press is a completely nationalized government tool; this style is not unique to North Korea and could very well be substituted for Cuba or China.

4. The role and function of media in the soviet communist system

It envisages media to be under the control of the working class whose interest they are meant to serve. Private ownership of the press or other media is ruled out. The media must serve positive functions in society relating to information, education, motivation, and mobilization. They must support progressive movements in the country and abroad. The media according to this theory are subject to the ultimate control of the state and are integrated with other instruments of political life. Within these limits, the media are expected to be selfregulatory. They must:

- Act with responsibility
- Evolve and follow norms of professional conduct, and
- Respond to people's needs and aspirations.

The Soviet Communist media model represents a distinct paradigm where media institutions operate as instruments of state ideology rather than independent entities. This system fundamentally rejects Western notions of press freedom, instead positioning media as:

1. Ideological Apparatus

- Primary function: dissemination and reinforcement of Marxist-Leninist doctrine
- Explicit rejection of "objective" reporting in favor of partisan truth construction

2. Structural Characteristics

- Absolute prohibition of private media ownership
- Institutional subordination to Communist Party authority
- Exclusive publishing rights granted to vetted party members

Operational Principles

The Soviet model operationalizes media control through six key mechanisms:

1. Content Prescription

- Mandatory focus on socialist construction achievements
- Systematic omission of negative events (e.g., natural disasters, economic failures)

2. Ethnocentric Framing: International reporting follows strict ideological binaries:

- Positive: Socialist bloc solidarity
- Negative: Capitalist world corruption

3. Functional Triad: Media serves as simultaneous:

- *Agitator* (mobilizing class consciousness)
- *Propagandist* (indoctrinating party ideology)
- *Educator* (socializing citizens into communist norms)

4. Hierarchical Control

- Government > Media institutional relationship
- Nomenklatura system for editorial appointments

5. Pseudo-Self-Regulation

Formal editorial autonomy exists within rigid ideological parameters

6. Information Gatekeeping

- Prohibition on criticism of party leadership
- Criminalization of "anti-Soviet propaganda"

Comparative Analysis: Authoritarian vs. Soviet Models

Dimension	Authoritarian Model	Soviet Communist Model
Ownership	Mixed (state/private)	Exclusive state control
Content Focus	Status quo maintenance	Revolutionary socialism

Dimension	Authoritarian Model	Soviet Communist Model
Criticism Tolerance	Limited dissent permitted	Absolute prohibition
Internationalism	Nationalist framing	Socialist internationalism
Regulatory Mechanism	Direct state censorship	Institutionalized self-censorship

Critical Evaluation

1. Theoretical Contradictions

- Claimed "working-class representation" vs. actual bureaucratic control
- Paradox of self-regulation within total ideological conformity

2. Practical Consequences

- Information vacuums leading to rumor economies
- Systemic inability to address social problems

3. Historical Outcomes

- Failed credibility leading to underground media (samizdat)
- Contributed to ideological disenchantment (Glasnost era revelations)

Contemporary Relevance

While the Soviet Union dissolved, variants persist in:

- China's "socialist market economy" media system
- North Korea's juche-based information control
- Cuba's revolutionary press model

These adaptations demonstrate the theory's malleability while maintaining core principles of ideological subordination and state hegemony.

PRACTICE EXERCISE

Analyze Soviet propaganda posters for ideological messaging.

CHAPTER THREE

Research Specializations in Media & Communication

In chapter three; we will delve into the areas of research specialization in media and communication sciences, as well as the modern basics of media and communication theories, including the theories proposed by Harold Lasswell, Carl Hovland, Kurt Lewin, and Paul Lazarsfeld.

Unit 1

Emergence of Media Studies

STARTER

Why Did Media Research Begin?

The rise of mass media can be attributed to several global factors that have shaped the development and proliferation of media technologies and platforms. Some of the key factors include:

Technological advancements: The invention and widespread adoption of technologies such as the printing press, telegraph, radio, television, and the internet have played a crucial role in the rise of mass media. These technologies have enabled the rapid dissemination of information to large audiences, breaking down barriers of time and space.

Industrialization and urbanization: The process of industrialization and urbanization in the 19th and 20th centuries led to the concentration of people in cities and the emergence of a mass audience for media. Urbanization created a demand for newspapers, magazines, and other forms of media that could reach a large number of people in a centralized location.

Economic factors: The growth of capitalism and consumer culture has also contributed to the rise of mass media. Advertising revenue has been a key driver of media expansion, as companies seek to reach mass audiences to promote their products and services.

Political factors: Governments and political leaders have recognized the power of mass media as a tool for shaping public opinion and mobilizing support. The rise of mass media has been influenced by government policies, censorship, propaganda, and efforts to control the flow of information.

Social factors: Changes in social norms, values, and lifestyles have also played a role in the rise of mass media. The desire for entertainment, information, and connection with others has driven the development of media platforms that cater to diverse audience needs and interests.

Globalization: The process of globalization has facilitated the spread of media content across national borders, leading to the development of global media conglomerates and the emergence of a global media culture. Advances in communication technologies have made it easier for people around the world to access and consume media content from different countries and cultures.

These factors, among others, have contributed to the rise of mass media as a powerful force that shapes public discourse, influences public opinion, and connects people across the globe.

Introduction

Communication is an integral part of human behaviour and society. No society develops in isolation. Human behaviour and social interaction is a product of communication. In fact, communication necessitates the shared commonness in people. Etymologically, communication is derived from the Latin word “communicare” literally meaning ‘to share in common’. By the late 17th century, “the notion of imparting, conveying, or exchanging information and materials was incorporated into the concept” (Office of Technology Assessment, 1990:31). This exchange of commonness brought about social interaction, behavioural imitation and cultural transmission. The process at the primitive stage was strictly interpersonal and unmediated due to absence of modern media of communication. Scholars studying communication from interpersonal point of view according to Heath and Bryant (2000:59) “adopted communication as the central term because they wanted to study it as a significant and unique aspect of human behaviour.” Research at this stage was conducted for the sole purpose of ‘uncertainty reduction’. Heath and Bryant (2000: 153) state: “One of the motivations underpinning interpersonal communication is the acquisition of information with which to reduce uncertainty”. Uncertainty reduction is necessary because during an interpersonal communication the parties involved are faced with difficulty of predicting the present and past behaviours exhibited by their partners and explaining why partners behave or believe in way that they do (Wikibooks, 2013).

Succinctly put, Berger and Bradac (1982:7) explain that uncertainty “can stem from the large number of alternative things that a stranger can believe or potentially say”.

As societies developed, the sophistication of their communication process also follow suit. Human communication has emanated from traditional face-to-face/interpersonal means of communication to a technologically enhanced communication which transcends the one on one means of communication. The advent of press, radio and television, the cinema and the recording industry

which culminated under ‘mass media’ heading changed the process of human communication. The evolution of the press specifically changed the dimension of human communication. Cultural transmission, social interaction, literacy dispersal, and many other opportunities brought about by the invention of Guttenberg cannot be over emphasised. This new technologies changed the way human interact. The evolution of the press, radio and other media of communication gave rise to mediation of human communication. The society thereby embraced a new mass oriented and mediated form of communication.

