

**INTERNATIONAL
COMMUNICATION
(DJ24)**

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



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CENTRE FOR DISTANCE EDUCATION

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INTERNATIONAL COMMUNICATION
M.A/PG Diploma in Journalism and Mass Communication

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Contents

1. Nature and scope of international communication
2. Historical evolution of international communication
3. Types and channels of communication and emergence of long distance communication
4. Telecommunication
5. Role of telecommunication on society
6. History of newspapers
7. History of news agencies
8. Dimensions of international communication
9. Media imperialism and communication policies
10. UNESCO –mass media declaration
11. New world information and communication order
12. Mc bride commission
13. The rise and fall of NWICO
14. Impact of internet on international news flow
15. Globalization and media
16. International telecommunication union
17. International regulation in an era of multi-governance
18. Mediating globalization media and communications
19. Evolution of globalization
20. Global initiative for inclusive information and communication technology

Lesson-1

NATURE AND SCOPE OF INTERNATIONAL COMMUNICATION

1.0 Objectives

After reading the lesson, the student, will be conversant with

- Meaning of international communication
- Need for international communication
- Consequence of international communication

STRUCTURE

1.1 Introduction

1.2 Meaning of International Communication

1.3 Need for International communication

Introduction

International Communication deals with the more macro-level information exchange between the nations." International communication is the study of heterophilous mass-mediated communication between two or more countries or among various countries with differing backgrounds. The communicating countries may differ ideologically, culturally, in level of economic development, and in language. The primary unit of analysis in international communication is the interaction of two or more societies/nations that are linked by mass media communication. So international communication takes place at the societal level. It is a type of mass-mediated communication (i.e., few-to-many communication mediated by technologies such as radio, television and computer networks).

Meaning of international communication

Defined as 'communication that occurs across international borders' the analysis of international communication has been traditionally concerned with government-to-government information exchanges, in which a few powerful states dictated the communication agenda. Advances in communication and information technologies in the late twentieth century have greatly enhanced the scope of international communication-going beyond government-to-government and including business-to-business and people-to-people interactions at a global level and at speeds unimaginable even a decade ago.

Apart from nation-states, many non-state international actors are increasingly shaping international communication. The growing global importance of international non-governmental bodies-Public Interest Organization (PINGOs), such as Amnesty International, Greenpeace and the International Olympic Committee; Business Interest Organizations (BINGOs), such as GE, News Corporation and AT&T, and International Organizations (IGOs), such as the European Union, NATO, ASEAN-is indicative of this trend."

"International communication, then, is about sharing knowledge, ideas and beliefs among the various people of the world, and therefore it can be a contributing factor in resolving global conflict and promoting mutual understanding among nations. However, more often channels of international communication have been used not for such lofty ideals but to promote the economic and political interests of the world's powerful nations, who control the means of global communication."

Need for International communication

International communication is a concept of moving beyond the boundaries of communication at wide context among different nations and countries. Countries history reflects an impact of objection, complexity, rivalry and dismemberment with different objectives and sometimes revenge. International communication proved to be the mediator to open the gate of dialogue and discussion over several unresolved on long standing issue. Nations misfortune was less contact and long misquotes and misconception. But the idea of INC to foster the sustained contact at all level grass root to strategic level. It fosters freedom there is no censorship of freedom of press, speech, writing and expression at diverse level in society. Nations are getting closer and ties mutual interest in form of relations, business, and religions, culture, information etc. It has promoted the international brotherhood and fraternity. It provided a sense of oneness among nations. Nation has deep roots in society. INC role is inevitable in the diverse cultural with different background history, philosophy, races, belief and taboos, ethnic and religious back ground so therefore nations always require a platform to get enacted with each other by sharing knowledge, removing misunderstanding, adaptabilities of multi cultures. The globalization is credited to have been considered the active partner for nations to come get closer through international communication and contact.

International communication is reflection of thought of multiculturalism. It has opened the gates of liberty and freedom. People can go and come across the world map. INC has changed the global scenario and map. Now the country strategic people can foster their business investment in any country of the world. Global economy is for all. The advent of the global economy is changing the fundamental nature of our governments, businesses, organizations and populations. In short, we are no longer constrained by state boundaries but have all become part of an interdependent international network.

Through we have freedom to adopt in different things

- Freedom of reflection and development of cultural competency.
- We are free to analyze different cultural freedom.
- We are free to mobilize at any country and find the strategies for adapting.
- We can solve problem in communication barriers.

INC has also foster the Cross cultural communication because people are thinking and acting globally. Their thinking approach and objectives are not limited. They are moving beyond the boundaries by investing in business internationally, learning diverse languages and cultures. This is the core concept of INC because it is pre-requisite of today era to adopt such things for the better survival through acculturation and diffusion. One of the key changes this has triggered is the need to communicate effectively with different people in different languages and from different cultures

Lesson-2

HISTORICAL EVOLUTION OF INTERNATIONAL COMMUNICATION

2.0 Objectives

After reading the lesson, the student, will be conversant about

- Meaning of international communication
- Need for international communication

STRUCTURE

2.1 Introduction

Introduction

The terms 'international,' 'transnational' and 'global' communication not only stand for different definitions of an expanding communication space but also reflect the history of worldwide communication as well as its diversity. Global communication gives us an eyewitness view of events in remotest locations. We participate in political discourses of global, regional or even local relevance. These global processes, in which knowledge, values and ethics, aesthetics, lifestyles are exchanged, is becoming autonomous, a 'third culture', a 'generative frame of unity within which diversity can take place. Such a 'global world culture' is shaped by - communication.

International communication has its own history. News have already been 'internationalized' in the fifteenth century: the wheat traders of Venice, the silver traders of Antwerp, the merchants of Nuremberg and their trading partners shared economic newsletters and created common values and beliefs in the rights of capital. The commercialization of mass print media (due to steam engine technology) has led to internationally operating news agencies (Reuters, Associated Press, AFP) in the nineteenth century. World wire and cable systems allowed international communication between France, Germany and Great Britain to their colonies in Africa and Asia. Transnational media organisations such as Intelsat, Eurovision, founded in the middle of the 20th century were the starting point for a new idea of international communication. It was the establishment of internationally operating media systems, such as CNN and MTV by individual companies which have finally inaugurated a new age of global

communication by distributing the same program "around the world in thirty minutes" (as a CNN slogan states) - across nations and cultures.

It was the advancement and diversification of satellite technology, from the 'Early Bird' to DBS and unlimited bandwidth capacities provided the architecture for a new programming strategy, targeting not inter-national but trans-national audience - along special interest channels. This development had a tremendous influence in a variety of world regions on the national/statist public sphere by extending political news and information beyond national borders. The influence of CNN which has internationally role of a global authority has been widely underestimated! The Internet, as an icon of a globalized media world, with around 200 million people globally 'being online' seems to finally speed up this development. It is the push- pull (Internet) technology - the paradigm change from (mass- or narrow-) distribution to network technology, which finally shifts the dialectics of global/local dualism to the one of universalism/particularism, without reference to local authenticity and has formatted a new global public sphere.

Whereas the modern public sphere spaces required citizens, forming 'rational' political opinions, the global public sphere is a multi-discursive political space, a sphere of mediation, this new type has no center, nor periphery, the agenda setting, con-texts are shaped - mediated - by autonomously operating media systems, not only by big news authorities, such as CNN, but also by drudge.com, yahoo, chat- rooms and 'authentic' reports.

In such an environment, 'the international information order' conventional patterns of international communication (of North/South, developing and developed, central and peripheral nations) are becoming obsolete. International communication theory, modeled in the age of modernization (mainly around push technologies) reveals the imbalance in global media images and portrayals, analyses media imperialism of global conglomerates, investigates cultural effects of 'main-streaming' through internationally transmitted media productions, analyses the varying role played by news media in times of international crisis. Only a few, very recent approaches in cultural studies and sociology, interpret global media flow by a new globalized perspective which interprets arising new

communication segments within the global context of inter-relating communication structures and options, highlighting a new relativistic 'intertextuality' with effects on a diversified global culture.

The strategy of international communication theory should be to develop a methodology for the understanding of 'particular' interpretations, meanings, relevance of the global public sphere, to detect the specifics of this communication space for different world regions - in times of peace and times of crisis.

Lesson-3

TYPES AND CHANNELS OF COMMUNICATION AND EMERGENCE OF LONG DISTANCE COMMUNICATION

3.0 Objectives

After reading the lesson, the student, will be conversant about

- Types of communication
- Traditional forms of communication
- Maps as channels of communication

STRUCTURE

- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 Types of Communication
- 3.3 Traditional forms of Communication
- 3.4 Post traditional forms of Communication
- 3.5 Maps as international communication channels
- 3.6 Travel as Communication

Introduction

When it comes to normal human communication we can find two main parts of communication channels. One is verbal communication and the other is nonverbal communication. If we think of communication based on style and purpose we can categorize it into two main parts, formal and informal communication. We can categorize communication on many other forms and bases as well.

Types of communication

There are two main parts of channel communication. Verbal communication can be categorized into two parts, oral communication and written communication. Oral communication is when two or more parties communicate verbally with words. The conversation can be short range or long range. Spoken conversation is of a short range and communicating through a telephone or voice chat over the internet. The other type is written communication. Written communication can happen through normal mail, e-mail, or any other form of documented writing.

Non-verbal communication is mostly body language. It is possible to understand what a person is trying to say or how he/she is feeling. It is also possible to tell the mood of a person by bodily and facial expressions. Facial expressions are very important as well. Facial expressions give out what the person is feeling. The face is the first thing we notice in a person and the facial muscles give out most of the human expressions. Pictures, sign boards and photographs are also a part of non-verbal communication.

When we consider style and purpose we can divide it into two sub groups, formal communication and informal communication. Formal communication includes all forms of formal exchanges of information. Business communication and corporate communication are some of the formal communication methods. For an example office meetings, writing memos and official letters are some of the formal communication methods. The basic difference is that all communication under this category is very official and precise.

Informal communication is the opposite of the above. It is a form of casual conversation or exchange of communication. This type of communication happens out side of the business or corporate community or between freely understanding parties. The two or more parties in concern should understand a common language or method of communication. There are no strong rules or guidelines; the only rule is that all the

parties should be able to understand each other. This kind of communication does not require a certain topic. It is just normal conversation between known people.

There are other types of communication as well, such as vertical and horizontal communication. This is the kind of communication that happens between seniors and subordinates. Personal communication is a situation of mutual communication and impersonal communication is the exchange of information without personal communication. Instrumental communication is the kind of communication required for jobs. Expressive communication is unofficial type of communication.

All these types of communication are used through out the world to exchange and understand information. Even though communication has been categorized as mentioned above all these methods are used together. In real life a categorization of communication happens very really. All the classifications come to gather and form a stream line of communication.

Traditional forms of communication

The modern means of mass communication, press, radio, TV, telephone etc., are an integral part of today's modern world, without which life can hardly be imaginable.

It is recognised that communication is an essential element of each epoch and every society. Traditional forms of communication are for instance myths; story-telling; songs; proverbs; religious rituals; artistic, musical, dance and theatrical elements, as well as armaments depicted on pottery, textiles and wood. These forms differ greatly from each other, being characterized - among others - by their own particular society, and by economic, social and religious characteristics. Myths give witness to reflections and observations of nature and human beings. They convey a view of life, depicting the position of human being. On this basis, values and standard are shared and rules laid down concerning behavior towards nature and relationships between men.

Traditional communication fulfills several functions.

- a) The passing on of knowledge and experience (agricultural, social, botanical, meteorological, etc).
- b) One further aspect of traditional communication is the conveyance of moral concepts: moral and social standards such as legal patterns which rule the co-existence of human

being, their dealings with natural resources, and regulates their behaviour towards foreigners.

c) Other myths and tales give the answer to questions of vital significance to human being, such as the sense in grief, of illness and death. These helped - and still help - by overcoming such situations.

d) Information concerning historical events concerning society as a whole or ancestral tales serve to form the identity of a person or a society, and strengthen their solidarity.

Activities which from a utilitarian point of view seem meaningless (e.g. story-telling, dancing, singing, performing of religious ceremonies), play however an important role in the functioning of social order and the ensuring of economic foundations. In this way traditional communications serve finally the survival of the group itself. Traditional forms of communication are ritually repeated on special occasions, e.g. of annual or lifetime celebrations. In this way they renew and prove their worth and experience, and in so doing are communicated to the younger generation. Traditional communication forms are a part of the culture of the relevant society. They are familiar to the members, are used by them and understood by all. Very often they take the form of social events (e.g. parties, celebrations).

Post traditional forms of communication

These include: newspapers, news agencies and telecommunications which we will study in detail in the following lessons. Emergence of long distance communication through various channels of communication

For millennia, people lived near one another in small communities. The few large cities were small by today's standards. People's kinship and friendship circles determined the extent of their worlds. The medieval peasant's entire life was spent within a radius of no more than thirty or forty kilometers from his or her place of birth. Only wars, migrations, and travelling pilgrimages brought strange faces into these isolated communities.

Even in the early part of the twentieth century, the average person still lived in the country side, knew of the world only through travelers' tales, and had very little contact with foreigners. At the height of British imperialism, only a few Britons had set foot outside England on the empire on which "the sun never set". Long-distance communication moved at an agonizingly slow speed. In the 1830s' a letter from Europe

to India might take five to eight months by sailing ship around the cape- in each direction. It took as long as two years to send a letter and receive a reply.

Maps as international communication channels

For centuries, our knowledge of faraway peoples and places depended on reports and maps from courageous sailors. Twenty-eight hundred years ago, the Greeks had become accomplished mariners and had colonized large portions of the eastern Mediterranean. The first book on geography showed a circular, flat earth surrounded by water. The Romans learned geography from the Greeks and used this knowledge to reach the red sea, the Persian gulf, and even the northern India.

Early maps reflected not only what explorers found but also what they hoped to find. The third century roman grammarian Gaius Julius solinus told horse footed humans with ears so long the flaps covered their entire bodies, making clothing unnecessary. One- eyed savages downed mead from cups made from their parent's skulls. These depictions of foreigners found their way onto our maps until the eighteenth century.

During the thousand year period of the Middle Ages in Europe, cartographers added little new knowledge to their visions of the world. They relied heavily on mythology and the bible and depicted the earth as a flat disk with Jerusalem at the center. Only six hundred years ago, Portuguese seafarers still believed that south or west of cape Boiardo in Africa there were wild storms, huge reptiles and strange human creatures. Maps showed fierce griffins and people without heads, men with dogs heads and six toes, horned pygmies, "cyclopean" with only one eye and one foot, and amazons with tears made of silver.

How do our maps compare today? Of course, our ability to map our planet has increased dramatically in the last few decades. Satellite images of our earth's surface give us a pride of place. Yet many of our mental maps of the world today still portray stereotyped images of foreigners.

Travel as communication

Throughout history people have communicated across the globe as tourists and merchants. In 1271 in the company of his father and uncle the great Venetian explorer Marco polo left Italy "to carry the word of god" to Asia. Remarkably his travels were the primary source for the European image of the Far East for six hundred years. After four

years of arduous travel, Marco polo's party reached the city of shan-tu, the summer capital of the Mongol emperors near present day Beijing. There they met for the first time the great lords of lords Kublai khan, whose grandfather, the fearsome Genghis khan, had swept over the entire face of Asia from the China Sea to Baltic sea.

Marco polo and his entourage were not sure what fate lay in store for them. But the polo's had nothing o fear. The great khan's earlier exploits into the nether realms of western Asia and eastern Europe had made him familiar with Europeans and their customs. Kublai khan saw in Christianity a civilizing influence for his people. When the polo's arrived, they were both expected and welcomed. Polo's account stood virtually alone as a description of the Fareast until supplemented by the chronicles of the Jesuit missionary Matteo Ricci, which appeared in 1615.

Interestingly, the spread of Christianity and Islam was also due to the extensive travel network. The Catholic Church launched a number of military expeditions to protect Jerusalem from Muslims. Collectively known as crusades, these campaigns "can be seen in retrospect as a major chapter in the evolution of international communication". He church organized and promoted participation in the crusades through oral and written communications through Europe. The crusades expanded the volume and extended the range of trading routes in the eastern Mediterranean. Communication with Asia was improved as missionaries were sent to the Mongol khans to persuade then to join an alliance against Islam.

The spread of Islam was also due in large measure to the extensive travel network of caravans and sea transportation. Scholars and intellectuals traveled all over the Muslim world seeking and bringing religious knowledge. Long distance Muslim communication was stimulated through hajj, or pilgrimage to Mecca.

Not until the eighteenth century did the leisure time available to Europe's aristocracy lead to a fashion for travel among the wealthier classes. In Briton was born the idea of the "grand tour" an educational journey that consisted of a year or two of ravel and learning in the major cities of Western Europe. But it was not until the industrial revolution that long distance tourism became attractive to more than the privileged elite.

Human couriers. For secure communication, nothing can surpass human leg power. Ancient messengers were given some mnemonic devices such as a notched stick to

indicate numbers of days or warriors. Emperor Augustus of Rome developed an elaborate courier system using horses, carriages, and relay stations. Messengers could travel about thirty five kilometers per day. The romans even had an “express service”. News of the revolt of the Rhine army travelled over the alps in winter to Rome in nine days at the incredible rate of about 250 kilometers perday.

Ancient postal services. Marco polo reported that the Mongols of Kublai khan had an elaborate postal system. Three thousand years ago postal runners delivered news and letters to many Chinese towns and villages. Even airmail was known to the ancients. Carrier pigeons have been used to send messages since before the time of Christ. King Solomon improved on land mail by exchanging letters with the queen of Sheba by means of messenger pigeons in about 1000 B.C.E. The Arabs established the animal service with pigeons in 12th century. Pigeons were also used successfully to carry news during 1848 revolt in France.

Diplomatic channels. Diplomatic channels are used in international communication to promote a country’s view or to carry the message. Diplomatic agents are the persons who reside in foreign countries as representatives of the state to perform an act of diplomacy. Diplomacy is a profession which requires discretion, patience, accurate reporting and absolute honesty (Agarwal, 2000:256). Diplomacy also involves representation, negotiation, persuasion and bargaining as the external life of a state is conducted in pursuit of its interests, power and order. The goals of diplomacy are understanding, compromise and agreement (Frey, 1989:36).