By virtue of these media, the concept of mass became more relevant to communication. Blumer (1946) identified a mass as consisting of a very loosely organized group of people who come from all walks of life, who remain anonymous with each other, and who interact very little among themselves. Newspaper, radio and other media of communication were able to connect diverse, amorphous and heterogeneous audience together. The process of connecting different audience with distinctive cultural, political and psychological configurations through the mass media brought about the need for understanding how these audiences despite their differences were able consume and digest media content and how these contents influence them.

Perry (2002) argues that research concerning mass communication often has focused on the scientific and humanistic study of the communication media and their audiences. These media include magazines, motion pictures, newspapers, radio, television, and a variety of other new communication technologies.

Mass Communication Research

Development and advancement of modern societies is proportional to the growth of scientific inquiry. Scientific enquiry or research has greatly enhanced development and improvement of knowledge in the society (De Beer 1998, Neumann 2000, & Gunter 2000). Without research, human societies would have remained primitive, backward and stationary. “It is as a result of social and scientific inquiry that human societies recorded appreciable progress in the areas of science, technology, medicine, economics, politics, journalism and other areas of endeavor” (Maikaba, 2011:1). He added that for any society to achieve reasonable development, it must be research driven and oriented. This was buttressed by Olofin (2006) who noted that without thorough research no

discoveries can be made and “nothing old can be modified, refuted or confirmed.”

Mass communication as a field has also become major area of interest of researchers, the reason being that communication media have become central to the organization of several aspect of social life, ranging from “the broad patterning of social institutions and cultural systems, to intimate everyday encounters and people’s personal understandings of the world and their sense of themselves” (Deacon, Pickering, Golding & Murdock, 2007). That is, individual’s perception about themselves and their environment is subject to interpretation or influence of the communication media. Mass communication research or media studies according to Katz (n.d) are basically about the study of media effect.

Mass Communication Research and Theory

Research and theory in mass communication are like two sides of the same coin. One cannot exist devoid of the other. There are two approaches to understanding the relationship between the two concepts. We can conduct a research to test an existing theory or embark on research to develop a new theory. To understand theory one must take a cursory look at research and vice versa. Gunter (2000) opines that “a proper understanding of research and the way it has been carried out cannot emerge without some consideration of the theoretical background of different approaches to media analysis”.

Earl Babbie (1989:7) describes the three elements of social science as theory, research and statistics. He furthers that a (scientific) statement requires both logical and empirical support; that is, it must make sense, and must align with observations in real world. Meaning that, theory provides the logical prove while research provides the observational backing. The umbilical cord that joined research and theory together according to Folarin (1998) is termed as ‘deduction’ and ‘induction’.

By deduction, a theory or generalization is put to test in order to measure its validity. This is done by applying the theory to a set of individual case e.g statements like ‘most wrestlers are drug addicts’, can be validated or refuted by testing the blood of sizable number of wrestlers for any narcotic substance. A study that is carried out to test the validity of a generalization or theory is using a deductive approach.

While induction is the opposite of deduction. It metamorphosed from research to theory. Induction approach according to Folarin (1998:6) “proceeds from real-life observation to theoretical generalizations”. E.g if by virtue of behaviour of wrestlers, it is observed that their behaviour is beyond normal, a research can be conducted to test whether the behaviour is influenced by drug. A question might be designed for example: what influence the behaviour of wrestlers? Scientific research would reveal what influence their behaviour thereby a theory can be developed to that effect.

Simply put, the difference between deduction and induction according to Barbbie (1989) is that in deduction we reason towards observation, while in induction we reason from observations. In deductive model, research is utilised to test theories while theories are developed from analysis of research data.

Origin of Mass Communication Research

Research in the field of mass communication has developed over the years. This development is a product of different inputs of researchers from distinctive disciplines. Like in other fields, history of mass communication research was never simple or straightforward without the contribution of ‘uninitiated outsiders’ (Perry, 2002).

In fact, the ‘founding fathers’ of mass communication research as labeled by Schramm (1963) were scholars from different disciplines. Kurt Lewin and Carl Hovland are psychologists while Harold Lasswell is a political scientist and Paul Lazarsfeld a sociologist. It is pertinent to note that each of these scholars worked on “communication-related problems at least occasionally, none would recognize himself in Schramm’s communication pantheon—each had either died or moved on to other questions by 1963” (Pooley, 2008:46).

The origin of mass communication research in society is linked to the rise of mass communication as a distinct field of study (Gunter, 2000 & Maikaba, 2011). Before then, the leading scholars in field of communication and media research were scholars working in the “traditions of sociology, social psychology or political science” (Hardt, 1992). From inception, mass communication research avails scholars chance to produce a theoretical understanding of the role of media and communication in Liberal-pluralist society (McQuail, 2010), and authenticate “social-scientific concerns about the

type of communication and establish mass communication as a scientific discipline” (Maikaba, 2011:44).

The Industrial Revolution of 20th century in the U.S had transformed an agrarian society into the hub of modern and industrialised country. This brought about population growth and increased literacy level. This development gave the media specifically the print media the opportunity to reach the mass audience whose urge for information was on the rise. Radio also and motion pictures became popular (Perry, 2002). There are two perceptions held about the media by social scientists then; some saw it as “vehicles for either good or anti-social manipulation, to varying extents as potential social Messiahs or Satans (or both)” (Peters, 1989). Such assumptions are not acceptable any longer as research on influence and effect of media has really clarified this.

The industrialization changed the society couple with the proliferation of mass media. The core value of human society was being replaced by mass culture. Cultural and social values are subjected to media definition. Citizens began to lose their core value system. Industrialization saw the polarization of the people’s tradition and ways of life. Community life makes way for modernised city while family life became modified paving way for mass society (Delia, 1987).

The transition of U.S into a mass society prompted cultural researchers and behavioural scholars to study the relationship between the media and society. Majority of these scholars belong to the Chicago school of thought. Hardt (1992: 8) writes:

By the 1940s the United States had made the transition into an age of mass societies, where dreams of Great Community were reconstituted as opportunities for participation in a collective life, with promise of protection from mass manipulation and loss of liberty. Social theorists had become preoccupied with notions of depersonalization and the atomization of society, reflecting upon a hostile world that was increasingly dominated by totalitarian regimes. Their claims of authority championed the need for individuals to share a sense of community under the guise of their respective ideologies. Some of the circulating theories of American social scientists rested on analyses of modernization and its effects

upon social organizations, taking into account the shift from notions of 'community' to consideration of 'society'. Other theories addressed the study of collective behaviour that is, the effects of mass manipulation, including propaganda and advertising, on the nature of the social environment. Under these circumstances, issues of communication and society figured prominently in the work of Chicago sociologists, who questioned the direction of urban growth and social commitment. In their writings public opinion was recognised as a powerful and essential source of strength for the maintenance of a democratic society and remained a major focus of theorizing about the nature of pluralism (Cited in Maikaba, 2011).

Perry (2002) on his own part attributes the development of mass communication research to the socio-economic and political uprising in early and middle 20th-century in the United States. He argued that issues such as “concerns about media effects and propaganda, desire of commercial and political interests to influence audiences and the need of the U.S.

government to mobilize wartime mass opinion...” are some of the factors that aided the development of mass communication research. Similarly, Wimmer and Dommick (2011) itemised four major factors which gave rise to the development of mass communication research. These are: the First World War, influence of advertisers, interest on the effect of media on the public and competition among media for advertising dollar.

The First World War brought about the need to understand the nature of propaganda which was utilised heavily during the war. Researchers working from a *stimulus-response* point of view attempted to find out the effects of the media on people (Lasswell, 1927). At that point in time, the media were believed to have a powerful influence over their audiences, and several assumptions were made about what the media could and could not do. Key among the theories of mass media, the magic bullet theory or the hypodermic needle model of communication which suggested that mass communicators need only “shoot” messages at an audience and those messages would produce preplanned and almost universal effects (Wimmer & Dominick, 2011). They further explained that, the belief then was that all people behave in similar ways when exposed to media messages. However, studies on individual differences

among people have ruled out this exceedingly simplistic view. As DeFleur and Ball-Rokeach (1989):

These assumptions may not have been explicitly formulated at the time, but they were drawn from fairly elaborate theories of human nature, as well as the nature of the social order. . . . It was these theories that guided the thinking of those who saw the media as powerful (cited in Wimmer & Dominick, 2011).

Secondly, the realization by advertisers in the 1950s and 1960s that research data are useful in developing ways to persuade potential customers to buy products and services also influenced the development of mass communication research.

Therefore, advertisers financed researchers to carry out studies on media message effectiveness, audience demographics and size, placement of advertising to achieve the highest level of exposure (efficiency), frequency of advertising necessary to persuade potential customers, and selection of the medium that offered the best chance of reaching the target audience.

Thirdly, the intensification of citizens' interest in the effects the media has on the public, most importantly on children. This brought about serious interest in research related to violence and sexual content in television programs and in commercials aired during children's programs. Researchers have expanded their focus to include the positive (prosocial) as well as the negative (antisocial) effects of television. Investigating violence on television is still an important endeavor, and new research is published every year.

Finally, continuous competition among the media for advertising dollars was a fourth contributor to the growth of research. Most media managers are now sophisticated and use long-range plans, management by objectives, and an increasing dependency on data to support the decisions they make. Even program producers seek relevant research data, a task usually assigned to the creative side of program development. In addition, the mass media now focus on audience fragmentation, which means that the mass of people is divided into small groups, or niches (technically referred to as the "demassification" of the mass media). Researchers need information about these smaller groups of people (wimmer & Dominick, 2011)

The Chicago School and Mass Communication Research

To a significant extent, social science came of age during the 1920s (Schramm, 1997). The rise of social science research was grounded at the University of Chicago. The famous Chicago School specialized in sociology and related areas. These Chicago scholars were scholars of the media and culture paradigm, they contributed immensely to the growth of the field of social science research and mass communication.

By the latter half of the nineteenth century and the first half of the twentieth century mass society theories were prominent, with concerns about depersonalisation and the anonymity of society widely held. In this respect, Chicago, a fast growing and extremely diverse city, provided an ideal ‘social laboratory’ for a group of researchers who were ‘concerned with comprehensive schemes of social change and social planning [and] critical of superficial steps aimed at amelioration’ (Janowitz 1967).

Chicago was a small town with meagre population in 1890 when the famous University of Chicago was established. By 1920s to 1930 when the social science faculty of the university became famous, the population of the city had reached over three million (Bulmer 1984 & Malan, 2017). This unprecedented population increase brought about “burgeoning industrialisation, urbanisation and immigration of Chicago that led to a decision in the second decade of the twentieth century by the faculty of social sciences to make the city a focal point of study” (Hughes 1969: 166). Although the Chicago school tended to employ primarily qualitative methods, they formed a mold for later media effects research (Rogers, 1994).

One of the leading scholars of Chicago school is Robert Park (Malan, 2017). In 1914, at 50 years old, Robert E. Park (1864–1944) joined the Department of Sociology and Anthropology at the University of Chicago.

He retired in 1933 and was judged by many to have been the key figure in driving the development of empirical research at the Chicago school during the 1920s (Harvey 1987: 15). Park believed in gathering data firsthand and this is evident in an oft-quoted address to graduate students:

You have been told to go grubbing in the library, thereby accumulating a mass of notes and a liberal coating of grime. You

have been told to choose problems wherever you can find musty stacks of routine records based on trivial schedules prepared by tired bureaucrats and filled out by reluctant applicants for aid or fussy do-gooders or indifferent clerks. This is called 'getting your hands dirty in real research.' Those who counsel you are wise and honourable; the reasons they offer are of great value. But one more thing is needful: first-hand observation. Go and sit in the lounges of the luxury hotels and on the doorsteps of the flophouses; sit on the Gold Coast settees and on the slum shakedown; sit in the Orchestra Hall and in the Star and Garter Burlesk. In short, gentlemen, go get the seat of your pants dirty in real research. (cited in Bulmer 1984: 97)

He theorized about the relationship of news to mass or public opinion and social control. According to Frazier and Gaziano (1979), Park anticipated many contemporary ideas in mass communication theory. These include identifying the major functions of communication and agenda setting.

In 1930s, the Chicago school which was hitherto inclined to qualitative approach in social science research switched to quantitative technique of enquiry in the study of media effect (Perry, 2002). The objective was to conduct research devoid of value which was regarded as the weakness of qualitative method. As Rorty (1982:63-64) expressed:

Both social scientists and philosophers wanted to stop striking public attitudes and start showing that they could be as thoroughly and exclusively professional, and preferably as mathematical, as the natural scientists. American sociology, whose early stages had been satirized as the expenditure of a five-thousand-dollar grant to discover the address of a whorehouse, came to be satirized as the expenditure of a five-million-dollar grant to plot the addresses of a thousand whorehouses against a multidimensional array of socio-economic variables.

Perry (2002) notes that early research from Chicago school aimed at determining the power of the media. Studies such as the one sponsored by Payne Fund in late 1920s and 1930s were attempts to document the effects of media

especially the impact of motion pictures on children which are susceptible to media manipulation.

This research, along with later work concerning children and both radio and television, was conducted primarily to address perceived public concerns (Wartella & Reeves, 1985). Among the researchers was University of Chicago sociologist Herbert Blumer, an advocate of qualitative methods and disciple of Mead, one of the leading pragmatist philosophers of the time. Relying on both quantitative and qualitative techniques, such as case studies, the Payne Fund studies provided some ammunition for those who feared the power of the media. They also evidently contributed to the subsequent enforcement of stringent self-regulation, which lasted until the 1960s, within the motion picture industry (Perry, 2002).

As stated earlier, mass communication research was greatly financed by advertisers. Scholars from the Chicago school were contracted to conduct research for advertisers to determine audience demography, product choice among others. Researchers in Chicago school were market oriented, advertising driven and media effect concentrated. They focus more on effect of media on audience, the advertisers and product producers, industries and government interest, in fact Chicago school came to specialise in market research (Malan, 2017). Perry (2002:20) also expressed that “at worst, some work may have enhanced the effectiveness of advertising and thereby contributed to public health disasters such as tobacco use”. For example, field forefather Paul Lazarsfeld accepted money from a tobacco company to assess reasons that people do and do not smoke (Rogers, 1994).