The practice of sending and receiving diplomatic agents by states is followed since the ancient time. Mythologically, Sri Krishna was sent to the Kauravas on the behalf of the Pandavas to represent the case of the latter to the emperor, Drutarashtra. However, historical evidence shows that Seleucus, the general of Alexander, sent an ambassador, Megasthanes to represent him at the court of Chandragupta Maurya. Megasthanes wrote an interesting account of those days (Nehru, 1994:62). Chandragupta’s son Bindusara maintained contacts with the Greek, and ambassadors came to his court from Ptolemy of Egypt, and particularly Antiochus, the son of Seleucus. Even Asoka, the son of Bindusara, sent his ambassadors to the kingdoms of the West in Asia, Europe and Africa (Nehru, 1994). He sent his brother, Mahendra and sister Sangamitra to Ceylon.

The modern features of diplomacy began in the late fifteenth century in the Italian city-states. The practice of sending diplomatic agents permanently started from the seventeenth century (Agarwal, 2000:257). In the twentieth century, particularly after World War I, significant changes took place in the arena of diplomacy. Economic, commercial, technological and cultural questions became a part of diplomacy.

However, the Congress of Vienna in 1815 for the first time codified the customary rules of the diplomatic agents according to the principles of international law. These rules classify diplomatic agents as ambassadors, ministers plenipotentiary and envoys extraordinary, and charges d' affaires.

Ambassadors are considered to be the personal representatives of the Heads of their states and therefore, they enjoy special honours such as the title of excellency. Ambassador's work in the group of commonwealth countries are known as high commissioners. Normally, ambassadors are appointed with the consent of the receiving state. The ministers plenipotentiary and envoys extraordinary are considered equally on par with ambassadors, but they do not carry the special honour such as excellency. Charges d' affaires are accredited by the Head of the State but by the foreign office to the foreign office. They do not enjoy honours or titles.

These diplomatic agents discharge, specifically, five functions: represent their country at all diplomatic meetings; protect the interests of the state, negotiate on behalf of the state, observe the proceedings and events that take place in the accredited state, and promote friendly relations. In order to discharge these functions, diplomatic agents are free to communicate any information for official purposes to the state by which they are accredited. The freedom of communication includes the use of couriers and code messages. Diplomats also rely on extensive communication and information systems. Computer communications, satellite systems, television transmission, international broadcasts, spy satellites, electronic monitoring, and detection devices. These and other technologies have transformed the work of the diplomats. With the increase in mass communication channels, public diplomacy has gained ground in the diplomatic circles. Other channels through which long distance communication has emerged include print media, tele communications, interpersonal channels, and technical channels which we will study in detail in the following lessons.

Lesson-4

TELECOMMUNICATION

4.0 Objectives

After reading the lesson, the student, will learn about

- History of telecommunication
- Telegraph and telephone
- Radio and television

STRUCTURE

4.1 Introduction

4.2 History

4.3 Telegraph and telephone

4.4 Radio and television

4.5 Computer networks and the Internet

Introduction

Telecommunication is the transmission of information over significant distances to communicate. In earlier times, telecommunications involved the use of visual signals, or audio messages such as coded drumbeats, lung-blown horns, and loud whistles. In modern times, telecommunications involves the use of electrical devices such as the telegraph, telephone, and teleprinter, as well as the use of radio and microwave communications, as well as fiber optics and their associated electronics, plus the use of the orbiting satellites and the Internet. The word telecommunication was adapted from the French word telecommunication, tele-meaning "far off", and the Latin communicate, meaning "to share"..

History

Greek hydraulic semaphore systems were used as early as the 4th century BC. The hydraulic semaphores, which worked with water filled vessels and visual signals, functioned as optical telegraphs. During the Middle Ages, chains of beacons were commonly used on hilltops as a means of relaying a signal. Beacon chains suffered the

drawback that they could only pass a single bit of information, so the meaning of the message such as "the enemy has been sighted" had to be agreed upon in advance. .

Telegraph and telephone

The first commercial electrical telegraph was constructed by Sir Charles Wheatstone and Sir William Fothergill Cooke, and its use began on April 9, 1839. Both Wheatstone and Cooke viewed their device as "an improvement to the [already-existing, so-called] electromagnetic telegraph" not as a new device.



The first permanent transatlantic telegraph cable was successfully completed on 27 July 1866, allowing transatlantic electrical communication for the first time. An earlier transatlantic cable had operated for a few months in 1859, and among other things, it carried messages of greeting back and forth between President James Buchanan of the United States and Queen Victoria of the United Kingdom. However, that transatlantic cable failed soon, and the project to lay a replacement line was delayed for five years by the American Civil War. Also, these transatlantic cables would have been completely incapable of carrying telephone calls even had the telephone already been invented. The first transatlantic telephone cable (which incorporated hundreds of electronic amplifiers) was not operational until 1956.

The conventional telephone now in use worldwide was first patented by Alexander Graham Bell in March 1876. That first patent by Bell was the master patent of the telephone, from which all other patents for electric telephone devices and features flowed. Credit for the invention of the electric telephone has been frequently disputed, and new controversies over the issue have arisen from time-to-time. As with other great inventions such as radio, television, the light bulb, and the digital computer, there were several inventors who did pioneering experimental work on voice transmission over a wire, and then they improved on each other's ideas. However, the key innovators were

Alexander Graham Bell and Gardiner Greene Hubbard, who created the first telephone company, the Bell Telephone Company in the United States, which later evolved into American Telephone & Telegraph (AT&T). The first commercial telephone services were set up in 1878 and 1879 on both sides of the Atlantic in the cities of New Haven, Connecticut, and London, England.

Radio and television

In 1832, James Lindsay gave a classroom demonstration of wireless telegraphy via conductive water to his students. By 1854, he was able to demonstrate a transmission across the Firth of Tay from Dundee, Scotland, to Woodhaven, a distance of about two miles (3 km), again using water as the transmission medium.



(T.V.)

On March 25, 1925, John Logie Baird of Scotland was able to demonstrate the transmission of moving pictures at the Selfridge's department store in London, England. Baird's system relied upon the fast-rotating Nipkow disk, and thus it became known as the mechanical television. However, for most of the 20th century, television systems were designed around the cathode ray tube, invented by Karl Braun.

Television, however, is not solely a technology, limited to its basic and practical application. It functions both as an appliance, and also as a means for social storytelling and message dissemination. It is a cultural tool that provides a communal experience of receiving information and experiencing fantasy. It acts as a “window to the world” by

bridging audiences from all over through programming of stories, triumphs, and tragedies that are outside of personal experiences.

Computer networks and the Internet

On 11 September 1940, George Stibitz was able to transmit problems using teleprinter to his Complex Number Calculator in New York and receive the computed results back at Dartmouth College in New Hampshire. This configuration of a centralized computer or mainframe computer with remote "dumb terminals" remained popular throughout the 1950s and into the 1960s. However, it was not until the 1960s that researchers started to investigate packet switching — a technology that allows chunks of data to be sent between different computers without first passing through a centralized mainframe. A four-node network emerged on December 5, 1969. This network soon became the ARPANET, which by 1981 would consist of 213 nodes.



ARPANET's development centred around the Request for Comment process and on 7 April 1969, RFC 1 was published. This process is important because ARPANET would eventually merge with other networks to form the Internet, and many of the communication protocols that the Internet relies upon today were specified through the Request for Comment process. In September 1981, RFC 791 introduced the Internet Protocol version 4 (IPv4) and RFC 793 introduced the Transmission Control Protocol (TCP) — thus creating the TCP/IP protocol that much of the Internet relies upon today.

Lesson-5

ROLE OF TELECOMMUNICATION ON SOCIETY

5.0 Objectives

After reading the lesson, the student, will learn about

- Role of Telecommunication on Society
- Economic Impact of Telecommunication

STRUCTURE

5.1 Society and telecommunication

5.2 Economic Impact

5.2.1 Microeconomics

5.2.2 Macroeconomics

5.2.3 Social Impact

5.3 Telecommunication and government

Society and telecommunication

Telecommunication has a significant social, cultural and economic impact on modern society. In 2008, estimates placed the telecommunication industry's revenue at \$3.85 trillion or just under 3 percent of the gross world product (official exchange rate). Several following sections discuss the impact of telecommunication on society.

Economic impact

Microeconomics. On the microeconomic scale, companies have used telecommunications to help build global business empires. This is self-evident in the case of online retailer Amazon.com but, according to academic Edward Lenert, even the conventional retailer Wal-Mart has benefited from better telecommunication infrastructure compared to its competitors. In cities throughout the world, home owners use their telephones to order and arrange a variety of home services ranging from pizza deliveries to electricians. Even relatively poor communities have been noted to use telecommunication to their advantage. In Bangladesh's Narshingdi district, isolated villagers use cellular phones to speak directly to wholesalers and arrange a better price for their goods. In Côte d'Ivoire, coffee growers share mobile phones to follow hourly variations in coffee prices and sell at the best price.

Macroeconomics. Because of the economic benefits of good telecommunication infrastructure, there is increasing worry about the inequitable access to telecommunication services amongst various countries of the world—this is known as the digital divide. A 2003 survey by the International Telecommunication Union (ITU) revealed that roughly a third of countries have fewer than one mobile subscription for every 20 people and one-third of countries have fewer than one land-line telephone subscription for every 20 people. In terms of Internet access, roughly half of all countries have fewer than one out of 20 people with Internet access. From this information, as well as educational data, the ITU was able to compile an index that measures the overall ability of citizens to access and use information and communication technologies. Using this measure, Sweden, Denmark and Iceland received the highest ranking while the African countries Nigeria, Burkina Faso and Mali received the lowest.

Social impact

Telecommunication has played a significant role in social relationships. Nevertheless devices like the telephone system were originally advertised with an emphasis on the practical dimensions of the device (such as the ability to conduct business or order home services) as opposed to the social dimensions. It was not until the late 1920s and 1930s that the social dimensions of the device became a prominent theme in telephone advertisements. New promotions started appealing to consumers' emotions, stressing the importance of social conversations and staying connected to family and friends.

Since then the role that telecommunications has played in social relations has become increasingly important. In recent years, the popularity of social networking sites has increased dramatically. These sites allow users to communicate with each other as well as post photographs, events and profiles for others to see. Prior to social networking sites, technologies like short message service(SMS) and the telephone also had a significant impact on social interactions.

Telecommunication and government

Many countries have enacted legislation which conforms to the International Telecommunication Regulations established by the International Telecommunication Union (ITU), which is the "leading UN agency for information and communication technology issues." In 1947, at the Atlantic City Conference, the ITU decided to "afford

international protection to all frequencies registered in a new international frequency list and used in conformity with the Radio Regulation." According to the ITU's Radio Regulations adopted in Atlantic City, all frequencies referenced in the International Frequency Registration Board, examined by the board and registered on the International Frequency List "shall have the right to international protection from harmful interference." The onset of World War II brought on the first explosion of international broadcasting propaganda. Countries, their governments, insurgents, terrorists, and militiamen have all used telecommunication and broadcasting techniques to promote propaganda

Lesson-6

HISTORY OF NEWSPAPERS

6.0 Objectives

After reading the lesson, the student, will be conversant about

- Newspapers

STRUCTURE

6.1 Introduction

6.2 History of Newspapers

Introduction

In Ancient Rome, Acta Diurna, or government announcement bulletins, were produced. They were carved in metal or stone and posted in public places. In China, early government-produced news sheets, called tipao, circulated among court officials during the late Han dynasty (second and third centuries AD). Between 713 and 734, the KaiyuanZaBao ("Bulletin of the Court") of the Chinese Tang Dynasty published government news; it was handwritten on silk and read by government officials. In 1582, there was the first reference to privately published news sheets in Beijing, during the late Ming Dynasty.

Newspapers

In Early modern Europe the increased cross-border interaction created a rising need for information which was met by concise handwritten news sheets, called avvisi. In 1556,

the government of Venice first published the monthly *Notiziescritte*, which cost one gazetta, a small coin. These *avvisi* were handwritten newsletters and used to convey political, military, and economic news quickly and efficiently to Italian cities (1500–1700) — sharing some characteristics of newspapers though usually not considered true newspapers. The emergence of the new media branch in the 17th century has to be seen in close connection with the spread of the printing press from which the publishing press derives its name.

The German-language *Relation aller Fürnemmen und gedenckwürdigen Historien*, printed from 1605 onwards by Johann Carolus in Strasbourg, is often recognized as the first newspaper. At the time, Strasbourg was a free imperial city in the Holy Roman Empire of the German Nation; the first newspaper of modern Germany was the *Avisa*, published in 1609 in Wolfenbüttel.

Other early papers include: *The Dutch Courante uyt Italien, Duytslandt, &c.* ('Courant from Italy, Germany, etc.') of 1618 was the first to appear in folio- rather than quarto-size. Amsterdam, a center of world trade, quickly became home to newspapers in many languages, often before they were published in their own country.

The first English-language newspaper, *Corrant out of Italy, Germany, etc.*, was published in Amsterdam in 1620. The first newspaper in France was published in 1631, *La Gazette* (originally published as *Gazette de France*). The first newspaper in Portugal, *Gazeta*, was published in 1641 in Lisbon. The first Spanish newspaper, *Gaceta de Madrid*, was published in 1661.

Categories. While most newspapers are aimed at a broad spectrum of readers, usually geographically defined, some focus on groups of readers defined more by their interests than their location: for example, there are daily and weekly business newspapers and sports newspapers. More specialists still are some weekly newspapers, usually free and distributed within limited areas; these may serve communities as specific as certain immigrant populations, or the local gay community.

Daily. A daily newspaper is issued every day, sometimes with the exception of Sundays and occasionally Saturdays, and often of some national holidays. Saturday and, where they exist, Sunday editions of daily newspapers tend to be larger, include more specialized sections and advertising inserts, and cost more. Typically, the majority of

these newspapers' staff work Monday to Friday, so the Sunday and Monday editions largely depend on content done in advance or content that is syndicated. Most daily newspapers are published in the morning. Afternoon or evening papers are aimed more at commuters and office workers.

In the UK, unlike most other countries, most "daily" newspapers do not publish on Sundays; in many cases the same publisher produces a Sunday newspaper, distinct in many ways from the daily, usually with a related name; e.g. The Times and The Sunday Times are distinct newspapers owned by the same company, and an article published in the latter would never be credited to The Times.

Weekly. Weekly newspapers are published once a week, and tend to be smaller than daily papers. Some newspapers are published two or three times a week; in the United States, such newspapers are generally called weeklies.

National. Most nations have at least one newspaper that circulates throughout the whole country: a national newspaper, as contrasted with a local newspaper serving a city or region. Some national newspapers, such as The Financial Times and The Wall Street Journal, are specialised (in these examples, on financial matters). There are many national newspapers in the UK, but only few in the United States and Canada. In the United States, in addition to national newspapers as such, The New York Times is available throughout the country.

International. There is also a small group of newspapers which may be characterized as international newspapers. Some, such as The International Herald Tribune, have always had that focus, while others are repackaged national newspapers or "international editions" of national or large metropolitan newspapers. In some cases articles that might not interest the wider range of readers are omitted from international editions; in others, of interest to expatriates, significant national news is retained.

As English became the international language of business and technology, many newspapers formerly published only in non-English languages have also developed English-language editions. In places as varied as Jerusalem and Mumbai, newspapers are printed for a local and international English-speaking public, and for tourists. The advent of the Internet has also allowed non-English-language newspapers to put out a scaled-down English version to give their newspaper a global outreach.

Online. Virtually all printed newspapers have online editions, which depending on the country may be regulated by journalism organizations such as the Press Complaints Commission in the UK. But as some publishers find their print-based models increasingly unsustainable, Web-based "newspapers" have also started to appear, such as the Southport Reporter in the UK and the Seattle Post-Intelligencer, which stopped publishing in print after 149 years in March 2009 and went online only.

Customized. A new trend in newspaper publishing is the introduction of personalization through on-demand printing technologies. Customized newspapers allow the reader to create their individual newspaper through the selection of individual pages from multiple publications. This "Best of" approach allows reviving the print-based model and opens up a new distribution channel to increase coverage beneath the usual boundaries of distribution. Customized newspapers online have been offered by My Yahoo, I-Google, CRAYON, ICurrent.com, Kibboko.com, Twitter. Times and many others.

Lesson-7

HISTORY OF NEWS AGENCIES

7.0 Objectives

After reading the lesson, the student, will be conversant about

- News agencies
- News agencies in India

STRUCTURE

7.1 News agencies

7.2 News agencies in India

News agencies

A news agency is an organization of journalists established to supply news reports to news organizations: newspapers, magazines, and radio and television broadcasters. Such an agency may also be referred to as a wire service, newswire, or news service.

History. The oldest news agency is Agence France-Presse (AFP). It was founded in 1835 by a Parisian translator and advertising agent, Charles-Louis Havas as AgenceHavas.

Two of his employees, Paul Julius Reuter and Bernhard Wolff, later set up rival news agencies in London and Berlin respectively. In 1853, in Turin, Guglielmo Stefani founded the AgenziaStefani, that became the most important agency in the Kingdom of Italy, and took international relevance with ManlioMorgagni.

In order to reduce overhead and develop the lucrative advertising side of the business, Havas's sons, who had succeeded him in 1852, signed agreements with Reuter and Wolff, giving each news agency an exclusive reporting zone in different parts of Europe.

Commercial services. News agencies can be corporations that sell news (e.g. Press Association, Thomson Reuters and United Press International). Other agencies work cooperatively with large media companies, generating their news centrally and sharing local news stories the major news agencies may choose to pick up and redistribute (i.e. AP, Agence France-Presse (AFP) or American Press Agency (APA)). Commercial newswire services charge businesses to distribute their news (e.g. Business Wire, the Hugin Group, GlobeNewswire, Marketwire, PR Newswire, PR NewsChannel, CisionWire, and ABN Newswire). Governments may also control news agencies: China (Xinhua), Russia (ITAR-TASS) and other countries also have government-funded news agencies which also use information from other agencies as well.