The Frankfurt School and Mass Communication Research

The Frankfurt School was a group of critical theorists associated with the Institute of Social Research which was located first at the University of Frankfurt, Germany (1923-1933), then in Geneva, Switzerland (1933-35), Columbia University in New York (1935-1949), and finally back at the University of Frankfurt, from 1949 to present. Some of the theorists associated with what became known as the Frankfurt School included Max Horkheimer, Theodor Adorno, Herbert Marcuse, among others (wikibook, 2013).

The Frankfurt school was a distinctive school of thought in its approach to the study of mass communication research. It began as a research centre for the

study of Marxism. The Frankfurt school approach to study of communication within humanities rather than social science. This philosophy led to critical mass media research.

Critical research typically (or, perhaps more accurately, stereotypically) has eschewed quantitative techniques. It has as its goal liberation. Its practitioners often have favoured qualitative descriptions of the control structures of modern media systems and the latent (rather than overt) content of media messages. Often critical scholars have merely assumed that effects flow logically from these. For example, that news are operated as for-profit businesses or that their product exhibits subtle pro-business bias in the coverage of a labour dispute, at least in the mind of some researcher, may be taken to mean that news coverage will swing mass opinion to the side of business in the dispute.

Perhaps ironically, some of the Frankfurt scholars served in intelligence and propaganda roles in the U.S. government. For example, Herbert Marcuse, later considered a theoretician of the 1960s U.S.

New Left, served with the **Office of Strategic Services**, the forerunner to the CIA, during World War II and in other U.S. government offices until the early 1950s. (Perry, 2002:25). Frankfurt School theorists in the 1920s and 1930s lay much emphasis predominantly on Marxist analysis of social and economic processes, and the function of the individual and the group in relation to these processes.

Their particular relevance to communication theory lies primarily in Adorno's idea of the culture industry, and Marcuse's concept of the "one dimensional" man (Perry, *ibid*).

When the Frankfurt school moved to the U.S, both Lazarsfeld and Adorno collaborated briefly in a research project at the Calumbia University. As at then, Lazarsfeld was the head of Office of Radio Research, which later expanded to become the Bureau of Applied Social Research. The collaboration was a futile effort due to differences in orientation of both scholars. Perry (2002:25) acknowledged that "various factors-personal and philosophical – contributed. Adorno could be difficult to work with but he also expressed disgust with the links between researchers and industry". Rogers (1994:282) added that Adono

“felt that scholarly research should be conducted to advance the frontiers of knowledge, not so that wealthy media moguls could become wealthier.”

The major argument of the Frankfurt school in relations to mass communication research according to McQuail (2010) was in the critical view of society and rejection of value neutrality, rejection of the transmission model of communication, non-deterministic view of media technology and messages, adoption of an interpretative and constructionist perspective, qualitative methodology, preference for cultural or political-economic theories, and wide concern with inequality and sources of opposition in society. All the assumptions of the Frankfurt school of thought are in contrary to the Chicago school.

This gave mass communication research a new dimension or alternative paradigm contrary to the dominant paradigm expounded by the Chicago school (McQuail, 2010).

Perspectives in Mass Communication Research

Mass communication research can be viewed from different perspectives. Classifications of these perspectives varied from one scholar to another. For example, Mcquail (2010) divides mass communication research perspective into two; the dominant and the critical perspectives while Malan (2017), classified them based on the research orientation of the two dominant schools of thought. The Chicago school is inclined to market/administrative research while the Frankfurt school dwell on critical research approach (Malan, *ibid*). There seems to be little distinction between McQuail and Malan’s classifications.

However, as argued by Gunter (2000), and Deacon, et al. (2007) during the twentieth century, a number of broad theoretical perspectives have emerged and played an important part in shaping dominant modes of thinking within the social sciences including mass communications. These approaches reinforce the modern research in communication and media studies. Each approach is linked to a particular tradition in social theory and provides a distinctive model of human nature and paradigm for investigating it. In mass communication three of such traditions used by researchers in the field are recognized in the literature: Positivism, Interpretive and the Critical realism.

Positivism Perspective

Positivism emanates in the mid-nineteenth century philosophical school of thought founded by the renowned sociologist, Auguste Comte. It is regarded as the oldest and most widely used form of research approach (Wimmer and Dominick, 2010). The types of research associated with this paradigm are quantitative studies using surveys, experiments and statistics. Positivists' empirical researchers usually search for objectivity in measurements and utilize predominantly numerical forms of measurement to understand social phenomena, examples are in surveys, experiments and quantitative content analyses studies (Gunter, 2000 & Maikaba, 2011).

Positivism defines social science as an organised method for combining deductive logic with precise empirical observations of individual behavior in order to discover and confirm a set of probabilistic causal laws that can be used to predict general patterns of human activity' (Neumann, 1994: 58).

Positivists begin developing the notion that research in social science is no difference 'in principle' from natural science. So far 'fact' is the ultimate goal of pure science, social science can also adopt the systemic approach of pure science to investigate cultural and social world through personal observation. "In the process the researcher must remain detached from the data collection exercise. Positivistic social research is based upon objective measurement and not intuition or subjective judgements" (Gunter, 2000:5). They believe that since people can talk to the researcher, asking simple and direct question can generate data and fact which the researcher could use in forming his generalization.

Deacon, et al (2007) said the evolution of empirical inquiry was during the Renaissance when scientists distinguished themselves from theology and metaphysics by insisting that their job was solely based on observations of material world which gives no room for 'fairytale of the hereafter'.

It is important to note that the Chicago school of thought belong to this category. Their research is based initially on observation however, with the emergence of quantitative method, they switch to adopt the new method using statistical data to explain social and cultural phenomenon.

Interpretive Perspective

The interpretive on the other hand focuses on the internal factors or forces that move people. The approach is rooted in the writings of Max Weber, the German sociologist. The purpose of the interpretive paradigm is to comprehend how people in their daily life create meaning and interpret the events of their world (Wimmer & Dominick, *ibid*). Neumann (2000) linked interpretive approach to *hermeneutics*, a theory of meaning that originated in the nineteenth century, and is largely found in the humanities (philosophy, art, history, religious studies, linguistics and literary studies).

The approach stresses detailed examination of text, which refers to conversations, written words or pictures. The examination is to find out inherent meaning, examples are found in qualitative content analysis, semiology and other qualitative studies in mass communication (Maikaba, *ibid*).

Major argument adherent of interpretive approach is that people communicate subjective experience through texts. Close examination of such texts will give an insight into a person's inner feelings and motives.

There are many types of interpretive social science, including hermeneutics, ethnomethodology and qualitative social research. Researchers who follow this paradigm often use participant observation or field research. Using interpretative approach requires enough time and close contact with the subject of investigation. "They analyse transcripts of conversations or study videotapes of behaviour in extraordinary detail, analysing non-verbal as well as verbal communications among those under investigation" (Gunter, 2000).

Gunter furthers that the interpretive approach contents that social researchers' focus should be meaningful social action rather than the observable behaviour of people. Social action according to them is action to which people attach subjective meaning - activity with a purpose or intent. The interpretive approach holds that social life is based on social interactions and socially constructed meaning systems. People possess an internally experienced sense of reality. This subjective sense of reality is crucial for explaining human social life.

Social reality is based on people's definitions of it. Positivists assume that everyone shares the same meaning system; they take it as a given that we all

experience the world in the same way. The interpretive approach says that people may or may not experience social reality in the same way. An interpretive approach assumes that multiple interpretations of human experience, or realities, are possible (Gunter, 2000).

Critical Perspective

The critical social science on the other hand, originates from the writings of Karl Marx underpinned by the notion of social class struggles. Both the interpretive and critical schools found a lot of shortcomings with positivism and were both critical of the premise upon

which it was predicated. According to this approach, the purpose of research is to reveal, explain and understand power structures and relationships within society. The media are identified as powerful sources of social control and are themselves controlled by the dominant social, cultural and political elites.

The elites manipulate the media to promulgate specific values, beliefs and opinions, maintaining their hold on the system. Thus, it is the responsibility of researchers using this approach to expose this manipulative tendencies and processes of the elites. The proponents of this approach further argue that “social reality has multiple layers. Behind immediately observable surface reality lie deep structures or unobservable mechanisms. Only with effort can deep structures be exposed.”

The critical social science approach says that social researchers should study subjective ideas and common sense because these shape human behaviour although they are full of myth and illusion. A complete critical social science explanation does several things. It demystifies illusion, describes the underlying structure of conditions, explains how change can be achieved, and provides a vision of a possible future. Critical theory does more than describe the unseen mechanisms that account for observable reality; it also critiques conditions and implies a plan of change (Gunter, 2000:7).

The Frankfurt school belongs to this category. They are more inclined to interpretative perspective than the positivist perspective. The Frankfurt school believed that the study of human being cannot be subjected to figure and statistical data alone. There are other variables that inform human behaviour.

Also, they argued that the media were ideological agencies that played a central role in maintaining class domination. Research studies in the empirical tradition were theoretically limited and therefore useless (Gunter, 2000).

Conclusion

When discussing the origin of mass communication research, the contribution of big corporations like the Rockefeller Foundation cannot be sidelined. Though this paper does not attempt to look at the contributions of donors who financed mass communication research or individuals, rather it aimed at x-raying issues and incidents that led to the development and growth of mass communication research.

Similarly, of all the scholars mentioned, particularly the founding fathers, they notable scholars from other disciplines who left imprint in the field of mass communication before returning to their various fields, however, Wilbur Schramm represented the transition of the mass communication research. “His research interests also were extremely eclectic. ranged from children and television to media and development” (Perry, 2002:24). In the words of a biographer, Schramm probably did more to define and establish the field of communication research and theory than any other person. He founded two institutes of communication research (and helped found a third), wrote several basic textbooks in a field that had none before, and trained small army of followers who, for the first time thought of themselves as full-time communication scholars. (Tankard, 1990:239).

PRACTICE EXERCISE

Trace how one factor (e.g., propaganda) shaped early media studies.

Unit 2

Foundational Theories and Scholars

STARTER

Who Shaped Media Theory?

1. Intellectual Context and Scholarly Contributions

Harold Lasswell (1902-1978) emerged as a pivotal figure in communication studies during the interwar period, conducting seminal empirical analyses of propaganda mechanisms. His work intersected with contemporaries like Walter Lippmann, whose own propaganda materials became subjects for Lasswell's scrutiny (Rogers, 1994). Lasswell's dual approach incorporated:

- Quantitative content analysis (frequency, direction, and intensity of symbolic messages)
- Qualitative assessment of propaganda's societal impact

2. Theoretical Framework

2.1 The Lasswell Communication Model (1953)

The paradigmatic formulation: *"Who says what in which channel to whom and with what effects"* (p. 84) established:

1. Control Analysis (Who) - Institutional message sources
2. Content Analysis (Says What) - Systematic message dissection
3. Media Analysis (In Which Channel) - Transmission modalities
4. Audience Analysis (To Whom) - Demographic targeting
5. Effects Analysis (With What Effects) - Behavioral/attitudinal outcomes

2.2 Content Analysis Methodology

Lasswell (1946) operationalized content analysis through:

- Symbol frequency quantification
- Persuasion vector mapping (pro/anti orientations)
- Affective intensity measurement

This tripartite approach enabled tracking the "stream of influence from control to content and from content to audience" (p. 74).

3. Propaganda Research Findings

3.1 World War Analyses

Lasswell's examination of WWI/II propaganda (1938) revealed:

- Pervasive saturation requirement: Effective propaganda must permeate all life spheres
- Multi-group mobilization: Diverse sub-groups required customized messaging
- Enemy dehumanization: Consistent "othering" rhetorical strategies

3.2 Democratic Paradox

Lasswell (1941) identified the self-reinforcing cycle:

1. Government → (Propaganda) → Public Opinion
2. Public Opinion → (Distrust) → Democratic Participation
3. Democratic Institutions → (Legitimation) → Government

This created what he termed "general suspiciousness" toward information sources (p. 40).

4. The Hypodermic Needle Model

4.1 Core Propositions

- Media Potency: Unidirectional influence capacity
- Audience Passivity: Minimal cognitive resistance
- Uniform Effects: Homogeneous message reception

4.2 Historical Applications

- Nazi Germany's *Triumph of the Will* (1935) film propaganda
- Vance Packard's (1957) advertising manipulation claims

4.3 Theoretical Limitations

Later research challenged the model's assumptions:

- Active Audience Theory: Selective perception processes
- Uses & Gratifications: Purposeful media engagement
- Cultural Studies: Differential decoding practices

5. Contemporary Relevance

Lasswell's framework persists in examining:

- Digital propaganda algorithms
- Fake news dissemination patterns
- Social media echo chambers

His 1927 warning about news "standardizing" civilian minds anticipates modern concerns about algorithmic curation and filter bubbles.

Key Theoretical Contributions Table

Concept	Definition	Modern Manifestation
Content Analysis	Systematic message categorization	Big data text mining
Propaganda Saturation	Total societal penetration	24/7 news cycles
Hypodermic Model	Direct media effects	Viral misinformation spread
Democratic Distrust	Citizen-media skepticism	"Fake news" discourse

Critical Evaluation

1. Methodological Legacy
 - Established empirical communication research traditions
 - Pioneered computational content analysis techniques
2. Theoretical Shortcomings
 - Overstated media effect homogeneity
 - Underestimated audience agency
3. Ethical Considerations
 - Analysis often served governmental rather than public interests
 - Failed to anticipate media literacy developments

The hypodermic needle theory (HNT) remains one of the most debated models in media effects research. While often attributed to Harold Lasswell—who described propaganda as a "subtle poison" injected into public consciousness—the theory's precise origins remain unclear. The model encompasses three interrelated propositions:

1. Media Potency: Mass communication exerts direct, immediate effects
2. Audience Passivity: Recipients uniformly process messages without resistance
3. Message Uniformity: Identical stimuli produce homogeneous responses

2. Historical Case Study: War of the Worlds (1938)

The CBS radio broadcast's alleged panic serves as HNT's paradigmatic example, though contemporary analysis suggests media rivalry inflated reports:

- Newspaper Accounts: Emotive headlines (e.g., *Boston Daily Globe*) exaggerated public hysteria
- Competitive Context: Print media's vested interest in discrediting radio
- Actual Impact: Later research (Cantril, 1940) found limited, situational reactions rather than mass panic

3. Contemporary Manifestations

3.1 Digital Age Applications

- QAnon Conspiracies: Algorithmic amplification creating belief cascades
- Viral Misinformation: Rapid spread of unverified claims (e.g., COVID-19 "5G" theories)

3.2 Entertainment Media

Shrek 2's Puss in Boots character demonstrates calculated emotional manipulation:

- Cinematic Techniques:
 - Low-angle shots emphasizing ocular vulnerability
 - Diegetic piano scoring anchoring preferred readings
- Reception Evidence:

- Critical consensus on character's manipulative efficacy
- Franchise expansion validating audience impact

4. Theoretical Limitations

4.1 Empirical Challenges

- Lazarsfeld's Two-Step Flow (1944): Media → Opinion Leaders → Public
- Schramm's Rejection (1971): Dubbed "Bullet Theory" but denied media omnipotence
- Gerbner's Cultivation (1983): Long-term exposure effects ≠ immediate injection

4.2 Conceptual Flaws

1. Neglects Audience Agency:
 - Selective exposure/perception/retention processes
 - Differential decoding (Hall, 1980)
2. Overestimates Message Control:
 - Polysemic text interpretations
 - Cultural mediation of meaning

5. Conditional Validity

While largely discredited as universal theory, HNT retains analytical value when:

- Message Characteristics: High emotional valence + low cognitive demand
- Contextual Factors:
 - Information vacuums (e.g., crisis situations)
 - Authoritarian media systems
- Audience Conditions:
 - Low media literacy
 - High source credibility

Theoretical Evolution Timeline

Year	Scholar	Contribution	Challenge to HNT
1938	Lasswell	Propaganda effects	Established media potency
1940	Cantril	War of Worlds study	Documented limited effects
1944	Lazarsfeld	Two-step flow model	Introduced interpersonal mediation
1971	Schramm	Bullet theory critique	Rejected direct effects
1980	Hall	Encoding/decoding	Demonstrated polysemy
1983	Gerbner	Cultivation theory	Showed gradual, not immediate effects

Critical Evaluation Framework

1. When HNT Applies:

- Emergency broadcasts (e.g., EAS alerts)
- High-repetition advertising (e.g., political slogans)
- Algorithmic filter bubbles reinforcing beliefs

2. When HNT Fails:

- Politically knowledgeable audiences
- Culturally resistant groups
- Satirical/ironic content reception

3. Middle Ground:

- Dual-Process Models: ELM's central/peripheral routes
- Reinforcement Theory: Media strengthens existing beliefs

1.2 Carl Hovland theory

1.1.1 Carl Hovland's Life

Born in 1912, young Hovland was a smart and introverted child who had problems socializing with his classmates. He studied **math, biology, physics, and experimental psychology at Northwestern University**. Afterward, he got his Ph.D. at Yale University. There, he managed to meet many relevant

psychologists of the time who greatly influenced him. One of those psychologists was Clark L. Hull, who later became his mentor and colleague.

1. Historical Context and Theoretical Origins

Carl Hovland (1912-1961) established the foundational framework for systematic persuasion research during his postwar tenure at Yale University. Building upon his early work in Pavlovian conditioning (1930s), Hovland's paradigm shift emerged from analyzing U.S. Army propaganda films during WWII. His research program identified three critical persuasion variables:

1. Source Characteristics

- Expertise and credibility
- Physical attractiveness and demeanor
- Perceived trustworthiness

2. Message Factors

- Argument quality and structure
- Emotional vs. rational appeals
- Message discrepancy from audience beliefs

3. Situational Context

- Distraction levels during exposure
- Audience mood states
- Social reinforcement mechanisms

2. Core Theoretical Contributions

2.1 Source Credibility Effects

Hovland's work extended Lorge's (1936) seminal finding that message reception varies dramatically by attribution:

- Jefferson vs. Lenin attribution study (Lorge & Curtiss, 1936) demonstrated **52% agreement disparity**
- Ward & Ross (2002) Israeli-Palestinian negotiation study showed **source effects outweighed content by 3:1**

2.2 Source Degradation Mechanisms

The inverse process of credibility erosion involves:

- **Competence attacks** (questioning expertise)
- **Trustworthiness undermining** (alleging bias)
- **Likeability reduction** (emphasizing negative traits)

Courtroom strategies exemplify this through witness credibility challenges.

2.3 The Sleeper Effect Phenomenon

Hovland's most controversial discovery revealed that:

1. Low-credibility messages gain potency over time
2. Memory decay follows asymmetric patterns:
 - Message content retention: 68% after 9 weeks
 - Source attribution retention: 23% after 9 weeks
3. Pratkanis et al. (1988) identified critical boundary conditions:
 - Initial attention to both message and discounting cue
 - Clear source-message linkage at encoding
 - No reactivation of source memory

3. Contemporary Applications and Validation

3.1 Political Communication

- Negative advertising exhibits sleeper effects when:
 - Voters recall attack content but forget sponsoring PAC
 - Time delays exceed 6 weeks (Lang & Lang, 2018)

3.2 Digital Misinformation

- Fake news shares Hovlandian characteristics:
 - Low-credibility sources (e.g., bot networks)
 - Emotional message appeals
 - Social media context enabling rapid sharing

3.3 Neuromarketing

Modern research confirms Hovland's findings through:

- fMRI evidence of separate neural processing for source/message
- Pupillometry showing differential attention to credible vs. non-credible sources

4. Theoretical Limitations and Refinements

Finding	Initial Interpretation	Modern Qualification
Sleeper Effect	Universal phenomenon	Requires specific memory conditions
Source Effects	Linear credibility scale	Context-dependent thresholds
Message Discrepancy	Greater change = greater persuasion	Inverted-U relationship

5. Methodological Legacy

Hovland established four enduring research standards:

1. **Experimental rigor** - Controlled laboratory designs
2. **Multivariate analysis** - Isolating persuasion components
3. **Longitudinal tracking** - Measuring delayed effects
4. **Ecological validity** - Military to civilian generalization

THE PROPOSAL OF HOVLAND'S PERSUASION COMMUNICATION THEORY

The first-person proposing persuasion is Aristotle, which was discussed in his classic masterpiece Rhetoric. He put forward that in order to persuade others, three elements, orator, content and audience, are essential. The founder of the persuasion theory is D. Cartwright. He proposed the four principles of effective persuasion: information must go into the receiver's sense organs; information must be accepted and acknowledged by the receiver; the receiver must realize action is the way to achieve his or her goal; the receiver must be told about the channel, time and urgency of action. In the west, among numerous theories on how to transmit information to the public and persuade them, Hovland's persuasion communication theory model was considered as "the most important

origin of modern research attitude changing”[2]. Carl Hovland is the experimental psychologist of Yale University, under the teaching of the well-known behaviorist, Hull. In the 1940s, America strengthened the research on communication skill and effect during WWII, during which lots of prestigious socialists were mobilized to attend the research on human communication.