The major news agencies generally prepare hard news stories and feature articles that can be used by other news organizations with little or no modification, and then sell them to other news organizations. They provide these articles in bulk electronically through wire services (originally they used telegraphy; today they frequently use the Internet). Corporations, individuals, analysts, and intelligence agencies may also subscribe.

News sources, collectively, described as alternative media provide reporting which emphasizes a self-defined "non-corporate view" as a contrast to the points of view expressed in corporate media and government-generated news releases. Internet-based alternative news agencies form one component of these sources.

News agencies in India

News agencies in India can be referred to as the banks of news. They are the major source of supply and circulation of information within and among countries. News agencies in India are organisations of journalists established in different zones of the nation to provide news reports to organisations in the news trade. Houses providing

newspapers, magazines, and radio and television broadcasters use the news agencies as the larger sources for news. News agencies in India may also be referred to as a wire service, newswire or news service.

There are many news agencies in India that collect news and give them accordingly to the other news houses to finally reach out to the mass. Lately, many news agencies provide specialised services. They collect and disseminate news in the restricted areas of business, stock exchange, tourist information, weather reports, and scientific news and so on. The rapid development for the need of visual news gave birth to special type of news agencies that supply photos, television programmes and documentary films. However, majority of Indian news agencies deal with print news that is circulated in various broadcasting houses.

The Press Trust of India Limited is India's largest news agency that provides subscription services and offers national news, international, business and sports news in India and abroad. Asia News Agency (P) Ltd is a diplomatic news consulting service in India, covering news on Indian polity, Indian economy, Indian security, foreign policy, editorial news, Bollywood, government issues, sports, weather and other national and international issues. Press Information Bureau is the pivotal agency of the Government to disseminate information to the print and electronic media on the various government policies, programmes, initiatives and achievements. Press Trust of India is India's largest news agency; it is a non-profit sharing cooperative owned by the country's newspapers.

Central News Agency Limited is another news agency working in India that offers subscription services, door delivery for newspapers and magazines and also wholesale distribution and exporting of Indian magazines, newspapers, books, audio and video cassettes and CD-ROMs. Express Media Service is particularly a Hindi news agency offering regional, special news, sports, state news, business and international news in 12 Indian languages.

Indo-Asian News Service or the IANS is not only India's only news agency with a growing international reach but is also a brilliant content, knowledge and publishing outsource for Indian publications and institutions all around the world. They are the one-stop content provider on news and information from India, South Asia and the vast Indian subcontinent. KBK is India's pioneering and leading daily News Graphics agency that

provides comprehensive coverage of news through graphics. Kashmir Media service is a full-fledged news agency working on Kashmir ensuring instant coverage of every day events in Indian held Kashmir. National News Service is a news agency for agribusiness that provides daily trading prices and news for 1500 agri commodities, Indian trade journalism and providing content to all national dailies and significant TV news channels. The news agencies in India work with various departments to exploit each and every news arenas for all kinds of target audiences. Although, majority of hard news is harnessed in the news agencies, however, interesting features are also dealt with. The news agencies in India are known for their authenticity and detailed research. Many more news agencies are working in India in vernacular presses that cater to the regional audience with bountiful local issues of interest.

Lesson-8

DIMENSIONS OF INTERNATIONAL COMMUNICATION

8.0 Objectives

After reading the lesson, the student, will learn about

- Meaning of international communication
- Need for international communication

STRUCTURE

- 8.1 Introduction
- 8.2 Global village
- 8.3 War of ideas
- 8.4 Methods to waging War of ideas
 - 8.4.1. Use during the cold war
 - 8.4.2. Use in the War on Terror.

Introduction

Technology, telecommunications, cultural products, news mail, cultural relations and language are the seven dimensions of the international communication. These seven

dimensions account for all political actions concerning international communication. These political actions are; the creation of international organizations concerned with communications, the creation of law regulating international communication, international conferences, mobilization and other actions to exchange ideas by parties concerned with international communication; government paradigms and policies, actions by firms and other players in the economic market and paradigms and policies of international organizations aimed at regulating international communication or development.

Global village

In 1960 Canadian professor Marshal McLuhan popularized the notion of global village a word interconnected by the marvels of electronic communication, in which the old social, racial, and ethnic barriers would break down.

Global communication networks collapse time and space enabling people and organizations around the world to interact and work together. McLuhan speculated that global media would foster the development of a tribalized society in which individuals would interact within a larger group consciousness. McLuhan and Zingrone (1995) say, "Individual talents and perspectives don't have to shrivel within a retribalized society; they merely interact within a group consciousness that has the potential for releasing far more creativity than the old atomized culture". Similarly, Levy (1997) contends that digital networks will support the emergence of a "collective intelligence," which he describes as a "universally distributed intelligence, constantly enhanced, coordinated in real time, and resulting in the effective mobilization of skills". Computer networking is the centralizing technology that will cause the development of this global intelligence because people use communication technologies to interact on a global scale.

Both Levy and McLuhan suggest that by bridging time and space global communication networks could ultimately join people into a large collective. Underlying this concept is the idea that print media separated people into nation states and print technology helped to create the idea of individualism. Through the printing press, the different European languages were standardized, facilitating the establishment of nation states. Books printed in different languages caused people to begin to associate with language groups. Over time, people who would read and write in one language, such as French, began to realize

that they were different from people who would read and write in a different language, such as German or English. Linguistic separation eventually led to the creation of national identity. In addition, reading could be done alone, and so reading became a singular rather than a group activity, thus reinforcing the notion of individualism. The printing press's influence on the formation of nation states and individualism is described in detail by Eisenstein (1980).

Electric and electronic media, in contrast, tend to bring people together into a larger group consciousness that is reminiscent of preliterate tribalized oral culture. In oral culture, human communication primarily depends on face-to-face interaction, and people living in oral cultures are interdependent because they have access to each other. According to McLuhan and Zingrone (1995): "Literate man is alienated, impoverished man; retribalized man can lead a far richer and more fulfilling life-not the life of a mindless drone but of the participant in a seamless Web of interdependence and harmony". Interdependence can develop through CMC and global communication media as people work together and build relationships.

McLuhan (1964) used the metaphor of the human body to explain different types of media. For example, the book is an extension of the eye and clothing is an extension of the skin. Similarly, he argued that electric technology is an extension of the human nervous system. In 1964, he predicted that rapidly humans would approach the final phase of the extension of man - technological simulation of consciousness, when the creative process of knowing will be collectively and corporately extended to the whole of human society, much as we have already extended our senses and our nerves by the various media.

By spanning time and space, the Internet and Web extend our nervous system through a global electronic network that connects people in a global embrace. Globalization is defined as the interdependence of countries on a worldwide level through the increasing volume of cross-border transactions in goods and services and through the widespread diffusion of technology. As international trade in goods and services grows, global financial transactions increase and a global marketplace emerges. Central to the formation of a global marketplace are mass media.

Mass media have been criticized for homogenizing global culture by disrupting national traditions. Mass media create global mass audiences that are targets for globalized consumer products, such as Pepsi, McDonald's, and the Gap. Around the world, people wear Gap jeans and eat McDonald's hamburgers as they sip Pepsi. Instead of homogenizing culture, the Web has been criticized for fragmenting it. The Web creates a chaotic marketplace of cultures that allows a greater degree of individualization across cultures. Rather than uniting the world into one large, homogeneous global village, the Internet exposes people to cultural diversity. Thus, globalization simultaneously brings people together into a large consumer culture and potentially exposes individuals to different cultures.

War of ideas

The War of Ideas is a clash of opposing ideals, ideologies, or concepts through which nations or groups use strategic influence to promote their interests abroad. The “battle space” of this conflict is the target population’s “hearts and minds”, while the “weapons” can include, inter alia, TV programs, newspaper articles, the internet, blogs, official government policy papers, traditional as well as public diplomacy, or radio broadcasts.

The Strategic Studies Institute, part of the U.S. Army, defined what is believed to be the War of Ideas:

Simply put, a war of ideas is a clash of visions, concepts, and images, and— especially—the interpretation of them. They are, indeed, genuine wars, even though the physical violence might be minimal, because they serve a political, socio-cultural, or economic purpose, and they involve hostile intentions or hostile acts. Wars of ideas can assume many forms, but they tend to fall into four general categories (though these are not necessarily exhaustive): (a) intellectual debates, (b) ideological wars, (c) wars over religious dogma, and (d) advertising campaigns. All of them are essentially about power and influence, just as with wars over territory and material resources, and their stakes can run very high indeed.

Methods to waging War of Ideas

There are two principal schools of thought on how to approach the war of ideas. The first approach advocates treating the conflict as a matter best addressed through public diplomacy—defined as the conveyance of information across a broad spectrum to include

cultural affairs and political action. Accordingly, this view calls for revitalizing or transforming the U.S. Department of State and many of the traditional tools of statecraft. This school of thought contends that American public diplomacy declined after the Cold War, as evidenced by the demise of the U.S. Information Agency in 1999, and the reduction or elimination of strategic communications programs such as “Voice of America,” and Radio Free Europe/Radio Liberty. The remedy, then, according to this view, is to re-engage the world, especially the Arab-Muslim world, by revitalizing both the form and content of U.S. public diplomacy and strategic communications, and by reinforcing those communications with concrete programs that invest in people, create opportunities for positive exchanges, and help build friendships. In fact, Radio Free Europe/Radio Liberty, and its Iraqi component, Radio Free Iraq, and Al-Hurra TV are now actively participating in U.S. strategic communication efforts, though with debatable effectiveness; all this has occurred, in part, by taking resources from Voice of America.

In direct contrast, the second school of thought advocates treating the war of ideas as a “real war,” wherein the objective is to destroy the influence and credibility of the opposing ideology, to include neutralizing its chief proponents. This approach sees public diplomacy as an essential, but insufficient tool because it requires too much time to achieve desired results, and does little to aid the immediate efforts of combat forces in the field. For this school of thought, the principal focus of the war of ideas ought to be how to use the ways and means of information warfare to eliminate terrorist groups.

Use during the Cold War. According to Dr. John Lenczowski, former Director of European and Soviet Affairs for the National Security Council during the Reagan administration, ‘The Cold War took many forms, including proxy wars, the arms race, nuclear blackmail, economic warfare, subversion, covert operations and the battle for men's minds. While many of these forms had the trappings of traditional conflicts of national interests, there was a dimension to the Cold War that made it unique among wars: it centered around a war of ideas—a war between two alternative political philosophies.

During the Cold War, the United States and other Western powers developed a robust infrastructure for waging a “war of ideas” against the communist ideology being promulgated by the Soviet Union and its allies. During the Truman and Eisenhower

administrations, the so-called golden age of U.S. propaganda, counterpropaganda, and public diplomacy operations, the U.S. government carried out a sophisticated program of overt and covert activities designed to shape public opinion behind the Iron Curtain, within European intellectual and cultural circles, and across the developing world. The United States was able to reach as much as 50–70% of the populations behind the Iron Curtain during the 1950s through their international broadcasting. High-level interest in such operations waned during the 1970s, but received renewed emphasis under President Ronald Reagan, the “Great Communicator,” who, like Eisenhower, was a firm advocate of the informational component of America’s Cold War strategy.

However, with the end of the Cold War official interest once again plummeted. During the 1990s, Congress and the executive branch disparaged informational activities as costly Cold War anachronisms. The budget for State Department informational programs was slashed, and USIA, a quasi-independent body that reported to the secretary of state, was disestablished, and its responsibilities were transferred to a new undersecretary of state for public diplomacy.

Use in the War on Terror. Terrorism is a form of political and psychological warfare; it is protracted, high-intensity propaganda, aimed more at the hearts of the public and the minds of decision makers, and not at the physical victims. There is growing recognition among U.S. government officials, journalists, and analysts of terrorism that defeating al-Qaida—arguably the preeminent challenge to U.S. security—will require far more than “neutralizing” leaders, disrupting cells, and dismantling networks. The 9/11 Commission concluded in its final report, eliminating al-Qaida as a formidable danger ultimately requires “prevailing in the longer term over the ideology that gives rise to Islamist terrorism.”

As Akbar Ahmed, a Muslim scholar who holds the Chair of Islamic Studies at American University, explains: Properly understood, this is a war of ideas within Islam—some of them faithful to authentic Islam, but some of them clearly un-Islamic and even blasphemous toward the peaceful and compassionate Allah of the Qur'an. Americans, in general, are fundamentally opposed waging what seems as a blatantly ideological struggle seems quite unnatural to Americans and other Westerners, who tend to downplay intangible factors such as ideas, history, and culture as political motivators, preferring

instead to stress relatively more concrete driving forces such as personal security and physical well-being.

The United States military has recently begun incorporating a strategic communication into their overall battle operations in the War on Terror, especially in Afghanistan and Iraq. In addition to the military's traditional role of using force they are beginning to use political as well as ideological warfare against the enemy as a method of influencing the local populations into opposing say the Taliban or al Qa'ida. The ancient Chinese philosopher Sun Tzu once said that to fight and conquer in all your battles is not supreme excellence; supreme excellence consists in breaking the enemy's resistance without fighting.

Lesson-9

MEDIA IMPERIALISM AND COMMUNICATION POLACIES

9.0 Objectives

After reading the lesson, the student, will be conversant about

- Media Imperialism
- Communication policies

STRUCTURE

9.1 Introduction

9.2 Communication Policies

Introduction

The Media Imperialism debate started in the early 1970s when developing countries began to criticise the control developed countries held over the media. The site for this conflict was UNESCO where the New World Information and Communication Order (NWICO) movement developed. Supported by the MacBride report, "Many Voices, One World", countries such as India, Indonesia, and Egypt argued that the large media companies should have limited access to developing countries. This argument was one of the reasons for the United States, United Kingdom, and Singapore leaving UNESCO.

Later during the 1980s and 1990s, as multinational media conglomerates grow larger and more powerful many believe that it will become increasingly difficult for small, local media outlets to survive. A new type of imperialism will thus occur, making many nations subsidiary to the media products of some of the most powerful countries or companies. Significant writers and thinkers in this area include Ben Bagdikian, Noam Chomsky, Edward S. Herman, Armand Mattelart and Robert McChesney. However, critics have responded that in most developing countries the most popular television and radio programs are commonly locally produced. Critics such as Anthony Giddens highlight the place of regional producers of media (such as Brazil in Latin America); other critics such as James Curran suggest that State government subsidies have ensured strong local production. In areas such as audience studies, it has been shown that global programs like Dallas do not have a global audience who understand the program the same way.

The United States' corporate media coverage of events has been seen to limit the freedom of the press. Integrity can be lost among media giants. This combined with the control and flow of information reduces the fairness and accuracy of news stories. American news networks like CNN also often have large international staffs, and produce specialized regional programming for many nations.

Media Imperialism is not always an international occurrence, however. When a single company or corporation controls all the media in a country, this too is a form of Media Imperialism. Nations such as Italy and Canada are often accused of possessing an Imperial media structure, based on the fact that much of their media is controlled by one corporation or owner.

A media source which ignores and/or censors important issues and events severely damages freedom of information. Many modern tabloids, twenty-four hour news channels and other mainstream media sources have increasingly been criticized for not conforming to general standards of journalistic integrity. According to Boyd-Barrett, media imperialism refers to 'the process whereby, the ownership, structure, distribution or content of the media in any one country are, singly or together, subject to substantial external pressures from the media interests of any other country or countries, without

proportionate reciprocation of influences by the country so affected'. He identifies two 'outstanding features' of media imperialism:

1. 'Uni-directional media flow. While there is a heavy flow of exported media products from the US to say, Asian countries, there is only a very slight trickle of Asian media products to the US.
2. The very small number of source countries, accounting for a very substantial share of all international media influences around the world. These countries are primarily America, then Britain, France, West Germany, Russia, Italy and Japan.

Media imperialism needs to be seen as a subset of the broader paradigm called 'cultural imperialism', a term often attributed to US Marxist theoretician Hebert Schiller.

In his book, *Mass Communications and American Empire* he argued that the international movement towards the commercialization of broadcasting was driven by the rise of the US entertainment, communications and information (ECI) industries, and the ascendancy of ECI industries had reached a point where 'nothing less than the viability of the American industrial economy is involved in the movement toward international commercialization of broadcasting'. He stressed three prepositions. First, ECI's spread must be viewed alongside US foreign policy. Second, ECI's influence is not just economic and political but also impacts 'consciousness'. Third, economic power and global reach of cultural commodities was leading to cultural imperialism.

He defined cultural imperialism as follows;

The concept of cultural imperialism...describes the sum of processes by which a society is brought into the modern world system and how its dominating stratum is attracted, pressured, forced, and sometimes bribed into shaping social institutions to correspond to, or even promote, the values and structures of the dominant centre of the system'.

The Marxist critique of international cultural flows developed out of broader critiques of the triumphalist paradigm of 'modernization' propounded in the late 1950s and the 1960s, predominantly by US theorists. "This 'dominant' model proposed a single global process of modernization through a unilinear diffusion of Western technologies, social institutions, modes of living, and value systems to the eponymous 'Third World'".

Schiller thought the communication technologies were not value-neutral instruments but imbued with capitalist values; language (for instance English as global lingua franca);

business practices; the genre as well as content of soap operas, blockbusters, popular music etc. Schiller saw media as a central element in the global expansion of capitalism centred on the US, fuelled by advertising and consumerism.

From the 1980s onwards, the media imperialism thesis has been under sustained attack. This largely owes to the notion that there are now “reverse currents”. Giddens went as far as to claim “reverse colonization”, exemplified by the export of Brazilian television programmes to Portugal and the Mexicanization of southern California. It is pointed out that the simple image of Western dominion obscures the complex and reciprocal nature of interaction between different and increasingly hybridized cultures over centuries. It is also argued that global media enterprises have been forced to adapt to local cultures, and to link up with local partners, in order to sustain their expansion. Similarly, the media imperialism thesis is criticised for underestimating local resistance to American domination .