Hovland was appointed as the chief psychologist in Research Department of Intelligence and Education Programme of U.S. War Department. During the period, Hovland started to devote to the research on the attitude formation and transformation. This is the problem that how to effectively promote people to accept or change certain attitude. After WWII ends.

Hovland went back to university to carry on the research on the change and published *Communication and Persuasion*, concluding some pioneering and influential conclusions with the combination of both theory and practice. The nature of education activity is an information transmission activity. Under the guidance of Hovland’s persuasion communication theory, we can explore the strategy and method of persuasive effect for university counselors from three aspects.

Conclusion

Hovland also worked on the different circumstances of the message environment, such as the communicator’s credibility, the nature of the message, and the receiver’s disposition to hear the message. In 1953, he published his work on massive communication, *Communication and Persuasion: Psychological Studies of Opinion Change*, in which he contemplates his main conclusions and analysis in the persuasion processes.

Finally, Carl Hovland revolutionized communication and persuasion-related studies. His research is still relevant today and definitely paved the way for subsequent studies.

2.3 Kurt Lewin theory

Kurt Lewin (1890-1947), a Prussian-born psychologist, made seminal contributions to social psychology through his development of Field Theory. While not originally a mass communication scholar, his work on group dynamics and human-environment interaction laid the groundwork for modern gatekeeping theory. Key influences included:

- Gestalt Psychology: Viewing individuals as open systems interacting with their environment
- Force Field Analysis: Conceptualizing behavior as balance between driving and restraining forces
- Action Research: Pioneering applied social psychology methods

2. Core Theoretical Framework

2.1 Foundational Concepts

Lewin's (1947) gatekeeping model emerged from studying household food choices, identifying three key components:

1. Channels: Pathways through which information flows
2. Gates: Decision points controlling movement through channels
3. Gatekeepers: Actors who regulate flow through selection/rejection

2.2 The Gatekeeping Process

The model specifies four operational phases:

1. Information Gathering: Raw data collection from multiple sources
2. Evaluation: Assessment based on:
 - Organizational norms
 - Professional standards
 - Personal biases
3. Selection: Decision to pass/reject information
4. Dissemination: Distribution to end consumers

3. Application to Mass Communication

3.1 News Production Example

In journalism, gatekeeping manifests through:

Role	Function	Selection Criteria
Editor	Primary gatekeeper	News value, organizational policy
Reporter	Secondary gatekeeper	Source reliability, space constraints
Algorithm	Digital gatekeeper	Engagement metrics, user history

3.2 Modern Digital Adaptations

Contemporary extensions include:

- **Platform Gatekeeping:** Social media content moderation
- **Algorithmic Filtering:** Personalized news feeds
- **Cross-level Gates:** Interlocking filters from production to consumption

4. Theoretical Implications

4.1 Power Dynamics

Gatekeeping creates:

- Agenda-setting effects: Determining what issues receive attention
- Framing influence: Shaping how information is presented
- Access control: Regulating who gets to participate in discourse

4.2 Cognitive Dimensions

Lewin's concept of "life space" explains:

- Selective Exposure: Consumers as self-gatekeepers
- Confirmation Bias: Preference for congruent information
- Cognitive Dissonance: Rejection of challenging content

5. Contemporary Challenges and Developments

Traditional Concept	Digital Transformation
Human gatekeepers	Algorithmic filtering
Organizational norms	Platform governance
Professional standards	Crowdsourced credibility

6. Critical Evaluation

Strengths:

- Explains information control across contexts
- Flexible to technological changes
- Accounts for multiple influence levels

Limitations:

- Overemphasizes linear flow in networked environments
- Underestimates audience agency
- Neglects macroeconomic influences on gates

7. Current Research Directions

1. Global Gatekeeping: Cross-cultural differences in selection norms
2. AI Moderation: Machine learning in content regulation
3. Gatewatching: User-led alternative to traditional gates

Critiques

There is a claim that, in the digital era, everyone is a gatekeeper. Due to the extensive variety of accessibilities specifically the high use of social media, it is difficult to distinguish professional gatekeepers (e.g. journalists, editors) from public opinions (e.g. opinion leaders, social influencers, internet users). Additionally, stories of events happening in the society are now passed through any media outlets an individual has in hand to the public without the selection process of professional gatekeepers. Unlike traditional gatekeeping conception, in today's society audiences play roles in influencing news media messages i.e. news contents as well as controlling the news segmentation, diffusion and

production. This means the construction of media messages is largely oriented on audiences' preferences (Groshek, J., & Tandoc, E., 2017; Shoemaker & Reese, 2014). Although reliability and credibility of information by the gatekeeping process are still required to provide truthful or factual information especially among online sources, it is argued that gatekeeping, under certain criteria, could translate to the distorted media message and distorted view of the world.

The group dynamic according to Kurt Lewin

Group dynamics is the study of groups, and also a general term for group processes. Relevant to the fields of psychology, sociology, and communication studies, a group is two or more individuals who are connected to each other by social relationships.

Because they interact and influence each other, groups develop a number of dynamic processes that separate them from a random collection of individuals. These processes include norms, roles, relations, development, need to belong, social influence, and effects on behavior.

The field of group dynamics is primarily concerned with small group behavior. Groups may be classified as aggregate, primary, secondary and category groups.

Kurt Lewin and the types of groups

Group dynamics is the study of groups, and also a general term for group processes. Relevant to the fields of psychology, sociology, and communication studies, a group is two or more individuals who are connected to each other by social relationships. Because they interact and influence each other, groups develop a number of dynamic processes that separate them from a random collection of individuals. These processes include norms, roles, relations, development, need to belong, social influence, and effects on behavior. The field of group dynamics is primarily concerned with small group behavior. Groups may be classified as aggregate, primary, secondary and category groups.

In organizational development (OD), or group dynamics, the phrase "group process" refers to the understanding of the behaviour of people in groups, such as task groups, that are trying to solve a problem or make a decision. An individual with expertise in 'group process, such as a trained facilitator, can assist a group in accomplishing its objective by diagnosing how well the group

is functioning as a problem-solving or decision-making entity and intervening to alter the group's operating behaviour.

Because people gather in groups for reasons other than task accomplishment, group process occurs in other types of groups such as personal growth groups (e.g. encounter groups, study groups, prayer groups). In such cases, an individual with expertise in group process can be helpful in the role of facility actor.

Well researched but rarely mentioned by professional group workers, is the social status of people within the group (i.e., senior or junior). The group leader (or facilitator) will usually have a strong influence on the group due to his or her role of shaping the group's outcomes. This influence will also be affected by the leader's sex, race, relative age, income, appearance, and personality, as well as organizational structures and many other factors.

❑ primary group

A primary group is a typically small social group whose members share close, personal, enduring relationships. These groups are marked by members' concern for one another, shared activities and culture, and long periods of time spent together. Examples include family, childhood friends, and highly influential social groups (team sports groups, academic groups, etc...).

❑ reference group

A reference group is a sociological concept referring to a group to which another group is compared. Reference groups are used in order to evaluate and determine the nature of a given individual or other group's characteristics and sociological attributes. Reference groups provide the benchmarks and contrast needed for comparison and evaluation of group and personal characteristics.

Reference group is the group from which the individual derives his beliefs and values, through which he regulates his attitudes and behavior, and feels a kind of unity with it.

❑ casual group

People in a casual group interact on a less personal level than in a primary group, and their relationships are temporary rather than long lasting. Since casual groups are established to perform functions, people's roles are more interchangeable.

1.4. Paul Lazarsfeld theory

The two-step flow model posits that the media does not have a direct effect on the whole of the media audience, but is mediated through opinion leaders, who absorb the information and pass it on to their immediate social group.

The two-step hypothesis suggests that opinion leaders are the crucial conduit for political information.

2.4.1 Origins Of The Theory

The two-step flow model was introduced by Hazel Gaudet, Bernard Berelson and Paul Lazarsfeld in 1948.

Their book *The People's Choice* revealed the results of their analyses of the decision-making processes of voters during the 1940 election for President of the United States.

The authors held that content on mass media first reaches highly active media users (also known as opinion leaders) who accumulate, interpret and convey the meaning of such content to less-active consumers of mass media.

Gaudet, Berelson and Lazarsfeld had discovered that a majority of voters in the election had procured information concerning the presidential candidates not from the media directly, but from others who had read in the newspapers about the campaign.

According to the authors, while mass media's impact upon individuals is limited, the transmission of information by word of mouth plays a vital role in the process of communication.

2.4.2 Paradigm Shift In Mass Communication Theory

The introduction of the two-step flow model marked a paradigm shift in mass communication theory by challenging the prevailing [hypodermic needle model](#).

Research conducted by Lazarsfeld demonstrated that only approximately 5% of the population had altered their voting preference as a consequence of direct media consumption.

Factors such as communication with one's family, friends, and colleagues seemed more capable of predicting one's voting patterns than one's exposure to media.

These discoveries, described as the 'limited effects paradigm,' gained more salience following the publication of *The Effects of Mass Communication*, by Joseph Klapper.

Katz and Lazarsfeld (1955) contended in their work that mass communication researchers cannot treat the public as a homogenous audience that uniformly reacts to media messages.

This, they argued, was the case because an individual's membership in various social groups exerts more influence on his/her conduct and decision-making processes (than does direct messages from mass media).

The term 'interpersonal influence' moreover, could be understood as the intervening process between mass media messaging and audience reaction.

According to Katz and Lazarsfeld, media information gets channeled through to the masses by opinion leaders who have better access to media along with a deeper understanding of its content.

Furthermore, the opinion followers share much in common with opinion leaders in terms of interests, personality, and demographics.

2.4.3 Critical Evaluation

Later studies of everyday behaviour in the era of television dominance seem to indicate the opposite. It was also found that only a small percentage of people discuss information they have learned from mass media with their peers. National surveys regarding people's main sources of information also indicate that people rely much more on mass media than on personal communication.

This theory overlooks the role of other communication channels and influencers beyond the two-step process. The concept of opinion leadership may not hold true in all social contexts, and the identification of opinion leaders can be challenging.

The Two-Step Flow Theory of Communication

1. Theoretical Foundations

Developed by Lazarsfeld, Berelson, and Gaudet (1944) in *The People's Choice*, the two-step flow model represents a paradigm shift from direct effects models by introducing interpersonal mediation in mass communication. The theory posits:

1. Information Flow: Media → Opinion Leaders → General Public
2. Influence Mechanism: Opinion leaders interpret and contextualize media content for their social networks
3. Power Dynamics: Interpersonal connections outweigh direct media effects in shaping opinions

2. Key Theoretical Components

2.1 Opinion Leader Characteristics

- Higher media consumption and literacy
- Greater social connectivity and influence
- Demographic similarity to their followers (Katz & Lazarsfeld, 1955)
- Domain-specific expertise (e.g., politics, technology, fashion)

2.2 Communication Dynamics

Traditional Model	Two-Step Model
Direct media effects	Mediated influence
Homogeneous audience	Socially stratified reception
Immediate response	Delayed, interpreted response

3. Empirical Foundations

The original 1940 U.S. presidential election study revealed:

- Only 5% of voters changed preferences due to direct media exposure
- 65% relied on interpersonal discussions for political information
- Opinion leaders were concentrated in middle-class, educated demographics

4. Contemporary Applications

4.1 Science Communication

- Science Booster Clubs (Nisbet, 2018) demonstrate specialized opinion leadership
- TED Talks as modern opinion leadership platforms

4.2 Political Communication

- Ben Shapiro's influence exemplifies hybrid digital/analog opinion leadership
- Twitter "threaders" as nano-influencers in political discourse

4.3 Digital Adaptation

Hilbert et al. (2017) identify three digital transformations:

1. Scale: Micro-influencers reaching niche audiences
2. Speed: Accelerated two-step diffusion cycles
3. Measurement: Quantifiable influence metrics

5. Theoretical Challenges and Evolution

5.1 Critiques and Limitations

- Danielson & Deutschmann (1960): Documented direct media effects
- Rogers (1962): Found 60% awareness from direct media exposure
- Troidahl (1966): Proposed reciprocal media-discussion cycle

5.2 Modern Reformulations

- Multi-Step Flow: Complex, networked diffusion patterns
- Networked Influence: Algorithmically amplified opinion leaders
- Partial Mediation: Hybrid direct/mediated effects

6. Current Research Directions

1. Algorithmic Opinion Leadership: How platforms curate and amplify influencers
2. Cross-Cultural Variations: Opinion leadership in different political systems

3. Crisis Communication: Two-step flows in pandemic information diffusion

7. Theoretical Implications

Concept	Traditional Interpretation	Digital Update
Opinion Leader	Local, known individuals	Global, algorithmically amplified
Media Gatekeeping	Professional editors	Platform algorithms
Influence Measurement	Self-reported surveys	Engagement metrics

8. Critical Evaluation

Enduring Strengths:

- Explains variance in media effects
- Accounts for social context in meaning-making
- Adaptable to new communication technologies

Emerging Limitations:

- Underestimates direct algorithmic effects
- Overlooks anonymous, decentralized influence
- Difficult to apply in ephemeral digital spaces

Conclusion:

In conclusion, the study of media and communication sciences is essential in today's society as it plays a crucial role in shaping our understanding of the world around us. Through the exploration of general concepts such as communication, media, and information, we are able to distinguish between different forms of communication and media, such as rumour, propaganda, misinformation, publicity, and advertising. By understanding the historical foundations of media and communication research, we can appreciate the contributions of early pioneers in the field.

Furthermore, theories in media and communication, such as systems theory and the connection between media and political philosophy, provide us with valuable insights into the role of media in society. Authoritarian press theory and libertarian press theory offer contrasting perspectives on the nature of society, individual, and state, as well as the role and function of media in these

systems. By examining these theories, we can better understand the complexities of media and communication in different social and political contexts.

Overall, the study of media and communication sciences is a dynamic and evolving field that continues to shape our understanding of the world. By exploring general concepts and theories in media and communication, we are able to critically analyse the role of media in society and its impact on individuals and communities. As we continue to navigate the ever-changing media landscape, it is important to remain informed and engaged in the study of media and communication sciences.

PRACTICE EXERCISE

Apply one theory to analyze a social media trend.

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