Sreberny (2001) thinks media imperialism was a ‘problematic argument both theoretically and empirically from the beginning’ mainly because:

1. Broadcasting did not develop with world domination in mind, even if some of its spread has been consonant with Western foreign policy interests. State-control, back in 1970s, neutralised unidirectional ‘free flow of information’. A majority was not even exposed to Western influences as they had no access to TV. The colonial legacies (Christianity, language, education etc) and other industries (fashion, tourism, architecture, consumer durables) had more enduring effect than media. Hence, focus on part (media) cannot be read for whole.
2. ‘By the year 2001 there are many significant culture industries in the South: Globo in Brazil, and Televisa in Mexico produce telenovelas; a huge multimedia complex near Cairo supports the production of Islamic soap operas which Turkey also produces. And if the focus shifts away from television alone to include other cultural products, the diversity increases: Bollywood for instance, the Eastern challenge to Hollywood in the sheer number of film titles produced yearly, with the Asian diaspora constituting sizeable audiences. The Iranian and Chinese film industries are gaining global recognition and audiences. The marketing of ‘old music’ has helped the diffusion of Algerian, Senegalese, Cuban, and Brazilian contemporary music. The Indian Zee TV is a powerful

independent newscaster while Qatar's Al-Jazeera is revolutionizing factual programming in the Arab World.' Hence, the West does not dominate the Rest anymore.

3. New approaches to the 'active audiences' within media studies have forced a rethinking of international effects also.

4. More nuances are required, after all the three world conceptualization no longer exists. Given this conceptual lacuna, totalizing theories do not hold ground.

She concludes: "cultural imperialism always consisted of many discourses; the ongoing attempt to rewrap them into one through the trope of 'media imperialism' is an increasingly forlorn task. The world has changed and so must our language and our theoretical frames".

To such complaints, defenders respond by saying in effect that complexity is being invoked to obfuscate the continuing reality of Western cultural preponderance. Media activity, in this view, may be multidirectional but it is still very unequal. American and Western enterprises are dominant in certain key sectors, most notably film, news wholesaling, and computer operating systems. Relatively small number of transnational media corporations, mostly based in the USA, dominate media export market. The second counter-argument is that although there is global cultural diversity, it is being reconstructed by an underlying hegemonic dynamic. The dominant strain of global mass culture, according to Stuart Hall, "remains centered in the West...and it always speaks English".

Communication policies

Some countries have tried to establish policies that affect the flow of information and communication within and between them. UNESCO has defined communication policy as "sets of principles and norms established to guide the behavior of communication systems". Mowlana and Willson defines communication policy as "systematic, institutionalized principles, norms, and behavior that are designed through legal and regulatory procedures and /or perceived through historical understanding to guide formation, distribution, and control of the system in both its human and technological dimensions".

What would a national communication policy contain? The International Telecommunication Union suggests the following questions as the basis for national communication policy;

- What is the structure of the market?
- Which sectors are reserved for monopoly operator and which opened to competitors?
- What is the mix of government, mixed and private ownership?
- What are the conditions and rules of entry to the market?
- What is the allowable rate of return?
- Where is the locus of authority?
- What is the process of establishing new policies?
- How is compliance monitored and enforced?

It might seem unremarkable for a country to establish a policy to supervise the communication and information sector. After all some third world leaders have seen “national communication policies as being necessary to each country’s economic and social development and of a nature to motivate its citizens on behalf of such development.” A 1989 ITU report maintained that “an effective policy and regulatory process will help bring about greater specification of national policy objectives and ongoing accountability for performance... [and] should establish targets for telecommunication development.”

However, with exception of a few nations such as Brazil, India, and the People’s Republic of China, nations have little cohesive communication policy. Some countries have claimed that such policies would take the form of government censorship and would restrict or stop the international flow of information.

Lesson-10

UNESCO –MASS MEDIA DECLARATION

10.0 Objectives

After reading the lesson, the student, will learn about

- Meaning of international communication
- Need for international communication

STRUCTURE

10.1 Introduction

10.2 Mass media declaration

10.3 Preamble

10.3.1 The General Conference

10.3.2 Article I

10.3.3 Article II

10.3.4 Article III

10.3.5 Article IV

10.3.6 Article V

10.3.7 Article VI

10.3.8 Article VII

10.3.9 Article VIII

10.3.10 Article IX

10.3.11 Article X

10.3.12 Article XI

Introduction

United Nations educational scientific and cultural organization [UNESCO] works to create the conditions for dialogue among civilizations, cultures and peoples, based upon respect for commonly shared values. It is through this dialogue that the world can achieve global visions of sustainable development encompassing observance of human rights, mutual respect and the alleviation of poverty, all of which are at the heart of UNESCO'S mission and activities.

The broad goals and concrete objectives of the international community – as set out in the internationally agreed development goals, including the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) – underpin all UNESCO’s strategies and activities. Thus UNESCO’s unique competencies in education, the sciences, culture and communication and information contribute towards the realization of those goals.

UNESCO’s mission is to contribute to the building of peace, the eradication of poverty, sustainable development and intercultural dialogue through education, the sciences, culture, communication and information. The Organization focuses, in particular, on two global priorities: Africa and Gender equality

- And on a number of overarching objectives:
- Attaining quality education for all and lifelong learning
- Mobilizing science knowledge and policy for sustainable development
- Addressing emerging social and ethical challenges
- Fostering cultural diversity, intercultural dialogue and a culture of peace
- Building inclusive knowledge societies through information and communication

Mass media declaration

Declaration on Fundamental Principles concerning the Contribution of the Mass Media to Strengthening Peace and International Understanding, to the Promotion of Human Rights and to Countering Racialism, apartheid and incitement to war. 28 November 1978

Preamble

The General Conference. Recalling that by virtue of its Constitution the purpose of UNESCO is to ‘contribute to peace and security by promoting collaboration among the nations through education, science and culture in order to further universal respect for justice, for the rule of law and for the human rights and fundamental freedoms’ (Art. I, 1), and that to realize this purpose the Organization will strive ‘to promote the free flow of ideas by word and image’ (Art. I, 2),

Further recalling that under the Constitution the Member States of UNESCO, ‘believing in full and equal opportunities for education for all, in the unrestricted pursuit of objective truth, and in the free exchange of ideas and knowledge, are agreed and determined to develop and to increase the means of communication between their peoples

and to employ these means for the purposes of mutual understanding and a truer and more perfect knowledge of each other's lives'

(sixth preambular paragraph),

Recalling the purposes and principles of the United Nations, as specified in its Charter,
Recalling the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations in 1948 and particularly Article 19 thereof, which provides that 'everyone has the right to freedom of opinion and expression; this right includes freedom to hold opinions without interference and to seek, receive and impart information and ideas through any media and regardless of frontiers'; and the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations in 1966, Article 19 of which proclaims the same principles and Article 20 of which condemns incitement to war, the advocacy of national, racial or religious hatred and any form of discrimination, hostility or violence,

Recalling Article 4 of the International Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Racial Discrimination, adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations in 1965, and the International Convention on the Suppression and Punishment of the Crime of Apartheid, adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations in 1973, whereby the States acceding to these Conventions undertook to adopt immediate and positive measures designed to eradicate all incitement to, or acts of, racial discrimination, and agreed to prevent any encouragement of the crime of apartheid and similar segregationist policies or their manifestations, Recalling the Declaration on the Promotion among Youth of the Ideals of Peace, Mutual Respect and Understanding between Peoples, adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations in 1965,

Recalling the declarations and resolutions adopted by the various organs of the United Nations concerning the establishment of a new international economic order and the role UNESCO is called upon to play in this respect,

Recalling the Declaration of the Principles of International Cultural Co-operation, adopted by the General Conference of UNESCO in 1966,

Recalling Resolution 59(I) of the General Assembly of the United Nations, adopted in 1946 and declaring:

'Freedom of information is a fundamental human right and is the touchstone of all the freedoms to which the United Nations is consecrated;

. . . Freedom of information requires as an indispensable element the willingness and capacity to employ its privileges without abuse. It requires as a basic discipline the moral obligation to seek the facts without prejudice and to spread knowledge without malicious intent;'

Recalling Resolution II O(I1) of the General Assembly of the United Nations, adopted in 1947, condemning all forms of propaganda which are designed or likely to provoke or encourage any threat to the peace, breach of the peace, or act of aggression,

Recalling resolution 127(11), also adopted by the General Assembly in 1947, which invites Member States to take measures, within the limits of constitutional procedures, to combat the diffusion of false or distorted reports likely to injure friendly relations between States, as well as the other resolutions of the General Assembly concerning the mass media and their contribution to strengthening peace, trust and friendly relations among States,

Recalling resolution 9.12 adopted by the General Conference of UNESCO in 1968, reiterating UNESCO's objective to help to eradicate colonialism and racialism, and resolution 12.1 adopted by the General Conference in 1976, which proclaims that colonialism, neo-colonialism and racialism in all its forms and manifestations are incompatible with the fundamental aims of UNESCO.

Recalling resolution 4.301 adopted in 1970 by the General Conference of UNESCO on the contribution of the information media to furthering international understanding and co-operation in the interests of peace and human welfare, and to countering propaganda on behalf of war, racialism, apartheid and hatred among nations, and aware of the fundamental contribution that mass media can make to the realization of these objectives, Recalling the Declaration on Race and Racial Prejudice adopted by the General Conference of UNESCO at its twentieth session,

Conscious of the complexity of the problems of information in modern society, of the diversity of solutions which have been offered to them, as evidenced in particular by the consideration given to them within UNESCO, and of the legitimate desire of all parties

concerned that their aspirations, points of view and cultural identity be taken into due consideration,

Conscious of the aspirations of the developing countries for the establishment of a new, more just and more effective world information and communication order,

Proclaims on this twenty-eighth day of November 1978 this Declaration on Fundamental Principles concerning the Contribution of the Mass Media to Strengthening Peace and International Understanding, to the Promotion of Human Rights and to Countering Racialism, Apartheid and Incitement to War.

Article I

The strengthening of peace and international understanding, the promotion of human rights and the countering of racialism, apartheid and incitement to war demand a free flow and a wider and better balanced dissemination of information. To this end, the mass media have a leading contribution to make. This contribution will be the more effective to the extent that the information reflects the different aspects of the subject dealt with.

Article II

1. The exercise of freedom of opinion, expression and information, recognized as an integral part of human rights and fundamental freedoms, is a vital factor in the strengthening of peace and international understanding.

2. Access by the public to information should be guaranteed by the diversity of the sources and means of information available to it, thus enabling each individual to check the accuracy of facts and to appraise events objectively. To this end, journalists must have freedom to report and the fullest possible facilities of access to information. Similarly, it is important that the mass media be responsive to concerns of peoples and individuals, thus promoting the participation of the public in the elaboration of information.

3. With a view to the strengthening of peace and international understanding, to promoting human rights and to countering racialism, apartheid and incitement to war, the mass media through out the world, by reason of their role, contribute to promoting human rights, in particular by giving expression to oppressed peoples who struggle against colonialism, neo-colonialism, foreign occupation and all forms of racial discrimination

and oppression and who are unable to make their voices heard within their own territories.

4. If the mass media are to be in a position to promote the principles of this Declaration in their activities, it is essential that journalists and other agents of the mass media, in their own country or abroad, be assured of protection guaranteeing them the best conditions for the exercise of their profession.

Article III

1. The mass media have an important contribution to make to the strengthening of peace and international understanding and in countering racialism, apartheid and incitement to war.

2. In countering aggressive war, racialism, apartheid and other violations of human rights which are inter alia spawned by prejudice and ignorance, the mass media, by disseminating information on the aims, aspirations, cultures and needs of all peoples, contribute to eliminate ignorance and misunderstanding between peoples, to make nationals of a country sensitive to the needs and desires of others, to ensure the respect of the rights and dignity of all nations, all peoples and all individuals without distinction of race, sex, language, religion or nationality and to draw attention to the great evils which afflict humanity, such as poverty, malnutrition and diseases, thereby promoting the formulation by States of the policies best able to promote the reduction of international tension and the peaceful and equitable settlement of international disputes.

Article IV

The mass media have an essential part to play in the education of young people in a spirit of peace, justice, freedom, mutual respect and understanding, in order to promote human rights, equality of rights as between all human beings and all nations, and economic and social progress. Equally, they have an important role to play in making known the views and aspirations of the younger generation.

Article V

In order to respect freedom of opinion, expression and information and in order that information may reflect all points of view, it is important that the points of view presented by those who consider that the information published or disseminated about them has seriously prejudiced their effort to strengthen peace and international

understanding, to promote human rights or to counter racialism, apartheid and incitement to war be disseminated.

Article VI

For the establishment of a new equilibrium and greater reciprocity in the flow of information, which will be conducive to the institution of a just and lasting peace and to the economic and political independence of the developing countries, it is necessary to correct the inequalities in the flow of information to and from developing countries, and between those countries. To this end, it is essential that their mass media should have conditions and resources enabling them to gain strength and expand, and to co-operate both among themselves and with the mass media in developed countries.

Article VII

By disseminating more widely all of the information concerning the universally accepted objectives and principles which are the bases of the resolutions adopted by the different organs of the United Nations, the mass media contribute effectively to the strengthening of peace and international understanding, to the promotion of human rights, and to the establishment of a more just and equitable international economic order.

Article VIII

Professional organizations, and people who participate in the professional training of journalists and other agents of the mass media and who assist them in performing their functions in a responsible manner should attach special importance to the principles of this Declaration when drawing up and ensuring application of their codes of ethics.

Article IX

In the spirit of this Declaration, it is for the international community to contribute to the creation of the conditions for a free flow and wider and more balanced dissemination of information, and of the conditions for the protection, in the exercise of their functions, of journalists and other agents of the mass media. UNESCO is well placed to make a valuable contribution in this respect.

Article X

1. With due respect for constitutional provisions designed to guarantee freedom of information and for the applicable international instruments and agreements, it is indispensable to create and maintain throughout the world the conditions which make it

possible for the organizations and persons professionally involved in the dissemination of information to achieve the objectives of this Declaration.

2. It is important that a free flow and wider and better balanced dissemination of information been encouraged.

3. To this end, it is necessary that States facilitate the procurement by the mass media in the developing countries of adequate conditions and resources enabling them to gain strength and expand, and that they support co-operation by the latter both among themselves and with the mass media in developed countries.

4. Similarly, on a basis of equality of rights, mutual advantage and respect for the diversity of the cultures which go to make up the common heritage of mankind, it is essential that bilateral and multilateral exchanges of information among all States, and in particular between those which have different economic and social systems, be encouraged and developed.

Article XI

For this Declaration to be fully effective it is necessary, with due respect for the legislative and administrative provisions and the other obligations of Member States, to guarantee the existence of favourable conditions for the operation of the mass media, in conformity with the provisions of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and with the corresponding principles proclaimed in the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations in 1966.

Lesson-11

NEW WORLD INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION ORDER

11.0 Objectives

After reading the lesson, the student, will conversant about

- Meaning of international communication

STRUCTURE

11.1 Introduction

11.2 Issues

11.3 Response of the United States

Introduction

The New World Information and Communication Order (NWICO or NWIO) is a term that was coined in a debate over media representations of the developing world in UNESCO in the late 1970s and early 1980s. The term was widely used by the MacBride Commission, a UNESCO panel chaired by Nobel Peace Prize laureate Sean MacBride, which was charged with creation of a set of recommendations to make global media representation more equitable. The MacBride Commission produced a report titled "Many Voices, One World", which outlined the main philosophical points of the New World Information Communication Order. The fundamental issues of imbalances in global communication had been discussed for some time. The American media scholar Wilbur Schramm noted in 1964 that the flow of news among nations is thin, that much attention is given to developed countries and little to less-developed ones that important events are ignored and reality is distorted. From a more radical perspective, Herbert Schiller observed in 1969 that developing countries had little meaningful input into decisions about radio frequency allocations for satellites at a key meeting in Geneva in 1963. Schiller pointed out that many satellites had military applications. Intelsat which was set up for international co-operation in satellite communication was also dominated by the United States. In the 1970s these and other issues were taken up by the Non-Aligned Movement and debated within the United Nations and UNESCO.

NWICO grew out of the New International Economic Order of 1974. From 1976-1978, the New World Information and Communication Order was generally called the shorter New World Information Order or the New International Information Order. The start of this discussion is the New World Information and Communication Order (NWICO) as associated with the United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) starting from the early 1970s. Mass media concerns began with the meeting of non-aligned nations in Algiers, 1973; again in Tunis 1976, and later in 1976 at the New Delhi Ministerial Conference of Non-Aligned Nations. The 'new order' plan was textually formulated by Tunisia's Information Minister Mustapha Masmoudi. Masmoudi submitted working paper No. 31 to the MacBride Commission. These proposals of 1978 were titled the 'Mass Media Declaration.' The MacBride Commission at the time was a 16-member body created by UNESCO to study communication issues.

Among those involved in the movement was the Latin American Institute for the Study of Transnationals (ILET). One of its co-founders, Juan Somavia was a member of the MacBride Commission. Another important voice was Mustapha Masmoudi, the Information Minister for Tunisia. In a Canadian radio program in 1983, Tom McPhail describes how the issues were pressed within UNESCO in the mid-1970s when the USA withheld funding to punish the organization for excluding Israel from a regional group of UNESCO. Some OPEC countries and a few socialist countries made up the amount of money and were able to get senior positions within UNESCO. NWICO issues were then advanced at an important meeting in 1976 held in Costa Rica.

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

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

Issues

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

1. News reporting on the developing world that reflects the priorities of news agencies in London, Paris and New York. Reporting of natural disasters and military coups rather than the fundamental realities. At the time four major news agencies controlled over 80% of global news flow.
2. An unbalanced flow of mass media from the developed world (especially the United States) to the underdeveloped countries. Everyone watches American movies and television shows.
3. Advertising agencies in the developed world have indirect but significant effects on mass media in the developing countries. Some observers also judged the messages of these ads to be inappropriate for the Third World.
4. An unfair division of the radio spectrum. A small number of developed countries controlled almost 90% of the radio spectrum. Much of this was for military use.
5. There were similar concerns about the allocation of the geostationary orbit (parking spots in space) for satellites. At the time only a small number of developed countries had satellites and it was not possible for developing countries to be allocated a space that they might need ten years later. This might mean eventually getting a space that was more difficult and more expensive to operate.
6. Satellite broadcasting of television signals into Third World countries without prior permission was widely perceived as a threat to national sovereignty. The UN voted in the early 1970s against such broadcasts.
7. Use of satellites to collect information on crops and natural resources in the Third World at a time when most developing countries lacked the capacity to analyse this data.
8. At the time most mainframe computers were located in the United States and there were concerns about the location of databases (such as airline reservations) and the difficulty of developing countries catching up with the US lead in computers.

9. The protection of journalists from violence was raised as an issue for discussion. For example, journalists were targeted by various military dictatorships in Latin America in the 1970s. As part of NWICO debates there were suggestions for study on how to protect journalists and even to discipline journalists who broke "generally recognized ethical standards". However, the MacBride Commission specifically came out against the idea of licensing journalists.

Response of the United States

The United States was hostile to NWICO. According to some analysts, the United States saw these issues simply as barriers to the free flow of communication and to the interests of American media corporations. It disagreed with the MacBride report at points where it questioned the role of the private sector in communications. It viewed the NWICO as dangerous to freedom of the press by ultimately putting an organization run by governments at the head of controlling global media, potentially allowing for censorship on a large scale. From another perspective, the MacBride Commission recommendations requiring the licensing of journalists amounted to prior censorship and ran directly counter to basic US law on the freedom of expression.

These disputes might have been resolved, but the debate was politicized by the Reagan Administration which was largely hostile to the United Nations and its specialized agencies. There were also accusations of corruption at the highest level of UNESCO leadership in Paris. The US eventually withdrew its membership in UNESCO (as did the United Kingdom and Singapore) at the end of 1984. The matter was complicated by debates within UNESCO about Israel's archaeological work in the city of Jerusalem, and about the Apartheid regime in South Africa. The U.S. rejoined in 2003.

Lesson-12

Mc BRIDE COMMISSION

12.0 Objectives

After reading the lesson, the student, will conversant about

- Need for international communication
- Mac Bride Commission

STRUCTURE

12.1 Mac Bride report

12.2 The MacBride Commission

Introduction

Many Voices One World, also known as the MacBride report, was a 1980 UNESCO publication written by the International Commission for the Study of Communication Problems, chaired by Irish Nobel laureate Sean MacBride. Its aim was to analyze communication problems in modern societies, particularly relating to mass media and news, consider the emergence of new technologies, and to suggest a kind of communication order (New World Information and Communication Order) to diminish these problems to further peace and human development.

Among the problems the report identified were concentration of the media, commercialization of the media, and unequal access to information and communication. The commission called for democratization of communication and strengthening of national media to avoid dependence on external sources, among others. Subsequently, Internet-based technologies considered in the work of the Commission, served as a means for furthering MacBride's visions.

While the report had strong international support, it was condemned by the United States and the United Kingdom as an attack on the freedom of the press, and both countries withdrew from UNESCO in protest in 1984 and 1985, respectively (and later rejoined in 2003 and 1997, respectively).

The MacBride Commission

The International Commission for the Study of Communication Problems was set up in 1977 by the director of UNESCO Ahmadou-Mahtar M'Bow, under suggestion by the USA delegation. It was agreed that the commission would be chaired by Sean MacBride from Ireland and representatives from 15 other countries, invited due to their roles in national and international communication activities and picked among media activists, journalists, scholars, and media executives.

The members of the MacBride Commission were: Alie Abel (USA), Hubert Beuve-Méry (France), Elebe Ma Ekonzo (Zaire), Gabriel García Márquez (Colombia), Sergei Losev (Soviet Union), Mochtar Lubis (Indonesia), Mustapha Masmoudi (Tunisia), Michio Nagai (Japan), Fred Isaac Akporuaro Omu (Nigeria), Bogdan Osolnik (Yugoslavia), Gamal El Oteifi (Egypt), Johannes Pieter Pronk (Netherlands), Juan Somavía (Chile), Boobli George Verghese (India), Betty Zimmerman (Canada), in substitution of Marshal McLuhan, then ill

The commission presented a preliminary report in October 1978 at the 20th General Conference of UNESCO in Paris. The Commission's seminal session on new technologies to address the identified problems, was hosted by India at New Delhi in March 1979. The final report was delivered to M'Bow in April 1980 and was approved by consensus in the 21st General Conference of UNESCO in Belgrade. The commission dissolved after presenting the report. Because of controversy surrounding the report and the withdrawal of support by the UNESCO leadership in the 1980s for its ideas, the book went out of print and was difficult to obtain. A book on the history of the United States and UNESCO was even threatened with legal action and forced to include a disclaimer that UNESCO was in no way involved with it. The MacBride report was eventually reprinted by Rowman and Littlefield in the US.

Lesson-13

THE RISE AND FALL OF NWICO

13.0 Objectives

After reading the lesson the student will be conversant with

- Emergence of NWICO
- Role of mass media in development process

STRUCTURE

13.1 Introduction

13.2 Emergence of NWICO

13.3 Role of Mass Media in development process

13.4 International Arena for issues relating to information and Communication

Introduction

Global news and information was subject of intense debate in international fora in the 1970s. News gathering and reporting has been controversial both within nations and between nations. Media debate was mainly centred on the principle of free flow of information by the Western countries and the East stressed on the need for state control.

The situation changed in the mid 1970s, the focus of dispute was broadened to include flows of other media products besides news which was assuming increasing importance in International relations.

Emergence of NWICO

“Development”, the process of evolution toward a modern society, occupied center stage. Scholars and development experts assigned mass communications a central role in the development process.

In the Cold War era the newly independent countries of the third world were of strategic importance to both East and West. Development aid was an important factor for “winning the hearts and minds” of developing countries. New patron-client relationships emerged; old, established ones evolved.

The successes achieved by the oil-producing countries in OPEC in the 1970s strengthened the position of the third world as a bargaining partner (albeit rising fuel prices had serious impacts on some developing countries). In succeeding years, the third world made its voice heard in international fora as never before, formulating programs for far reaching reform. A set of demands that would result in a New International Economic Order was put on the agenda; demands for reform of existing patterns of news and information flows – in short: a new international information order – were soon to follow. But a new international information order, in the sense its authors intended, was not to be. After some brief years of debate, the issue disappeared from international agendas.

Role of Mass Media in development process

Two paradigms of development

The issue of a new international information order is bound up with ideas about the role of communication in the development of societies, on the one hand, and the relations between developed and developing countries, on the other. The purpose of development is to improve the living conditions of the members of a society. Development is at once a process and a goal. What is needed to bring about development and what constitutes “better living conditions” have been bones of contention ever since the days surrounding national independence from the colonial powers, starting in the late 1950s, and continuing into the 1970s.

National development arose as an issue in the wake of the Second World War, and the issue made its entry onto the international agenda in the 1950s. Initially, ‘development’ was mainly a question of economic growth, i.e., a steady and lasting increase in productivity and per capita income. There was an unshaken faith in technology and ‘knowhow’. Two different schools of thought developed. The more dominant of the two envisioned “the passing of traditional society” (Lerner 1958), in favor of a modern, Western-style nation-state.

Gradually, ‘development’ came to include political, social and cultural spheres, as well. The other

school took its starting point in the model of socialist societies in Eastern Europe, China and Cuba and aimed, with assistance from the Soviet Union, to create nation-states with planned economies. Here, the motor force was not the market, but political decision-making. These models of development coincided with the emergence of nationalist movements in many colonies in Asia and Africa. Modernism was part of the legacy of the colonial metropole, and the idea of a nation-state met strong and widespread resistance. At independence, however, European models of the nation-state prevailed. The new countries were in great need of assistance to combat poverty, illiteracy and unemployment. Concepts of development were therefore paramount in politics and the economic sphere.

Thus, the world of the 1960s was polarized along two dimensions: capitalism vs communism, and developed vs underdeveloped. These two dichotomies produce four worlds (Worsley 1984), but the third and fourth of these worlds, i.e., the underdeveloped countries adhering to capitalist and communist/socialist ideologies, respectively, melded and came to be referred to as the 'third world'. Their shared history and social and economic situation was more dominant than any differences that may have arisen after independence. The countries of the third world were all characterized by low degrees of industrialization, low per capita income, high rates of infant mortality, poor standard of public health, illiteracy, and extreme inequality.

The development process became a prime focus in the contest to win the third world countries over. The role of mass media also assumed prominence in this process, not least due to technological advances. Scholars who have studied development in the post-war period up to the 1970s have identified phenomena and precepts that form two separate paradigms of development:

- *The modernization paradigm*: theories relating to modernization, political and economic development and technology transfer and
- *The dependence paradigm*: theories relating to imperialism and underdevelopment and revolution and liberation.

Where the modernization school saw the problems of developing countries as the result of characteristics inherent in the history of the territories, the dependence paradigm

pointed to underdevelopment as the result of capitalism and its expressions, colonialism and imperialism.

Ideology and Strategy

The concepts of 'development' and 'communication' are both partly normative; they stand for desirable forms of social change. As a consequence the modernization and dependence paradigms are normative.

In the modernization paradigm, communication is seen to facilitate or hasten progress toward a modern, as opposed to traditional, society. In the dependence paradigm, it is rather a question of media imperialism. The modernization paradigm is essentially optimistic, whereas the dependence paradigm is essentially pessimistic about development in the countries of the third world.

But the two paradigms also express ideological standpoints, if by ideology we mean a system of ideas, political-economic, about the nature of the world, what it should be, and how best to go about achieving the goal. Ideology consists, in other words, of the following components:

Features of the Modernization and Dependency Paradigms

Modernization

1. Western societies as a model – emphasis on economic growth
2. Causes of underdevelopment inherent in the countries themselves
3. Focus on the nation-state
4. Emphasis on individual freedoms
5. Mass media accorded a central role in the development process
6. Vertical pattern of communication – from the elite to the people.

Dependence

1. World systems perspective – development defined in terms of center and periphery
2. Underdevelopment ascribed to the industrialized capitalist powers of the West
3. Information gaps – underdevelopment in the periphery is prerequisite to development in the center
4. The mass media reinforce the dominance of the metropole over its satellites
5. A country in the periphery must strive for self-reliance and liberation from the world system

6. Emphasis on social equality.

The Cold War polarized ideological debates into two camps, a classical Liberal and a Marxist. The polarization is reflected in the two paradigms of development. Liberal features of the modernization paradigm are, for example, the norm of individual freedom and a preference for social change by consensus. The focus rests on the nation-state, and on internal dynamics in the development process. The dependence paradigm, on the other hand, is well aligned with Marxist theory, tending philosophically toward materialism and emphasizing social equality as a norm. Its approach to society is essentially conflict-oriented, and analyses focus on world capitalism as a system and on center-periphery dynamics in the development process.

The modernization paradigm was dominant in the 1950s and 1960s, and the views that characterize that paradigm largely coincide with the approach to development, with a decided emphasis on development assistance, that was embraced by the UN and UNESCO at that time. But when exponents of the dependence paradigm, who were critical of the modernization approach, demanded a change in policy in the 1960s, it marked the start of a 'war of ideas' in the international arena. In for a like the UN and UNESCO each national representative had access to the floor and could air his views. It was here that the non-aligned nations formed an alliance to demand a new international information order.

International Arena for issues relating to information and Communication

The concept of "free flow of information" was formulated in the USA in the final throes of the Second World War. No national frontiers should be allowed to hinder the flow of information between countries. Before the war, Europe and the USA had shared control over the international news market. The USA was, however, excluded from the extensive territories under the control of colonial powers Great Britain and France, who controlled the flows of information in their colonies. Even while the war was still raging, it was apparent that the USA would emerge from it as a world power. The U.S. saw before them a world without colonial ties, a world that lay open for an expansive economy in the U.S. The information sector was a key factor in paving the way for economic expansion.

Lesson-14

IMPACT OF INTERNET ON INTERNATIONAL NEWS

FLOW

14.0 Objectives

After reading the lesson, the student, will learn about

- History of Internet
- News flow between first world and third world countries

STRUCTURE

- 14.1 Introduction
- 14.2 News flow and the first world: Paradoxes in the age of globalization
- 14.3 High hopes for the web
- 14.4 Online realities
- 14.5 Audiences and options
- 14.6 Customization and news content creation
- 14.7 Conclusion

Introduction

Technologically, the Internet is the most global medium in the history of humanity. It shakes up traditional distinctions between local, foreign and international news. On the other hand, it would also appear that many news institutions in cyberspace still retain the character of prior media in regard to three features: preferencing local and national news, domesticating news about other countries, and reflecting imbalanced flows between First and Third World countries. While some First World media, both online and offline are chanting the mantra of becoming ‘hyperlocal’, it is much of the rest of the world that experiences the Internet as an international medium, albeit from a subordinate cultural and linguistic position. However, there are prospects for a new alignment.

The New World Information and Communication Order (NWICO) of the 1970s and 1980s reflected inter alia a major concern around ‘imbalanced’ international news. State-backed Third World news agencies were deemed to be a partial solution. The thrust petered out under pressure on UNESCO by the USA and the UK and the 1990s saw neo-

liberal economics and media policies assume centre stage around much of the world. Some assumed that the global media system would consequently become a single integrated, commercial communication system dominated by US-based super companies. However, the contemporary scenario is not unfolding quite along these lines. One reason is the rise of regional media power centres. Another is how the Internet disrupts the original assumptions about the centrality of news agencies as international communications institutions, and which --- through its granular network --- constitutes a very different structure to that of 'old' media industry models of radio, television and the press. As an example of the new complexity, it may once have been possible (albeit difficult --- see MacBride, 2000: 145/6) to measure how much mainstream news in Third World countries originated from the First World. Nowadays, however, any media house or individual with a website can be akin to an international news distributor. If this signals a change in the *distribution* of news, then another example highlights the challenge to old thinking about how locality is linked to *production*. During 2007, a California-based publisher outsourced his city council coverage to India, on the basis that his local information sources were all accessible electronically.. On this model, a foreign-based correspondent would be hired to report on local news.

To explore the shifts underlying such examples requires a working definition of 'international news', a phrase that means different things to different people (Hargrove & Stempel III, 2002). Likewise, the meaning of the term 'local news' shifts depending on whether it is counterposed to 'foreign news' or to 'city', 'regional', 'national', 'international' or 'global' news. Hachten and Scotton (2002) use the phrases 'transnational journalism', 'transnational news media', and 'international news', but without really defining these..

This article proposes to distinguish between different components of news which relate to geo-spatial issues, especially as regards extra-national dimensions. One concerns the *source of production* (which as in the California case above, does not necessarily render a resulting news flow 'foreign'). The second dimension concerns 'text' in regard to the *character of the content*. This refers to whether the content is about the geo-spatial environments relevant to the audience. As we shall see, in a globally interdependent universe, this is not just about the immediate spatial locality, but may also often include a

great deal of 'foreign' news. A third consideration is the *distribution* of news --- i.e. the actual flow and contra-flow of content. Lastly, the geographical location of *audiences* may also need to be taken into account. Any single one of these four variables can impact on the definition about a given news transaction.

Informed by this thinking, the following working senses are adopted: 'Transnational' news refers to content produced in, and also importantly usually about and for, one national space, and which is then distributed without change to another --- for example in the case of diasporic communities watching satellite TV feeds of 'home' news which can be produced from anywhere, but with a view to serving audiences worldwide almost irrespective of national or domestic interests --- such as de facto communities of common interest in environmentalism or worldwide football. 'International news' refers to news produced in and about a national or international space, but which is domesticated for consumption by a particular imagined audience within a given nation state and which is assumed to have a corresponding national identity and interest. 'Local' news in this perspective may designate any kinds of news items that are neither global nor international --- i.e. news about domestic affairs. This is a broad sense that is different to the 'hyperlocal' connotations of neighbourhood news to be discussed later. Extra-national news is that which signifies dimensions beyond the national (and thus beyond the 'local' or domestic).

In this schema, 'foreign news' is a particular subset of 'international' and of 'global' news. It does not include all 'international news' --- such as content about what happens within a given country (and is consumed there), but which has an international dimension to its referent. For example, 'international news' could encompass content about foreign visitors and even about xenophobia or immigrants who are not yet 'domiciled'.

What is significant here is that the foreign dimension of local stories, and the local dimension of foreign stories, means that both are internationalized --- but they nonetheless still have different referents. The latter type falls within foreign news, as can much of global news, when seen from the point of view of an imagined receiving national audience. There is also the issue of those foreign stories in their own, stand-alone and undomesticated, right, which are in the experience of transnational news.

Specifically ‘foreign’ news is therefore conceptualized in this article as being content about a country or countries different to that of the audience which a given media organization may be targeting. Hannerz (2004: 32) reminds us that ‘foreign’ is to do with national boundaries which are a lived, socially constructed and regulated spatial notion. This accords with the argument, that ‘the majority of foreign news is domestic news about foreign countries, not international news’. The point is that the definition of foreign news is not intrinsic to particular content, but relative to a nation-state vantage point. As such it can be broken down into three sub-species --- news that is tailored to domestic interests (i.e. some kinds of international news), news that can be characterized as transnational, and news that has no domestic connection at all (i.e. many kinds of global news).

It merits noting that not all global news is necessarily ‘foreign’. For instance, a decision by the USA to raise interest rates is a global story, but not foreign to media consumers within the USA. The broad schema outlined above, with its different packages of spatial dimensions. In practice, many instances of news may be hybrids. More importantly, however, the Internet fundamentally challenges these notions. It up-ends historical assumptions about ‘old media’-linked distinctions between national and foreign with regard to the locale of the creators, the character of the content, distribution flows, and even the geography of the audience.

The conceptual distinctions being made here can help in understanding the impact of the Internet on the geographicality of news, given that this is a medium where content can simultaneously count as all these variants, in varying degrees. For example, a website report on Paris Hilton entering a US prison to serve a sentence can signify as a local story to users in the area of the jail, and equally as a global story to people in New Zealand. This is irrespective of production locality or intended audience of that production. In this way, the Internet disrupts the bundling of features that combine to make up each variant of news.

News flow and the First World: paradoxes in the age of globalization.

That First World societies are typically characterized by a wide availability of the means of media production and consumption, does not necessarily translate into well-informed national populations --- at least as regards information about external events. It has been

remarked that '(f)or the American public, whose geographical illiteracy is well documented, it must seem the globe is spinning out of control.' This judgement, 13 years ago, by Griffin and Stevenson (1994: 937), would probably not be amiss in 2008, notwithstanding the continuing rise of the Internet as a mass medium in the USA. Yet, such insularity in a leading 'Information Rich' country, is also something of a paradox given intensified globalization. This is evident in the argument that 'foreign' today becomes 'local'. As Franks (2005: 100) has written: '...the demarcation between home and abroad is dissolving as never before. ... A London commuter worries about safety on the tube, but this is linked to what is going on in Pakistan and elsewhere'. A similar point is made by an editorial in *Editor & Publisher* (2006) that 'Readers in L.A., and New York, and Nebraska live in a globalized world where Windows help calls are answered in Bangalore...'. Likewise, Associated Press editor Burl Osborne has observed: 'If you understand that if the Middle East goes up in smoke, gas goes to \$5 a gallon, that's local. If your National Guard unit is in Afghanistan, that's a local story' (cited by Kirtz, 2002). Similarly, David Colton of *USA Today* has argued: '(F)oreign news isn't foreign anymore. It's domestic news. It's impossible to decouple what happens overseas with domestic' (cited by Seplow, 2002: 27). According to additional observers, previous distinctions are now anachronistic: 'In a world of increasingly porous borders, the lines between foreign and domestic blur for news just as they blur for commerce, health, culture, and the environment' (Hamilton & Jenner, 2002: 10). However, all these views go too far and erase the kinds of distinctions as made earlier, and instead conflate local (domestic) and foreign news, national and transnational, and all of these with the international and the global. They concentrate on the way 'text' relates to global interdependence, losing sight of the elements of production, distribution and audience consumption.

However, even the matter of textual reflection of globalization is often inadequately recognized in First World traditional media institutions. Back in 1996, Grier noted: 'International affairs remains an afterthought in many American newsrooms, despite trends in technology and trade that are tying the nations of the world closer together' (1996: 1). A year later, CNN contributor Garrick Uttley wrote: 'Paradoxically, broad viewer interest in world affairs is declining from its modest Cold War heights just

as U.S. global influence is reaching new levels ...' (1997: 6). More recently, Franks (2005: 91) was concluding: 'Just as it is more vital to understand what is happening across the globe, and it is simpler to report the story, we are less inclined to do it.' (See also PEJ, 2008).

One explanation for this 'lag' can be found by looking at what happens in production. An ASNE study in 1990 found that 41% of newspaper readers said they were very interested in foreign news, but just 5% of editors thought this was the case (Ayers, 1999, cited in Griffin and Stephenson, 1994: 939; see also Hughes, 1998; Kim 2002). In 2002, a Pew study noted that while 86% of newspaper editors said companies in their community had overseas investments, only 50% said that they covered these stories locally (Morris and Associates, 2002). Another production-linked explanation for paltry foreign coverage in the USA's old media has been the down-scaling of foreign bureaus. According to one observer, Tom Rosenstiel, this development has not been in response to reader demand, but in response to cost cutting (Seplow, 2002; see Ginsberg, 2002: 51.) Indeed, it has been argued that, historically, foreign news has emanated from where the correspondents were sent --- rather than correspondents being deployed to where the news is (Van Ginneken, 1998: 143; Knickmeyer, 2005).

These longstanding factors on the 'supply side' account much for the seemingly longterm downward trend in international coverage in the USA, despite a pause in 2001 when the September 11 attacks put global affairs back on the country's media map. In response at that point, USA papers carried more front page stories on Afghanistan in four months than in the previous four decades, according to Parks (2002). But editors' perceptions remain a factor as evident in a Pew survey in 2002 which showed that 64% of these news arbiters expected that their 'newshole' for international stories would revert to previous levels. In contrast, in terms of expressed interest, audiences in the USA during 2006 said they remained almost as interested in international as national and local news (Pew, July 2006).

This dimension draws attention to the extent to which audiences may impact (or not) on defining and driving different forms of news. While production-related issues are highly significant, it is also important to balance them with audience consumption and how both relate to text. Thus, one can note the probability that the US public interest noted above

was in Iraq in particular, and not all foreign news (see Dimitrova et al, 2005: 28). As one writer observes, even in the 'golden age' of international coverage in the USA, there was not a lot of news on the world --- just on the Cold War countries (see McClellan, 2001). It has also been observed that '(m)ost international news is domestic news about Americans making news overseas, whether as soldiers, victims of terror or lawbreakers' (Gains, 2003: 94, cited by Gartner 2004: 142; Kim, 2002). A foreign country is seen mainly in relation to how it affects the USA (Silverstein 1993: 35). Various studies (see for example, Clausen, 2003) have emphasized how international news is largely angled in every country in order to appeal to national audiences becoming the 'international news' subset in the conceptual schema of this article. For instance, stories of the 9.11 commemoration in 2002 carried by broadcasters around the world were all 'domesticated' to suit their national audiences (Clausen, 2004).

As per NWICO concerns, there are sometimes qualitative consequences of such angling of stories. First, in the USA it has arguably meant that leading print media have taken their cues from the White House (Silverstein, 1993). Second, as critics argue, the problem is that what does get represented is often skewed towards violence, accident and repression, while seldom covering social, cultural, or scientific issues (Grier, 1996). A former Associated Press staffer describes how her staff loss in Africa (to covering Iraq) meant only doing must-cover news like wars and coups (Knickmeyer, 2005).

It has also been frequently argued that domestic-referenced foreign news is further compounded by exhibiting stereotypes, and being episodic and meaningless (Franks, 2005: 99). In addition, not all such international news is treated equivalently: there is a 'foreign Other' and a 'familiar Other' (Shoemaker, 1999; Franks, 2005: 91), with the former, for audiences in the developed world, being more negatively framed (Beaudoin & Thorson, 2001). Much international news is thus said to breed a clichéd view and image fatigue, and also a representation in which women, the elderly and children are either invisible or objectified (Beaudoin & Thorson, 2001). In addition, concern has extended to the realm of distribution: because much international news content historically has come from Western agencies, negative imagery then plays not just in the USA, but also in many developing countries.

Against this backdrop, a key question to explore is the Internet's potential in relation to changing narcissism and problematic representations in extra-national news. A host of other questions also arise. Are the producers and consumers of online media content subject to the same field of vision and adaptation of content, as described in the picture painted above? And given that online news media in First World countries are no longer a pure reflection of the parent medium (PEJ 2007), plus given their infinite news hole and potentially global audience, might it be expected that they could constitute a different kind of 'animal' as regards the news agenda and even the definition of 'foreign news'? Are stand-alone producers of online content (like bloggers) less likely to focus on negative news than the mainstream media is often said to do? Are online audiences likely to bypass the local media for foreign websites? The answers to these questions require both detailed conceptual and empirical research, and the exploration in this article is of the issues relevant to such an exercise.

High hopes for the web

Any Internet presence translates simultaneously into a worldwide presence whether intended or not (barring those instances where site operators restrict access to certain Internet addresses, or where governments block traffic to a foreign site deemed offensive) (Lamont, 2005). This has given rise to optimistic speculation about the viability of a worldwide public sphere. Several authors have proposed that: 'Globalization and the Internet have created a space for news and political discourse that overrides geography' (Reese et al. 2006: 1). They also postulate that the online environment 'deterritorializes' news, such that the user, creator, and news subject need no longer share the same national frame of reference...', and that: 'We would expect that the open nature of the Internet world inevitably leads to cross-national connections ...' (2006: 4).

Elsewhere, Reese (nd) remarks that '...the nation-state, or even the local community, organising principle no longer dominates.' Going even further, and effectively claiming a promise already fulfilled, US journalist Dirk Smillie has written that 'foreign news is finding its niche on the net' because 'the medium matches the message. ...by definition, the Internet is international' (Smillie, 1997). A further point in this perspective is that the Internet can compensate for the historical failures of old media provision: 'The ability of the public to get foreign news for itself may offer one of the

best solutions to dwindling foreign reporting by traditional media.’ (Hamilton & Jenner, 2002: 21).

But such positive visions need to be tempered. Firstly, most people still lack access to the Internet. Secondly, national identities are still indisputably very much in existence in online news (see Chyi, and Sylvie, 2001), and accordingly, the notion of ‘foreign’ as designating ‘Otherness’ still retains some validity. It would be illusory to ignore the enduring status of McQuail’s 1994 proposition that ‘mass media institutions are still overwhelmingly national in character’ (cited by Dimitrova et al, 2005: 35). This is even when, like NewsCorp, their activities span many different parts of the world. This assessment applies also to online publications which in theory can target a global audience, or international audiences, but which do not do so, judging at least from a study of 246 news web sites in 48 countries (Dimitrova et al, 2005). To the extent that it exists online, a global public sphere is certainly not a homogenous or cosmopolitanized one. Similarly, it can be argued that the intended character of *most* news texts that go online is, in the first instance, local or national, perhaps sometimes even international or transnational, but only infrequently global.

Third, the geography of global online content production and distribution is another sobering constraint. In this regard, it is significant to note whether a country is a net importer or exporter of Internet content (no matter whether such content is about local or foreign subject matter). In countries without strong production capabilities for online content (including exogenous content), web users may logically surf to places where there is such content, even if it is not ‘domesticated’ to their national vantage points or in a language that is fully understandable to them. In this regard, there are global imbalances. Thus, North American and Western European countries in 2001 accounted for close to 90% of the domain names in the world, but only 66% of Internet users (Zook, 2001). In some ways, this reflects the continuing truth of the statement by Sean MacBride (1980, pp. 145-8): ‘The one-way flow in communication is basically a reflection of the world’s dominant political and economic structures, which tend to maintain or reinforce the dependence of the poorer countries on the richer.’ Asymmetrical dynamics in the global experience of the Internet run counter to the view of homogenous de-territorialized users each seamlessly clicking on content from, or

about, far-away places. A related point to acknowledge is that, according to Thackara (2005), there is a 'law of locality' in network design in the USA, whereby 80% of Internet traffic is local; 95% within the continent, and only 5% intercontinental. Further, between 1997 and 1999, 30% of all US traffic never even crossed the national infrastructure, staying, rather, within a local metropolitan network.

What all this signifies is that despite high hopes for the Internet, several patterns remain that appear to be characteristic of old media and international news. As Figure 2 below proposes, six of eight dimensions are constant; there is only one area that is distinctly different, and only two of partial difference.

Online realities

To sum all this up, it can be posited that, in the context of the geographical imbalances in domain name registrations (and English language dominance), it is mainly developing country users who experience the extra-national potential of the Internet. For them, Western websites are likely to be large constituents of their online news diet and experienced as transnational news accordingly. There is some reverse traffic, but most consumption of online news in the First World seems to remain mainly within the same universe in which it is produced --- at least, with that universe towards which its content relevance is shaped.

What militates against the globalization of Western news sites' content and First World news consumers' behaviour is 'hyperlocalism', a recent media trend to focus on the immediate neighbourhood locality. Despite the involvement in recent years of the US and UK in wars many miles from their own territories, much of the media culture in each country has been promoting what is called 'hyperlocalism' or 'ultralocalism'. The rationale is that 'local' is the core (and main remaining) value proposition for newspapers (and also most broadcasters) when almost all other content is claimed to be available online (and free). The local and hyperlocal spaces, in contrast, are seen as areas where media houses can do better than anyone else .

Added to the parochialism of the hyperlocalist focus, is online social networking. It has been argued that Web 2.0 is all about a give-and-take negotiation between hyperlocal and the global. But, impressionistically, this is not immediately evident in most of the content and discourse of key websites such as MySpace, Facebook and Flickr. This is

despite the involvement of many young middle-class people from developing countries.¹ It can be speculated that the value of global diversity tends to be effaced in such environments.

Meanwhile, a portion of Internet users based in the First World go to off-shore websites for foreign information and perspective. This was especially during the start of the Iraq war (Kohut, 2002; Kahney, 2003; Google, 2003). Around one quarter of US Internet news users visit foreign sites (according to Best et al, 2005), and these are places where the framing differs to that of the USA's sites (Dimitrova et al., 2005).

One can hypothesize that there is not much reflection of globalization within US news websites, and indeed that the conscious trend is to go the other way. In other countries, there does seem to be some rendering of global content into 'international news' in a number of news websites as a function of the national focus of each site (see Dimitrova et al., 2005). For many web users based outside of the First World, global content is experienced as a kind of transnational news (even on a scale of varying relevance and interests).

The picture, in short, is more mixed than a Utopian one, although it is also very different to that under contention in the NWICO and pre-Internet era.

Audiences and options

Earlier, this article cited the perceptions of editors as one explanation for the low levels of foreign news in US old media, and noted how these contrasted to the expressed interest by audiences. However, what is also significant is the actual interest shown by audiences. The whole area of audience studies was barely touched on in the original NWICO debates. But the matter certainly cannot be avoided in regard to cyberspace, which expands choices and empowers consumers in ways far beyond prior media forms.

Symptomatically, however, journalist Danny Westneat of the *Seattle Times* has written about the top 20 most clicked-upon stories in his paper in 2005: 'It's not a survey of what news you say you read. It's what you actually read.' Topping the list was a story about horse sex, and another four stories in the group were about the same incident. Only two on the list, it appears, had an international angle (Westneat, 2005). One of the most-emailed story on NYTimes.com for 2006 was about Western-style personal relationships.

In these instances at least, actual (online) audience interest in foreign news in the USA, as distinct from claimed interest. Probably, the Internet is not so different from old media.

However, it is not just US users who find allure in US domestic content. Research in 2006 found that ‘more than three-quarters of the traffic to Google, Yahoo!, and Microsoft is now coming from outside of the U.S.’. One can speculate that a fair portion of this is by pornography seekers whose domestic media environments (on or offline) do not offer this content. However, as regards news in particular, nearly one third of traffic to US news websites comes from outside the traditional offline distribution area

Interestingly, this dimension of globalization is not particularly welcomed by some online operators. High overseas audiences raise server costs, and they are often occasional, not regular, visitors and therefore hard to sell to local or national advertisers (see Thurman, 2005). There is a market in the USA for geo-targetting software that blocks sites to off-shore surfers (such as www.trafficassistant.com, and <http://georedirect.com>). Various online fora report that Yahoo’s advertising placement service has sought of participating websites that they screen out international traffic (see for example, www.webmasterworld.com/forum110/438.htm). Google by contrast delivers geo-specific advertising according to where a given site-visitor comes from (Jonas, 2007).

All this reinforces the impression of the Internet developing ‘gated cybercommunities’ (Tremayne, 2005), on national lines. Reinforcing this is news websites in the USA reducing external hyperlinks and favouring their own archive over content that is off-site (Tremayne, 2004). Similarly, 75% of 246 sites surveyed at the start of the Iraq war provided only internal links (Dimitrova et al 2005). While blogs in general tend to display more links off-site than traditional news sites, the point has also been made that the supra-national blogosphere is still underdeveloped (Reese et al 2006).

The irony therefore seems to be that online news, in the USA at least, has mainly a national character, though there is also a sizeable global audience. While such websites do not aim at a global audience, foreigners come anyway. The result suggests an information universe in which the US news agenda and perspectives are disproportionately large. Yet the flourishing Mexican, Brazilian, Indian and Nigerian audio-visual content sectors and indicators, much of the rest of the world will not be clicking on US websites for their (foreign) news needs indefinitely. This is also the case

in China, where language, culture and censorship appear to reduce the prevalence of US-news in Sino-cyberspace.

Customization and news content creation

Today any foreign-based site can be directly accessed; most also tend to cater to audiences within the host nation, and accordingly provide perspectives and languages that are domestically (rather than globally) targeted. But in the case of countries without dense online content of their own, it is not their particular national context at the centre. This internationalization of such First World online news content is not so much a deliberate strategy, but an unintended transnational news effect.

The global possibilities of the Internet also contradict the flexibility on both consumption and production sides that allows for unprecedented geo-customization of content, as well as for user-generated contributions from diverse localities. Thus, many sites allow consumers to personalize the type of international news by region. Yahoo! News in 2007 added local news for logged-in users right on the front page, delivered via location-specific URLs. Geospatial technologies increasingly will link mobile Internet use with Geographical Positioning Systems, making localization even more radical (see Satri, 2006). One person has suggested that news feeds will come to include GeoRSS tags, which will deliver stories only within a certain proximity to the user (anonymous, 2007). If so, instead of internationalising and globalising online news, the Internet's customization facility could marginalize what foreign content may be consumed. This ties in with the issue of target audiences for foreign news not being mass audiences, but niches with specialist interest (see Fonstra, 2004). One danger of such ultra-geocustomization, however, is a ghettoization of foreign news (both global and international) exactly at a time of unprecedented globalization. It could further weaken the national and international agenda-setting importance of news in common public spheres.

In this scenario, there is an Internet that reinforces blinkered and navel-gazing users in the First World, and dependency in the Third. However, arguably more important than geographic proximity determining audience interest in news, is the extent to which a given international story is told in a compelling way. One US editor put it thus: 'I've never disbelieved in Americans' appetite for foreign news. You can ask whether someone

is concerned with the North American Free Trade Agreement, or ask whether they're interested in trucks getting free passage between countries. You'll get different answers'. The type of foreign news is also significant. Public interest is 'less in politics and the stuff of governments than it is in, say, global warming, or hoof-and-mouth disease, or the status of women'. One survey in the USA showed that readers prefer good news and about ordinary people, over news about politics, government, economics, and disasters. They claim to want more about culture and customs in foreign news .

In other words, this perspective suggests that content, not audience is king. Consumption patterns can therefore follow production and text, rather than drive them. These observations problematize the conventional wisdom that foreign news in First World countries is intrinsically alien and undesired. Locality, it has been rightly said, is cultural and conceptual for audiences, as much as geographical.

On the production side, there are also dynamics which may militate against geo-parochialism. A new species of unintentional foreign correspondents has been noted with an example of a reporter in India writing for an Indian daily, but whose work is read over the Internet by a resident of Indianapolis (Hamilton & Jenner, 2002: 19). Similarly, it is recorded that because 50% of Bloomberg's subscribers are outside the United States, its staff is cautioned against describing its non-U.S.-based journalists as foreign correspondents (Hamilton & Jenner, 2002: 15). The geography of content creation will likely see an increase in foreigners acting as foreign correspondents for an external nation, and the rise of local foreign correspondents (i.e. domestic-based reporters covering foreign affairs without actually leaving the country) (Hamilton & Jenner, 2002: 14). One observer envisages that instead of a media house having an expensive foreign bureau, three home-based employees could instead trawl and translate the best online resources about a particular foreign location (Jarvis, 2007). However, this romanticism needs qualifying: without really 'being there', there can well be a loss of depth and perspective (Utley, 1997: 7).

Overall the online reality, as noted by Utley (1997: 9), means that anyone sending information from one country to another is a de facto foreign correspondent. However, as extremely valuable as people such as bloggers are, even those who are deliberately writing for international or global audiences, they are not a full alternative to professional

foreign correspondents. In that sense, they are not superior to the role of news agencies. As described by one observer: 'In an era of globalism, how can you suggest that the L.A. or Boston market does not need its own specialized foreign reporting that informs the local economy, the local culture and more, in a way that is different than what generic wires would cover' (cited in Sebastien, 2007). Overall, the Internet means that in the global production and circulation of content, there will be more foreign foreign-correspondents, and local foreign-correspondents and a range of bloggers. That is a different landscape to the pre-Internet age.

Conclusion

The role of the Internet in international news flows, and in affecting the quantity and quality of representations of 'foreign' countries, is still in its infancy. While direct access to foreign online news may somewhat compensate for inadequacies in the mainstream media, it is not conducive to common political spaces and supra-national identities. Even in advanced countries Web still serves as a supplement to other source of news.

The changing national demographics and consumer habits amongst people in the First World may raise new potential for extra-national news. Saturated markets in the First World may lead websites not only internationalize their offerings, but to encourage 'foreign' user input as well. There is a 'long tail' of international interests and advertisers, and conscious 'export' imperatives will likely grow. Part of this may well be via the 'widget' model— where centralized publishing is turned on its head so that a given website seeks to get as much of its local content republished by as many others as possible. Another part may be where First World publishers produce content tailored more directly to audiences elsewhere. On the other hand, as Third World countries become more competitive with their own websites targeting their own consumers, this could open new opportunities for creative configurations of production, distribution, consumption and audiences.

Much depends on the leadership of traditional media which also plays in cyberspace. Experts have warned that belief in a lack of audience interest becomes a self-fulfilling prophesy. Users in developing countries with limited online content have little choice in cyberspace.

It would be unfortunate if the Internet's main news role was to merely reflect back to respective users either their own locality, or their subordinate position in the global order of content creation. The Internet could enable every user to experience the extent and excitement of knowledge of a wider world that is ever more integrated, and one in which, digital divides notwithstanding, news content about and by developing countries can increasingly be contributed. While there are indeed centrifugal tendencies pushing some First World Internet news content towards hyperlocal myopia, there are also countervailing dynamics that in the long run give impetus to a hyperglobal dimension.

What remains without doubt is that the rise of Internet requires a rethink about the quantity and quality concerns about news between nations as originally articulated in the NWICO debates. To the extent that Internet users are able to avoid content regulation, and to the extent that access continues to expand, the flows across its networks may eventually overtake many of the NWICO concerns about problems in international news even if they unnecessarily mirror some of the focus of old media at this point in time.

Lesson-15

GLOBALIZATION AND MEDIA

15.0 Objectives

After reading the lesson, the student, will learn about

- Globalization and mass media

STRUCTURE

15.1 Introduction

15.2 Globalization and Mass media

Introduction

The decentralized nature of the Internet makes it very different from more traditional mass media, which distribute content created by the media industries. Global messages developed by the media industries are distributed through global media systems, such as CNN. CNN can distribute the same message throughout its worldwide television system. Prior to the 1990s, media systems were primarily national systems, but during the 1990s a global commercial media market emerged. According to McChesney (1999), "the rise of a global media market is encouraged by new digital and satellite technologies that make global markets both cost-effective and lucrative". Contributing to the trend toward media globalization was the formation of transnational corporations, the World Trade Organization (WTO), and the World Bank. All of these organizations helped to create a new form of global capitalism that uses global media to disseminate messages to global consumers.

In addition to financial interests, global media have an impact on media content, politics, and culture. Like the Internet, global media are influenced by the culture and interests of the United States. In some ways, global media could be considered an extension of the American system. At present, the United States exports more entertainment products than any other nation. McChesney (1999) reports that American media companies "have aggressively established numerous global editions of their channels to accommodate the new market". Three of the most important transnational media corporations are Time Warner (now AOL Time Warner), Disney, and News Corporation. In terms of

globalization, American cable companies have been called cable colonialists because they control the worldwide export of media content and attempt to establish digital satellite TV systems in regional and national markets around the world.

As the Internet becomes a broadband medium, it is increasingly taking on the characteristics of a mass medium rather than an interpersonal one. In the future, mass media trends could be extended to the Internet. For instance, a recent study of Dutch children's Internet usage revealed that they primarily used the Internet as a leisure medium to play games, watch video clips, and visit entertainment sites. Research on Americans however, shows people primarily use the Internet to maintain social relationships through e-mail. The Dutch study was conducted by Valkenburg and Soeters (2001), who examined children's home Internet usage. They found three primary motives for children's Internet use: affinity with computers, information seeking, and entertainment. Children must first of all enjoy sitting in front of a computer, the researchers found. Second, children use the Internet to find information about hobbies and homework assignments. Finally, they visit entertainment Web sites. The use of the Internet as an entertainment and leisure medium is similar to television usage.

Although transnational media corporations are attempting to establish operations in nations around the world, some countries want to protect their domestic media and culture industries. Some nations, including Norway, Denmark, Spain, Mexico, and South Korea, have established government subsidies to maintain their own domestic film industries. The British government proposed a voluntary levy on the revenues from domestic film theaters, which show predominantly Hollywood movies. These theater revenues could then be used to subsidize the British commercial film industry. However, the proposal was not passed by Parliament. Culture ministers from a variety of nations have been discussing how they can protect their own cultural identities in an increasingly American-influenced global media environment. Some nations, such as Singapore, edit and censor for broadcast media content created in the United States. Language usage, for instance, in the Singapore version of the Sopranos is vastly different from the American version because curse words have been edited out of the sound track. In such ways, individual nations can establish barriers that make it more difficult for global companies to broadcast their American-produced content.

Global media systems have been considered a form of cultural imperialism. Cultural imperialism takes place when a country dominates others through its media exports, including advertising messages, films, and television and radio programming. America's dominance in the entertainment industries made it difficult for other cultures to produce and distribute their own cultural products. Supporters of American popular culture argue that the universal popularity of American media products promotes a global media system that allows communication to cross national boundaries. American popular culture in addition challenges authority and outmoded traditions. Critics of American culture contend that cultural imperialism prevents the development of native cultures and has a negative impact on teenagers. Teenagers in other nations have rejected their own cultural music and dress. Instead, they want to wear American jeans and listen to American recording artists. Rock groups from other countries will even sing in English rather than use their native tongue.

A larger concern in the emerging global information economy is the fact that most of the world's population cannot afford the types of products advertised on global media. People who are constantly exposed to these media messages may want to own products that they can never afford, which could cause social unrest. Mass media portray a lifestyle of consumption that is very different from the lifestyles of people living in many other cultures.

Lesson-16

INTERNATIONAL TELECOMMUNICATION UNION

16.0 Objectives

After reading the lesson, the student, will learn about

- Functions of ITU and its members

STRUCTURE

16.1 Introduction

16.1.1 Membership

16.1.2 Cost of membership

16.1.3 Vision

16.2. Function of ITU and its membership

Introduction

ITU was founded in Paris in 1865 as the International Telegraph Union. It took its present name in 1934, and in 1947 became a specialized agency of the United Nations. Although its first area of expertise was the telegraph, the work of ITU now covers the whole ICT sector, from digital broadcasting to the Internet, and from mobile technologies to 3D TV. An organization of public-private partnership since its inception, ITU currently has a membership of 193 countries and some 700 private-sector entities. ITU is headquartered in Geneva, Switzerland, and has twelve regional and area offices around the world.

ITU is the United Nations specialized agency for information and communication technologies – ICTs. They allocate global radio spectrum and satellite orbits, develop the technical standards that ensure networks and technologies seamlessly interconnect, and strive to improve access to ICTs to underserved communities worldwide.

ITU is committed to connecting the entire world's people – wherever they live and whatever their means. Through their work, they protect and support everyone's fundamental right to communicate. They help manage and control emergency services, water supplies, power networks and food distribution chains. They support health care, education, government services, financial markets, transportation systems and

environmental management. And they allow people to communicate with colleagues, friends and family anytime, and almost anywhere.

With the help of their membership, ITU brings the benefits of modern communication technologies to people everywhere in an efficient, safe, easy and affordable manner. ITU membership reads like a Who's Who of the ICT sector. They're unique among UN agencies in having both public and private sector membership. So in addition to our 193 Member States, ITU membership includes ICT regulators, leading academic institutions and some 700 private companies. In an increasingly interconnected world, ITU is the single global organization embracing all players in this dynamic and fast-growing sector.

Membership. An organization based on public-private partnership since its inception, ITU currently has a membership of 193 countries and over 700 private-sector entities and academic institutions. ITU is headquartered in Geneva, Switzerland, and has twelve regional and area offices around the world. ITU membership represents a cross-section of the global ICT sector, from the world's largest manufacturers and carriers to small, innovative players working with new and emerging technologies, along with leading R&D institutions and academia.

Founded on the principle of international cooperation between governments (Member States) and the private sector (Sector Members, Associates and Academia), ITU is the premier global forum through which parties work towards consensus on a wide range of issues affecting the future direction of the ICT industry.

Cost of membership. ITU Member States and Sector Members pay in contributory units and, above a minimum amount, may freely choose their annual contribution. Organizations that have a specific focus can choose to participate in the work of a single study group as an Associate. Academia, universities and their associated research establishments benefit from preferential rates, as do Sector Members from some developing countries.

Vision. Virtually every facet of modern life – in business, culture or entertainment, at work and at home – depends on information and communication technologies. Today, there are billions of mobile phone subscribers, close to five billion people with access to television, and tens of millions of new Internet users every year. Hundreds of millions of people around the world use satellite services – whether getting directions from a satellite

navigation system, checking the weather forecast or watching television from isolated areas. Millions more use video compression every day in mobile phones, music players and cameras.

ITU is at the very heart of the ICT sector, brokering agreement on technologies, services, and allocation of global resources like radio-frequency spectrum and satellite orbital positions, to create a seamless global communications system that's robust, reliable, and constantly evolving. The global international telecommunications network is the largest and most sophisticated engineering feat ever created. You use it every time you log on to the web, send an e-mail or SMS, listen to the radio, watch television, order something online, travel by plane or ship – and of course every time you use a mobile phone, smart phone or tablet computer.

Functions of ITU and its membership. ITU makes phone calls possible: whether to the office next door or to a friend in another country. ITU standards, protocols and international agreements are the essential elements underpinning the global telecommunication system. ITU coordinates the world's satellites through the management of spectrum and orbits, bringing television, vehicle GPS navigation, maritime and aeronautical communications, weather information and online maps, and enabling communications in even the remotest parts of the planet.

ITU makes Internet access possible. The majority of Internet connections are facilitated by ITU standards. ITU helps support communications in the wake of disasters and emergencies – through on-the-ground assistance, dedicated emergency communications channels, technical standards for early warning systems, and practical help in rebuilding after a catastrophe.

ITU works with the industry to define the new technologies that will support tomorrow's networks and services. ITU powers the mobile revolution, forging the technical standards and policy frameworks that make mobile and broadband possible. ITU works with public and private sector partners to ensure that ICT access and services are affordable, equitable and universal. ITU empowers people around the world through technology education and training.

Lesson-17

INTERNATIONAL REGULATION IN AN ERA OF MULTI-GOVERNAMENANCE

17.0 Objectives

After reading the lesson, the student, will learn about

- Role of Electronic Media
- Public opinion on Governance

STRUCTURE

17.1 Introduction

17.2 Electronic Media and Civil Society

17.3 Partial Public Opinion

Introduction

The 1970s were a period of widespread criticism of established political systems and quests for alternatives to them. After the optimistic faith in technology and political solutions that characterized the early post-war years the spirit of the 1970s provided an aperture for a questioning of the international character and roles of mass media. With questioning came demands on the part of third world countries for stronger international regulation of the media system, demands formalized in the call for a new international information order.

The issue of a New World Information and Communication Order that occupied the UNESCO agenda of the 1970s is unique in that for once, international diplomacy and policy-makers acknowledged the international character of the media, their structures, world-views and markets. Some of the developments of this past decade could be discerned on the horizon even at the time of the endeavour for a NWICO. Indeed, increasing concentration of media ownership, monopolization of markets, and a decline in diversity were among the complaints the third world countries and others raised. But, it was quite impossible to envisage the breadth and depth of what was to come in the closing decades of the century. The globalization in the media system spurred by deregulation and privatization, concentration, commercialization and, not least, new

information technology, could not be foreseen in its manifold entirety. It was these developments that ultimately sealed the fate of NWICO as an issue.

The globalization of the media has accelerated and the digital divide has widened in recent years, and international information and media issues are once again in focus on the international agenda. The consequences of strong actors' operations on the global media market also occupy many media scholars today. Even if the points of departure and terms of reference used today are quite different from those of the 1970s, 'development' is still bound up with the modernist project of the Western world.

Today, however, solutions to the problems and issues are not sought in top-down steering and regulations on an international scale. Contemporary society is far too complex for that, and discourages the thought of 'a new international order' of the local to the global. One of the main items on the agenda today is *The World Summit on the Information Society, WSIS*. Arranged by the International Telecommunication Union (ITU) in partnership with, among others, UNESCO, under the high patronage of the UN Secretary-

General, the WSIS will be held in two sessions: December 2003 in Geneva and November 2005 in Tunis. The "anticipated" outcome of the Summit is "to develop and foster a clear statement of political will and a concrete plan of action for achieving the goals of the Information Society, while fully reflecting all the different interests at stake". One of the fundamental ideas behind the WSIS has been to create a more inclusive Information Society and to bridge the digital divide in a North-South perspective. Over the course of a series of Preparatory Committee meetings the agenda of the session in Geneva appears to have become oriented toward telecommunication and Internet-related issues in an increasingly technical perspective.

Many voices, not least within the civil society, have called for more attention to media, human rights and communication rights in the final document from the WSIS. That is to say, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, not least its Article 19 which emphasizes freedom of expression, and the principles of the free flow of information, the free circulation of ideas, freedom of the press, participation in the communication process, the right to communicate, cultural diversity, and so forth are once again in focus. It will require hard work to ensure that the Information Society, or the Knowledge

Society in UNESCO's usage, is equate with the attainment of basic economic, social and political rights for people around the world.

The significance of the WSIS will depend on the extent to which national governments, the private sector, the civil society and other relevant stakeholders are brought into the continued work toward these goals. The challenges facing those engaged in issues of development and mass communication are thus many and multifaceted. The politicians, practitioners and researchers in this sector must be mindful of the past and of the shadows it casts, yet take care not to mistake those shadows for the realities of the day.

Electronic Media and civil society

The specific power of mass media is due to its capacity to motivate political actors to become interested in specific themes. According to this, theoreticians refer to the *mobilizing function* of mass media. In contrast with this, the Net lacks the ability to dramatize problems in a way that political systems must take care of them. On the Net, there is no strategy for clustering different perspectives and discourses so that they may represent transcontextual themes and perspectives and that they could be answered by political decisions. This is one of the main reasons why people often complain about the lack of order and orientation on the Net. So, at least for the moment, mass media cannot be replaced by electronic communication networks, as only mass media guarantees this kind of transcontextual clustering of topics and is able to force political reactions. But we assume that the Net enlarges the possibilities of citizens of articulating their interests. Considering this, the Net will influence political public opinion to a large extent, because new domains of discussion and new discourse forms will enlarge current ways of generating public opinion.

Partial public opinion

Partial public opinion is characterized by variable non-governmental and non-economical associations and assemblies (that is, community pressure groups, political associations, etc.). According to Habermas, these pre-institutional forms of public opinion often contradict general public opinion produced by mass media and form an important space of resonance for the problems and interests of citizens. Mass media cannot exist without

this foundation of deliberate associations, because otherwise, the formal structure and the clear professional separation between the producers and the auditorium would not be able to mediate between politics and citizens.

Partial public opinion, like these non-formal associations, is more characterized by authenticity, creativity and sensibility; that is to say, partial public opinion is more open towards those problems and interests which are not represented in public opinion generated by mass media.

Problems confronting interactive media

The social benefit of interactive media is confronted by some fundamental problems, which may limit the *signal function* of computer-mediated communication. So, it is possible to argue against our interpretation by considering that even in industrialized countries, only a very small part of the population has access to the Internet. For many people, the personal computer and related equipment which would enable them to participate in on-line discussions is still too expensive. And in countries of the so-called "third world," the situation is even worse: most of the inhabitants of these countries do not even have a telephone connection. Therefore, the possibility of participating in democratic decision-making processes is restricted to a very small, prosperous part of the population.

Another problem is the financial resources are a necessary precondition of participation. Studies of "net-surfers" have shown that most of the active users of the Internet not only possess sufficient money and technical competence, but also a specific educational and cultural background which includes competencies such as speaking

Lesson-18

MEDIATING GLOBALIZATION MEDIA AND COMMUNICATIONS

18.0 Objectives

_After reading the lesson, the student, will learn about

- Meaning of international communication
- Global Mediation

STRUCTURE

18.1 Introduction

18.2 Global Mediation

18.2.1 Research in the field

18.3 History of mediated cross-border communication research

18.3.1 The early years: Propaganda research

18.4 The Cold War Decade: Ideological Struggles and alternative approaches

Introduction

Global Mediation

Social relationships are increasingly mediated and individuals in different locations within and between nations and states are connected to each other through media and communications. The increasing use of media and communications is one of the most striking features of our age and defines the ways we live. Globally, outside our homes, as established hierarchical social and political structures have given way to networks Castells .These networks are non-isomorphic with nation states and increasingly enable individuals to communicate across the borders from their homes. In this way, the private and the public are connected not only to each other but created new plural virtual private and public spaces we have never seen before.

We understand that connectivity is part of global mediation. Mediation is a concept that can be used as a starting point for any analysis of contemporary societies, in the same way as, for example, society or social interactions are used in political science or sociology. The concept is required in order to acknowledge that the nature of societies and social relationships have fundamentally changed and become increasingly mediated

through the use of media and communications. This change has broken traditional boundaries of national societies and given birth to new global connections, again characterized by their mediation. Mediation refers to both the material and the phenomenal nature of media and communication. It brings together the study of innovation, technology, production, content and use. Global mediation is a process in which some have more power than other.

Research in the field. Mediated cross-border communication is a scholarly field in communication studies and refers to any mediated form of communication in the course of which nation state or cultural borders are crossed or even get transgressed and undermined (e.g., world news, satellite television, transnational media events). The expression serves as an umbrella term that encompasses different research approaches (e.g., international communication, transnational communication) that can heuristically be differentiated by their specific use of research perspectives, as well as particular levels and objects of analysis.

Thematically, research is often concerned with the political dimension of mediated cross-border communication. Examples include studies on the impact of mediated cross-border communication on foreign policy (CNN effect, political change (media and democratization, zapatista effect, boomerang effect), research on official government communication targeting foreign audiences (e.g., certain kinds of International broadcasting, Public diplomacy) and questions on media representations of the developing world (e.g., New World Information and Communication Order). Apart from that, global mass communication ethics and the globalization of entertainment constitute further important topics. An at least implicit common feature to almost all of the aforementioned topics is their general interest in answering the question to what extent nationally, culturally or otherwise defined media systems influence each other, converge or whether they can pertain distinct identities under conditions of mediated cross-border communication.

Mediated cross-border communication is considered as becoming increasingly important both as a real world phenomenon and field of research as there has been a steady strengthening of the conditions of globalization and media innovations that offer fast and low-cost forms of cross-border communication since the second half of the twentieth

century. However, critics argue that the importance of the nation state remains high; for example, most online communication still takes place between citizens of the same nation state. Also, the responsibility for most broadcasting and press legislation usually rests with individual national states.

History of mediated cross-border communication research

The history of mediated cross-border communication research is closely related to the three major decades of the 20th century, which stimulated and influenced this field of research thematically, financially as well as ideologically:

- The two world wars in the first half of the 20th century
- The decades of the Cold War in the second half of the century
- The era of globalization since the 1990s until today

The early years: propaganda research. The propaganda operations of the great powers in the twentieth century's two world wars are often considered to have been the initiating driving forces for sustained scholarly interest into mediated cross-border research. Although cross-border communication activities have been set in place by national governments since ancient history .it was not until the early twentieth century that such international propaganda efforts were followed by systematic academic research.

The Cold War decade: ideological struggles and alternative approaches

For decades, the scholarly field of cross-border communication had been influenced by the “Four theories of press”. In their seminal work, Siebert et al. (1956) compared the role of the media in four contrasting polities: authoritarian, libertarian, Soviet, and “social responsibility”. With regard to the opposition between state and individual, the role of the media in each of the aforementioned systems was said to be organized differently. Even though the book received widespread scholarly attention, it is today commonly criticized for its ideological bias, lack of empirical concern and universal approach.

The dynamics of the Cold War era drew further scholarly attention to a second area of mediated cross-border communication research, regarding questions of “third world” development communication. At that time, research was mostly driven by the ideologically motivated assumption that unless the Western nations could “modernize” developing countries – often in the reduced sense of economic growth and a Western idea of modernism –, they would fall under control of China and the Soviet Union. In this

context, media were considered as being crucial for the change of attitudes and behavior of individuals, thus supporting the modernization of countries. An important work to this branch of research represents Daniel Lerner's (1958) "The Passing of traditional society", in which he analyzed Turkey and five Arab states.

Lesson-19

EVOLUTION OF GLOBALIZATION

19.0 Objectives

After reading the lesson, the student, will learn about

- History of Globalization
- Need for international communication

STRUCTURE

19.1 The era of globalization: The 1990s until today

19.2 Dimensions of analysis

19.3 Research perspectives

19.4 Type Cases under study Research Objectives

19.4.1 Level of analysis

19.4.2 Objects of analysis

19.5 International Communication

19.6 Transnational Communication

19.7 Over-estimation of media globalization

The era of globalization: the 1990s until today

A third major stimulus to the field of study was set into place in 2004 with the publication of "Comparing media systems" . Unlike the "Four theories of the press", an emphasis was put on the synthesis of empirical findings. Furthermore, the authors tried to avoid the universal approach put forward by Siebert et al., focusing themselves on North America and Western Europe countries. The work has been stimulating a great number of subsequent studies that try to adopt and modify the models and analytical dimensions (e.g., Political parallelism) of "Comparing media systems" to other parts of the world.

Dimensions of analysis. Research approaches to mediated cross-border communication can be categorized with regard to the respective dimensions of analysis. Wessler and Brüggemann (2012) propose three dimensions of analysis: (1) Research perspectives, (2) levels and (3) objects of analysis. Most entities discussed below are considered to be convergent by nature, thus being open for combination and parallel use.

Research perspectives

Three different research perspectives are commonly applied to the field of mediated cross-border communication;

- the “comparative perspective”
- the “influence perspective”
- the “transgression perspective”

As a “meta-method”, the comparative perspective is common to the vast majority of studies in this academic field and can be combined with all subsequent methods, perspectives, levels and objects of analysis.

(1) The “comparative perspective” (Comparative research) seeks for similarities and differences as well as processes of convergence and divergence between different entities such as national media systems or organizations.

With regard to research goals, two basic comparative research designs can be differentiated (Przeworski&Teune, 1970; Meckstroth, 1975). The “Most different systems, similar outcome design” aims to compare heterogeneous media systems to identify general statements which are (relatively) invariant concerning the systems within which observations are made (e.g., in a survey of journalists from seventeen explicitly different countries, Hanitzsch et al. (2010) extracted relatively invariant cross-national structures of perceived influences on journalism). By contrast, the “Most similar system, different outcome design” stresses the individual causes of observed differences between a given number of media systems. The rationale behind this second approach is that causes of intercultural or international differences are thought to be easier to interpret when the cases under study share many similarities (e.g., Hallin and Mancini said that one of the main reasons for focusing on Western media systems in their seminal work from 2004 as to reduce the number and complexity of variables).

Type Cases under study Research objectives

Most different systems, similar outcome Media systems with contrasting structural features Identification of predictor variables of relatively invariant cross-national/cultural outcomes.

(1) Most similar systems, different outcome Media systems with similar structural features Identification of predictor variables of individual country/culture-specific outcomes

(2) The “influence perspective” focuses on patterns of exchange, influence, dominance and resistance in the relationship between two or more entities. Studies that follow this perspective ask, for example, to what extent American mass media are in some respects dominant and exert influence to other media systems worldwide (Americanization of the Media, New World Information and Communication Order).

(3) The “transgression perspective” is looking for mediated cross-border communication that leads to structures and processes beyond traditional nation state or cultural borders [[e.g., European public sphere), whereas the aforementioned influence perspective is stronger connected to the idea of fixed entities.

Levels of analysis. (1) “Individual/group”, (2) “organization”, (3) “state/society”, (4) “linguistic/political/cultural areas“ and (5) “the world/global level” constitute the five levels of analysis. It is important to note that these levels are (a) not hierarchal (e.g., mediated cross-border communication between groups in social media constituted by individuals from different places worldwide) and that (b) unit of analysis and record unit are not necessarily one and the same (e.g., foreign coverage of multiple newspapers as recording unit, which then get aggregated, compared and analyzed on a nation/society level).

Objects of analysis. A broad range of objects of analysis is subject to mediated cross-border communication research: (1) “media publics”, (2) “media contents”, (3) “media products”, (4) “media structures” and (5) “societal actors”. For example, in their study from 2004, Hallin and Mancini ask for the relationship between media and politics, hereby analyzing (among others) the development of national mass circulation press, literacy rates and the autonomy of journalists from societal actors (such as political parties and the government) from a comparative perspective Research approaches

International communication

International communication research is concerned with communication that crosses nation state borders without actually contesting them. The field of international communication is characterized by an influence perspective, comparing for example news flows between national media systems in order to analyze, for example, structures of dominance and resistance. While this perspective has been central to the field of international communication throughout the 1960s and 1970s, there has been increasing criticism since the 1980s, with scholars arguing that it would lack to be able to explain the complexity of mediated cross-border communication and its effects.

Transnational communication

Being a more recent and emerging research approach, transnational communication is concerned with communication that transcends nation state borders, thus undermining their importance and eventually leading to structures and processes of transgression. Examples include:

TV channels such as CNN, whose program is no longer directed toward particular national or cultural but global audiences. Media events such as the U.N. climate summits which contribute toward a globally defined identity. Transnational civil society such as Amnesty International who contribute to the definition, awareness and spread of global issues such as human rights. Especially the Europeanization of national public spheres has attracted major scholarly interest covered by this research approach (e.g., Wessler, Peters, Brüggemann, Kleinen-von-Königslöw, & Sifft drawing light to questions like for example to what extent discourses in European countries converge, or show signs of discursive integration and collective identification.

Over-estimation of media globalization

Hafez argues that the qualitative dimension of mediated cross-border communication may be much different compared to what some scholars assume it would be. Speaking of the "myth of media globalization", Hafez warns not to confound technical potentials of media innovations with their actual use. For example, Hafez refers to statistics saying that while many people have access to foreign TV channels; the majority mainly uses national or local channels. Similar to that, most people use the Internet as a 'local medium', as the bulk of accessed websites and communication stays within national borders. The

increasingly multilingual character of the Internet may even further the fragmentation of the World Wide Web into separate public spheres.

Such notions concerned with the use of media correspond to insights on the level of media contents gained by an international comparative study of online-news websites conducted by Quandt (2008), who found that in most cases coverage is much limited by the traditional, national context, concluding that online-news may not be as "global" as one might expect. In accordance with these findings, Halavais (2000) reported after surveying more than 45,000 pages that although geographic borders may be removed from cyberspace, the 'real world' social structures keep inscribed online: the number of hyperlinks that cross international borders are significantly less compared to those which stay within national borders.

Lesson-20

GLOBAL INITIATIVE FOR INCLUSIVE INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGY

20.0 Objectives

After reading the lesson, the student, will learn about

- Information and Communication Technology
- International cooperation mechanism

STRUCTURE

20.1 Introduction

20.2 Background on ICT Accessibility

20.3 International Cooperation Mechanism

20.4 Participation to WIPO negotiations on copyrights exemptions

20.5 International cooperation mechanism

Introduction

The role of international cooperation is particularly important in matters of accessibility to information and communication technologies and assistive technologies. Indeed, there is no need to demonstrate that information technologies products and services are driven

by global market forces, global vendors and international standards. In such context, states parties can achieve little in isolation.

Background on ICT Accessibility

In fact, by adopting national standards inconsistent with international standards, States Parties can unwillingly fragment the market which in turn can cause dis-economies of scale and increase costs for end-users, including persons with disabilities. Such result would in fact contradict the disposition of the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD) calling for States Parties to make available affordable solutions to persons with disabilities. Equally important in terms of promoting global standards is the need to ensure global interoperability between information infrastructure and assistive technologies. Finally, one of the challenges and opportunities which States Parties need to tackle is that, while solutions exist to make ICT accessible and many free open source assistive solutions are available, few disabled persons benefit from those around the world.

In order to address those issues and anticipating the adoption of the Convention by many countries, the United Nations Global Alliance for ICT and Development, in cooperation with the Secretariat for the Convention at UNDESA, staged the creation of G3ict – the Global Initiative for Inclusive ICTs. G3ict was designed since inception as a multi-stakeholders advocacy initiative exclusively focused on issues related to accessible and assistive technologies. Since inception, all research and capacity building programs produced by G3ict have involved an international network of industry, disabled persons and public sector organizations in order to take into account their input and address issues with a global perspective.

International cooperation mechanism

Based upon G3ict experience over the last four years, there are four strategies for international cooperation which States Parties should contemplate:

Participation to standards activities. Currently the main organizations dealing with ICT accessibility standards are ISO and its regional standards development affiliated organizations (ANSI, ETSI etc.); ITU, W3C-WAI. While those organizations have produced considerable standards work, they remain largely unknown from policy makers and even from industry. It is also worth mentioning that developed countries are over -

represented and developing nations under - represented in the various accessibility committees of those standardization organizations. However, the CRPD stipulated that States Parties shall promote accessibility standards. Hence a significant gap between guidelines and practice.

Enforcing accessibility standards via public procurement. Government's purchases of ICTs represent a very large portion of any national IT market. Governments, by applying accessibility standards in their lists of specifications can influence industry behavior, help build national expertise in support services and lead by example. While there is no mention of public procurement in the CRPD itself, the reporting guidelines issued by the United Nations SG do include such question. Existing coordination of public procurement has been informally established by the U.S. Access Board which invited international participants to its TEITAC sessions, a multi-stakeholder committee charged with the definition of public procurement ICT standards including the EC, Japan, Canada and Australia.

Aligning requirements for accessible broadcasting and telecommunications services can be a relatively simple task within the context of each major family of global equipment standards. Solutions exist which are proven for television, mobile phones, fixed phones and web sites. The International Telecommunication Union (ITU), in cooperation with G3ict, is promoting such approach through systematic capacity building programs on all continents. This sector represents the greatest opportunity for short term results for persons with disabilities since one single entity controls in most countries a few operators serving the entire population. It is also worth noting that regulatory authorities exist in most countries today:

Promotion of Assistive Technologies

International cooperation in the field of assistive technologies is a more complex challenge. Assistive technologies require a very strong training and support "ecosystem" to deliver results for persons with disabilities. Governments typically intervene via three main channels to promote assistive solutions for persons with disabilities: national education systems, workplace accommodation and rehabilitation services. Current international cooperation in those three areas can be summarized as follows:

Education

Today, most ratifying countries do have programs in place to provide reasonable accommodations to students with disabilities in schools and universities, including ICTs,

systems and contents. Little cooperation exists however in this field and exchanges of experiences are simply not happening in any significant way internationally. G3ict entered into a partnership agreement with UNESCO to develop ministerial level policy and programmatic exchanges starting in 2011. It is also organizing in cooperation with WIPO, ITU, UNESCO and Indian NGOs a workshop on this topic in October 2010 in New Delhi, the results of which will serve to identify capacity building priorities for future programs. UNESCO is involved since many years in promoting education for students with disabilities and its programs have reached a large number of countries including in matters of technology. UNESCO's constituents include government department overseeing education in most countries and is therefore well positioned to develop capacity building programs and foster international cooperation.

Workplace

There is little cooperation in matters of ICT accessibility for the workplace in the world today. ILO is currently launching a network of companies and institutions to promote the employment of persons with disabilities. It is likely that such program will include a component on reasonable accommodation with ICT accessibility and assistive technologies good practices sharing.

Rehabilitation Centers

Exchanges in the field of rehabilitation are occurring through well-established professional organizations. Promoting assistive technologies is critical when providing support services to persons who acquired a disability following an injury of disease and who are trying to rejoin the workforce or other regular activities. Because of the close association with medical professions, rehabilitation services do have a tradition of exchanging technical and good practices information. There is however no formal systematic international cooperation program on assistive technologies in place as of today among UN agencies – to our knowledge.

One of the common challenges among countries promoting assistive technologies is the weak support and services “ecosystem” which they can rely on. In addition, frequent technology changes, a highly fragmented industry, a lack of interoperability and non-coordinated government initiatives among agencies make this entire field a very difficult to improve upon.

Participation to WIPO negotiations on copyrights exemptions

One important area of international cooperation is the current negotiation of a new treaty led by WIPO on copyrights exemptions to allow access to copyrighted contents by persons with disabilities via digital means. Unlike in the case of standardization bodies, developed and developing countries both anticipate actively to those discussions. It is worth noting that the negotiation was actually initiated by several Latin American countries.

International cooperation mechanism

G3ict's will continue to pursue its mission in cooperation with United Nations affiliated agencies in order to reach out appropriate government agencies in each country: telecom addition, the World Bank, regional development organizations such as UNESCAP and other agencies like UNICEF, do offer excellent venues for international cooperation in the field of accessible and assistive technologies policies and programs.

In parallel, G3ict continues its close involvement with leading standards development organizations including ITU-T, ISO and W3C-WAI, IT professional organizations as well as disabled person's organizations.

One important aspect of any capacity building program is the need to associate multiple stakeholders and disabled person's organizations in particular. ICT accessibility is an area which cannot be promoted effectively without the full participation of all parties concerned. G3ict also observed that the active participation of disabled person's organizations in capacity building programs for government officials and private sector leaders is a critical factor of success, notably by building the necessary momentum of the dialogue required to develop policies and programs.

Finally, G3ict believes that without standardized measurement of accessibility in various domains, driving change through policies will remain illusory. Several governments have proven the effectiveness of measuring accessibility of various services such as e-government web sites and publishing results. The attached presentation summarizes the key findings of the first G3ict progress report. G3ict plans to develop in coordination with ITU, UNESCO and ILO a first attempt to develop a benchmarking tool by utilizing aggregated country data from annual surveys conducted by those agencies, in addition to G3ict own data collection process. G3ict will reconvene the same Research Committee

regulators with ITU, education agencies with UNESCO, workplace accommodation with ILO, possibly rehabilitation centers with WHO, if such cooperation is possible. In which had helped design the first survey and included participants from international institutions, disabled persons, industry, academia and observers from the OHCHR.
